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HUNT'S
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE
AND
COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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SEPTEMBER, 1853.  
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Art. I.—DOMINION OF THE SEAS, AND THE FISHERIES.

A YEAR since the whole nation was laboring under intense excitement in regard to the subject of the fisheries. British cruisers were swarming upon those waters which, for more than half a century, had been the peaceable fishing grounds of American citizens, and, in defiance of all law, and all justice, attempted to drive our hardy fishermen from their peaceable and profitable pursuits, and at the same time, asserting claims to certain parts of the fishing grounds, the absurdity of which could only be equalled by the insolence with which she attempted to enforce them. Government, to allay the excitement, to quiet the growing discontent of the people, and restore confidence to those employed in that hardy occupation and, at the same time, most important branch of Commerce, gave out that the two governments were endeavoring to cause a final and reciprocal settlement of the question. But, as yet, no such arrangements have been made, and our rights are no more carefully defended or rigorously guarded than they were then, while on the part of her Majesty's government, comes the assurance *that it is prepared and intends to renew this season* the overbearing policy it pursued the last. Nor have the British colonies interested in this question ceased their importunities to the mother country, but, on the contrary, we have now before us an address from both houses of the New Brunswick Legislature, to her most gracious Majesty the Queen, which urges, with undiminished vigor, the repetition of that policy which awakened such wide-spread and well merited indignation. In this address (published in the London Times May 11th, 1853,) they, in behalf of the colony, declare that the prompt and efficient protection afforded by her Majesty's naval forces to the fisheries of British North America which secured its coasts from foreign aggression during the last year, and enabled British subjects to enjoy unmolested their rights and their privileges, has inspired the inhabitants of New Brunswick with increased confidence in the determination of her Majesty's government

to maintain, to the fullest extent, their claims to those unalienable privileges, and they again entreat that her Majesty will be pleased to continue such protection, with the belief that it will prove much more satisfactory than the acceptance of any equivalent yet offered by the American Government. They then add, "Maritime nations, at all times and in every quarter of the globe, have set up and maintained certain exclusive privileges within three marine leagues of the shore, and by universal custom and the law of nations, this claim has been defined by lines not within bays, but from the entrances of such as are designated by lines drawn from headland to headland forming such bays." They then assert that our fisheries are valueless, theirs priceless; that there can be no reciprocity in mutual liberty to fish on each other's coast, but that, as a set-off to our free participation in their fisheries, we must admit a reciprocity in trade in the following commodities, viz.: grain and breadstuffs of all kinds, all natural productions of the colonies, including their fish, to admit colonial built ships to register in American ports, to permit colonial vessels to trade from one port to another in the United States, and lastly, the privilege of fishing on the American coast. Upon this address the government organ, (May 14th,) in a semi-official manner, expresses its satisfaction in hearing that such beneficial results attended her Majesty's demonstration, and adds, "We at once acknowledge the validity of the interpretation given by the British government to the treaty of 1818, and the importance of putting an end to the infractions of that convention which had occurred partly under cover of the concessions made with reference to the Bay of Fundy in 1845." It then assures the colonists that instructions, similar to those given last year, have been sent to Admiral Seymour, and adds "that experience has demonstrated that these measures are in no degree inconsistent with the rights of the United States." These measures here spoken of and asserted to be the result of a desire to fulfil a treaty stipulation, are nothing more or less than the revival of England's old claim to dominion of the seas.

This claim of property in the sea dates even from the fabulous ages, and there is scarcely a nation of antiquity, or even those of modern times, but have asserted this claim and, at some period of their history, warred for it.* Each and all of them called this assumed right the dominion of the seas, and, as the claim still lives, and is intimately connected with the three great unsettled points of commercial interest, viz.; right of search, impressment of seamen, and the fisheries, we propose in these papers to look at its rise and progress, and to examine into the foundations upon which it rests, especially as regards the fisheries. Of the nations of antiquity, whose manners, customs, and habits have been handed down to us upon the pages of history, the Phenicians stand pre-eminent as the first maritime and commercial people. Settled by the shores of the Red Sea,† (which they possessed on all sides, and could rightfully claim dominion over it,) they made its waters their home, and claimed it as property; and we may here remark that the origin of the claim of property in the sea was based on right principles, and still holds good by the law of nations.

When driven from thence by the children of Israel to the more extended coast of Syria, they, unmindful of the vast expanse before them, asserted the same claim, coveting no empire on the land, but asserting that of the sea.‡

* France constitutes an honorable exception.

† Herodotus.

‡ Rees.

Quintus Curtius remarks of them, that from the time of their taking command of the sea, they grew mighty in power and dispersed their colonies to Spain, Africa, and the British Isles. Of the colonies she planted, Carthage was her glory and her pride; and well did the child remember the example and precepts of its founders and parents. Planted by a Tyrian colony under Dido, their pursuits, like Tyre's, were purely commercial, and in furtherance of their purposes, they possessed themselves of many places on the coast of the Mediterranean, and conquered the Sardinian, Corsican, and Canary Isles, and made voyages of discovery that have handed down to posterity the name of Hanno, who shines more brightly as a navigator than a statesman.* Descendants of Esau, they early gave signs of being willing instruments in fulfilling the decree of the Almighty, that their hands should be against every man's, and every man's hand against them; and in each and all of their pursuits they asserted their claim of being "lords of the sea," and when at the height of their power, they once set bounds to the navy of Rome.†

The custom of the Persians in sending an ambassador to demand earth and water of other states as an acknowledgment of her dominion over these two elements, is too well known to need any further remark; but there is another nation which demands a more extended notice, because, for many centuries, she has been supposed to have been peculiarly averse to the navigation of the seas, and yet this very power disputed with Phenicia the dominion of them.

The Egyptians worshipped Isis as the Grecians did Neptune, and moved, as they thought, by that god, they sought upon the sea the honor, glory and dominion they had gained upon the land. As we remarked in the commencement, this claim extended back to the fabulous ages, and among the poetic tales of Greece was the story of Jupiter robbing his father of his kingdom and sharing it with his brethren, giving Pluto the infernal world, himself taking the earth, and giving Neptune the sea.‡ While such were the legendary tales of Greece, it is not to be wondered at that Minos, its first king, claimed dominion over the waters adjacent to his island, and inculcated the same opinion into the then lesser states of Greece.

Nor were they slow in arrogating to themselves this power, and in contending for it. Athens and Sparta poured out like water their best blood,§ and spent treasures which, if they had been husbanded, might have kept Peloponnesia from becoming the humble Roman province of Achai. In the exercise of this power they restrained the Persians from sailing westward of Cayenne and Chalcedonis, and, as victory or success fluctuated between them in their intestine troubles and maritime wars, they limited the number of ships, or destroyed entirely the mercantile and maritime power of their rivals.¶ But these states perished from the seeds of decay they themselves had sown, and all became tributary powers and provinces to that towering empire to whose Commerce they once set bounds, and whose navy they once laughed to scorn. Whatever vices Rome may have possessed, she had one transcendent virtue, nor was it dimmed or weakened in its strength till her pristine virtue had departed, and every noble principle of her early rulers overshadowed and beclouded by the vices of her last race of Emperors. Though every nation that had preceded her had claimed property in

* Eschenberg's Classical Manual.

† Rollin, vol. i., p. 169.

‡ Selden.

§ Sir Walter Raleigh's History of the World. 1614. Part i., pp. 67, 73, 88.

the sea, her emperors declared that the sea and its shores were free to all men;* and, even to the times of Justinian, the wisest lawyers of Rome declared such to be then the law. But, under the emperor Leo, the possessor of the land was allowed to claim as property the water lying before it, and to sell the privilege of fishing, while, at the same time, the Thracian Bosphorus was parceled, like land, into lots, and sold to the highest bidder.† Till the time of Leo the Straits of the Bosphorus were open to the freedom of trade; but under that emperor a tax was levied on each ship passing through them, and Egypt was forced to send yearly an ambassador to Constantinople to solicit the privilege of navigating the Roman seas.‡ As Rome grew feeble in defense of her rights, so her smaller vassals grew insolent in their demands, and beneath the very walls of Byzantium Genoa warred with Venice for the mastery of the sea, and dragged in triumph through the Golden Horn her vanquished foe, and, in its insolence, demanded of the emperor the concession of the dominion of the sea. At the beginning of these contests, (1259,) the Venetians were triumphant in every battle; but in 1293-4, they lost a hundred ships, and yielded to Genoa the mastery of the sea. But the glory of that republic was of short duration, for despite her defeats and disasters, Venice, during the next century, contended for the right she had conceded, and, by the treaty of Turin, (1381,) gave the death blow to that rival who claimed the empire of the Black and Adriatic Seas.‡ At the latter part of this century she received from Alexander III. a bull giving her the dominion of the Adriatic in consideration of the services she had rendered him in destroying the fleet of Frederik Barbarossa.§ At the latter part of the fourteenth century, she had extended her maritime voyages to the West Indies, and in the fifteenth we find her warring with Portugal for the dominion of the Indian seas.

In the middle of the fifteenth century, Austria, whose commercial enterprise she had very early checked, demanded a convention with her to discuss the validity of her claims to the dominion of the Adriatic. In 1557 the convention took place, and it was alleged on the part of Austria that such a claim was contrary to the freedom of trade (which Venice had previously stipulated by treaty,) and a denial of the principle that the sea was common to all. Chizzola, on the part of Venice, confesses that the proposition that the sea was common to all, was true, but that it meant only the high waves, that it must have a master, or else all upon its waters would go into anarchy, so that states were in duty bound to claim and exercise dominion over it.¶ He also contended that the sea could be made property and be divided among men and appropriated; and lastly, based the right of Venice upon prescription, dating the claim back some six hundred years. It is almost needless to say that the convention produced no change, and that other nations, in their turns, entered the same protest. The Hanseatic League, in 1640, reiterated the same general principles as those advanced by Austria, and maintained that no one could be debarred the privilege of navigation and fishing, and that any one thus debarred had the right to bring an action for damages.¶ She again responded as to Austria, asserting the right of a prince to allow or deny his or any other people the right, privileges and liberties of Commerce. We suppose it was at this period that Julius Pacius

Justinian's Institutes, lib. ii., cap. 2.

† Smedley's Venetian History.

‡ *Dominum Maris*. 1652.

† Chambers' Dictionary, article Sea.

§ Bernard's Historical Dictionary.

¶ *De Jure Maritima et Navali*.

put forth his defense of the right of the republic as embodied in the three propositions as given in Azuni's *Droit Maritime de l'Europe*. The two first were, in reality, embodied in the last, which was, what is the effect of this sovereignty and dominion? He answers, it grants power to impose taxes or duties, guaranties the protection of the subject, and assumes the expulsion of pirates.* As late as 1717, Austria again combated this claim, and Bennetti Landi defended, with honor to himself and country, the principles and policy of Austria,† and when, a century later, Venice became incorporated with the empire she once spurned, she should have been consoled with the thought that she was but paying simple interest on the debt she owed to Austria for the four hundred ships she had taxed, confiscated, and destroyed in asserting her right to property in the sea.‡ Whilst minor states were thus asserting their claims, empires then deemed mighty, but now powerless, came forward with their arrogant assumptions. Portugal, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, had commenced those discoveries which afterward gave her such power, and made her so insolent while possessing it. Their first voyages commenced in 1418, though it was not till 1433 that they made the discovery of Africa. In 1498 Gama landed upon the long sought for coast of the Indies, and thus laid the foundation of Portugal's dominions in the East. Elated with the success of his servants, and dazzled and blinded by his boundless and precious acquisitions, he styled himself Lord of the Navigation and Commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia and Persia.§ It was the boast of the king that he possessed 12,000 miles of seacoast, stretching from the Cape of Good Hope to the frontiers of China, and over this vast extent he arrogated to himself exclusive navigation,|| and ruined his empire by contesting the opponents of this claim. From the beginning to the end of Portugal's arrogant assumptions, she had an ally every way worthy of her, and whose end was alike disastrous and infamous. From the beginning of the discoveries of Christopher Columbus, Spain arrogated to herself the same right of navigation and Commerce as did Portugal. In 1493 Pope Alexander VI. granted the famous bull¶ giving to Spain all islands, continents and lands westward of one hundred leagues from the Azores and Cape de Verdes, and added to the fact of discovery under this bull** she claims the right of sole and entire navigation of the Atlantic Ocean. We think that this claim provoked no very serious remonstrance till the time of Elizabeth, when it assumed a phase of importance not unworthy of notice. In the early part of her reign the spirit of adventure had prompted he.

* Azuni's *Droit Maritime de l'Europe*, tome i., pp. 31, 32.

† Historical Register, 1717, p. 368.

‡ *Dominum Maris*.

§ History of British India.

¶ Five ships, sufficed to transact all commercial exchanges between Portugal and her East India possessions. At first the king had the monopoly of the trade, giving the merchant twelve ducats per quintal for the pepper, and only thirty thousand quintals were allowed to be imported, as that was thought sufficient for all Europe.—Robert's Map of Commerce, 1700.

‡ Though this bull was the result of a reference by the kings of Portugal and Spain, of their mutual claims, which each deemed conflicted with the other's rights, still it was not satisfactory to either party. The reader will see by looking at the map, that the line drawn from the north pole one hundred leagues westward of the Azores, would have cut off Portugal from the Brazils, and in addition to this, it conflicted with a previous bull, given to Portugal in 1445. To remedy these defects, a treaty was made at Tordesillas, in 1494, removing the line 376 leagues (instead of 100) westward from the Azores, which carried Spain's line to the outer bank of Newfoundland. In 1506 another treaty gave to each power the right to navigate and travel over each other's seas and possessions. In 1525 another meeting of the commissioners took place to settle the claims of the Spaniards, as regarded some East India possessions. The result was, Spain had ceded to her the Malucca islands, which she sold to Portugal for 350,000 ducats. All of the various treaties and conventions were sent to the Pope for his approval, and duly ratified by his bulls.—Gordon's Spanish America, vol. ii.; Ancient History of Portugal.

** For the famous bull of 1493, under which Spain claimed the dominion of the seas, see Hazard's Historical Collection, vol. i., and *Annals d'Espagne, et de Portugal*, vol. iv.

Drake, Raleigh and Cavendish to perform those voyages that have given their names so conspicuous a place among the early voyagers of England. Drake, in circumnavigating the world, had sailed through those seas to which Spain laid exclusive claim, and which prompted her to make it a matter of complaint to the English court.*

Not content with this remonstrance and prohibiting trade to America, she, in 1600, prohibited all trade to the Indies,† and from this date her history for a long period is but a continual repetition of wars upon England and Holland to drive them from those long coveted possessions. If any monarch or any empire was ever capable of enforcing such a restriction, it was the monarch of and the empire of Spain and Portugal, then united under Philip II. He was at that time the richest monarch of Europe, both as regarded his political power and princely possessions.‡ Under him was fitted out that Invincible Armada that was to have triumphantly asserted his claim to the dominion of the sea, but which was scattered by nature itself, as if she was conscious of the violation of her laws which he proposed to commit. By the defeat of this fleet he was obliged to concede to Holland the right to trade to the Indies, and leave England in the peaceable possession of the acquisitions she had there made. We see but little for a century from this date which seems worthy of notice as regards the maritime pretensions of Spain; but, as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century, she again put in practice her early assumptions. Though, at first, her efforts were directed to the encouragement of the Ostend Company, hoping by the success of this project, to undermine the East India trade of England and Holland, (through the aid of Austrian subjects in the Low Countries); yet, a little later, in a note addressed to the Court of Great Britain, she says, (when attempting to conceal her treaty with Austria, by which she had stipulated to that power aid in carrying out that plan,) "should this treaty be made (i. e. the Ostend part of it) without reserving to itself (Spain) the exclusive right of navigation to the Indies, Holland might complain," &c. Here was the same assumption of dominion as that put forth when she was at the height of her power, nor was it an idle, unmeaning declaration; for she soon began her seizures of British ships sailing to the American colonies. All vessels sailing within a certain distance of her possessions, were seized by her privateers, or rigorously searched and insolently examined by her cruisers. In 1729 she had taken 130 ships and sloops, valued at £1,300,000. Such outrages as these awakened in England universal indignation,|| and the result was that by the treaty of Seville she was obliged to renounce the secret treaty with Austria, and again guaranty the same rights to Holland that she had endeavored to destroy; and from that day she commenced her decline from a mighty maritime nation, to a state too insignificant to attract any notice and too weak to awaken any fear. As Portugal was often the ally of her pride, so she is now the partner of her degradation; and the two nations stand as a warning to all others to never assert a principle and war for it, when it is contrary to right reason, the precepts of God, and the law of nations.

* Elizabeth answered this protest by observing that the sea was common to all, and no one had a right to forbid the navigation of it.—*Oriental Commerce*.

† *Discourse on the Present State of Spain*. 1601.

‡ *Biographe Universelle*.

|| The position of Spain at this time and the nature of her claims will be found discussed at length, under "Enquiry into the Reasons of the Conduct of Great Britain with Relation to the Present state of Foreign Affairs. London: 1727. Answer, Rejoinder, and further remarks. 1729. Also *Historical Register*, vol. xi., 1724, and xv., 1729, containing the treaty of Seville."

From these more southern and polite nations, in whose bosoms had flourished the arts, Commerce, and manufactures, we turn to those northern States, whose hordes desolated Rome, and left upon Italy for centuries the indelible marks of their barbarism. As early as 570 the Danes, by their maritime depredations, had given great trouble to the Roman emperors, and by the eighth century, they carried death, devastation, and destruction, to England, Ireland, and the countries around the Hellespont, and left as the remembrancer of their deeds, their devastations in Germany, the sack of Paris, and the ruthless slaughter of all foes, and handed down to posterity the character of their nation and king, as chronicled in the death-song of Regner Lodbrag.* As rovers and pirates the northern nations were unequalled, yet, like their more refined neighbors, they levied a tax upon all who visited the seas over which they claimed dominion, and exacted from that nation over whose sea they claimed rule, a tribute, to save them from instant destruction and annihilation. But to follow in detail their history, would elicit no new fact as regards the form of their claim, so we close by remarking that from claiming dominion over all the seas adjacent to Scandinavia and Britain, they have dwindled down to a single sound, and modern enterprise bids fair to render that claim worthless.†

Such are a few of the many nations that have asserted this claim to property in the seas, and as we turn away from them and their assumption, we come, not to a nation actuated (as we might wish) by liberal views, enlightened ideas, and noble political principle, but to one which, in asserting the dominion of the seas, combined in her claim, the vanity of an Athenian, the pride of a Roman, the insolence of a Spaniard, and the rapaciousness of a Portuguese. For this reason we propose to examine in detail the claim of England to the dominion of the seas, as shown by her acts and the writings of her learned and distinguished men. Though Edgar, and some other kings that succeeded him, properly belong to the Danish marauders, yet, as he was seated on the throne of England, we will commence our history with him, briefly remarking, that in 937 he fitted out a fleet of four hundred sail, for the express purpose of asserting his claim to the dominion of the British seas. Arriving at Chester, eight kings met him, and with their own hands rowed his boat down that river to the sea, and his courtiers argued that this act was an acknowledgement of his sovereignty over the Ocean.‡

Canute, his successor, reasserted his claims, and under circumstances so peculiar, that we cannot help recurring to them:—"Walking by the seashore with his courtiers, they told him the seas were his, whereupon he ordered his chair to be brought, and sitting in it said to the sea, 'As the land is my land, so is the sea my sea;' and from that day he became the assertor of the right."§ Upon the accession of King Arthur, he caused all nations to strike their topsails to his men-of-war, as a sign of his sovereignty over the seas;|| and old King John declared, that he who would not make whole fleets strike their topsails to a single men-of-war, should be deemed an enemy, though he were before a friend.¶ Of these early mon-

* Blackwood.

† A company is now being formed and ere this is organized, for the purpose of constructing a railroad that will obviate the necessity of vessels passing the Sound.—*London Times*.

‡ Collection of English History. By Danyis.

§ Camden's Britania, where a fac-simile of one of his coins is given, and explanations on the same, by Walchen.

|| Jacob's Law Dictionary.

¶ Sir Lionel Jenkins's note to the mediator at Cologne.

archs, we think no one asserted more ostentatiously his claim than Edward. In the language of an early chronicler, "The grand navie of King Edward, 4,000 vessels and 100,000 men, sailed yearly round the Isle of Albion and the lesser isles, and he could not choose, I say, but by such full and peaceable possession, find himself (according to right and his heart's desire) the true and sovereign monarch of all the British ocean."* Another chronicle found in Trinity Church, thus speaks his praise:—

"But King Edward made a seige royal,
And wanne (won) the town; and in especial
The sea was kept, and thereof he was lord."

Of the succeeding monarchs, we deem but few worthy of notice, except to remark of Richard II. that he levied a tax of sixpence on all vessels fishing in the British seas, and his example was imitated by Edward IV., Richard III., and Henry VII. Thus far the assertion of this right had been made by men of iron nerve and unflinching purpose; but a new era was opening, and a delicate woman gave this claim a form it never before possessed, and a life and energy never before infused into it. The period in which she came to the throne was pregnant with the fate of empires, and all Europe was rousing from the lethargic slumber of centuries, and seeking, by discoveries, war, conquest, and Papal grants, new additions to their somewhat limited domains. Commerce also began to unfold its latent powers, and manufactures to give new life and vivacity to the dormant energies of nations. Spain, with its possessions in America; Portugal, with its riches of the Indies; Holland, with its then infant mercantile marine, and the Hanseatic towns with their decaying trade, were all struggling for ascendancy and prominence; and the two first powers were hurling defiance at the Virgin Queen, and bidding her keep the limits of her own narrow seas. To recount the deeds of Drake, Cumberland, and Cavendish, would require volumes; suffice it to say, they conquered in every sea, and their mistress, in her turn, claimed the very dominion she once had denied. Upon her coins was the image of a port cullis, signifying her power to shut up the sea; nor was it an idle assumption, for in her wars with Spain, she refused to the king of Denmark and the Hanseatic towns, the liberty of carrying corn to Lisbon, and when they, in defiance of her, attempted it, she destroyed their ships upon the very shores of Spain, giving as her reason for the destruction of them, "that they had presumptuously made use of her sea without obtaining her royal permission for so doing."† All England was wild with delirium at her success, and gloried in the extent of her claims, while the pious ministers of Christ, when eulogizing her character, boastingly said:—"She extended her dominion over our own seas, over the ocean, and the Mediterranean."‡ Nor did the claim into which she infused such vigorous life, expire with her, but James, upon his accession, issued his edict forbidding any foreign vessels fishing in the British seas without a license. Yet, if history may be trusted, the edict was merely formal, and for thirty years the Dutch pursued unmolested, their fisheries in the British Channel.§ But a new phase was to be put upon the aspect of these con-

* Hakluyt's Voyages, Travels, Discoveries, etc. vol. i., 10, 217.

† De Jure Maritima et Navalis. Rapin says she destroyed them for having contraband goods, but does not deny the assumption of sovereignty as claimed by her. Vol. ix., book 17.

‡ Gilbert's (bishop of Sarum) Essay on Queen Elizabeth.

§ The value of Holland's fisheries at this time, as estimated by Sir Walter Raleigh, was £1,750,000, employing 3,000 ships, and 50,000 men; and these gave employment to 9,000 other ships, and 150,000 persons, by sea and land.—Anderson's Commerce.

stant, and, as was asserted, unwarrantable encroachments on England's rights, and though Rapin asserts, that it was because Charles wished for a pretence for continuing ship money, that the privilege, after thirty years' forbearance was called in question, still we must candidly admit that we believe it was provoked by the *Mare Liberum* of Grotius. This famous work of Grotius was answered by the learned Selden in his *Mare Claussum*, and so extraordinary were the claims that were put forward and attempted to be proved by this book, that we feel we shall be pardoned for briefly referring to it, and show upon what ground that acknowledged expounder of England's assumptions bases his arguments and supports his pretensions. Let us remark in the commencement, that Grotius, in his *Mare Liberum*, asserted that the fisheries, by the law of nature and nations,* were free, and that upon these grounds only did the Dutch claim the right of fishing. The laws of nations he defined to be those to which most civilized nations had given their assent, or, to use his own language:—"As the laws of each state respect the benefit of that state, there might be, and in fact are, some laws agreed on by common consent, which respect the advantage not of any body in particular, but all in general. And this is what is called the Law of Nations when used in distinction from the Law of Nature."† After giving some of Grotius' authorities, that the sea could not be made property, and defining the law of nations in almost the same words as his distinguished rival, Selden commences his labors by citing those nations that had asserted the claim, taking the fabulous, legendary, and historical accounts of the various nations and states who had arrogated to themselves property in the sea. He begins with the mythological account of Jupiter, giving Pluto the infernal world and Neptune the sea, then takes the legendary tale of Minos, Crete's first king, then the various historic nations, as Egypt, Syria, and nineteen of her States, the Oriental nations, Greece and all of its little powers, and then Rome, the conqueror of them all, together with the claims of the pontiffs,‡ the various States of Italy, Germany, and the Northern nations, and among all others the Jews, whom Josephus asserts§ were not in his time nor never were a commercial and maritime people.¶ He devotes his second book mostly to the claim of England, dating it back even before the birth of Christ, and tracing it downward to his own time. The reader can see by this brief summary, that his research was almost boundless; but to judge of his labors we should read the poets, philosophers, statesmen, lawyers, and historians, of every tongue and clime, whom he liberally quoted, to sustain his assertions and substantiate his facts. Truly if the Law of Nations had rested on the ground upon which Grotius placed it,¶ all must have confessed the truthfulness of Selden's remark, (in his *Titles of Honor*),** when speaking of Edgar's title, who styled himself, "By the clemency of the Thunderer God, Imperator and Lord of the British Isle and the seas circumjacent,") that in his "*Mare Claussum*, wrote about 1630,†† for

* The king in council, March 26, 1635, ordered Selden's *Mare Claussum* to kept in the council-chest, Court of Exchequer, and Court of Admiralty, as strong and faithful evidence of the Dominion of the Seas.—*History of England*.

† *De Jure Belli ac Pacis*.

‡ He refers to the true bull of which we have already spoken.

§ Josephus's Letter to Appius.

¶ To prove the correctness of his assertion, Selden quotes the writings of the Rabbi Jehudra, and Aben Ezra, both of whom maintained that the sea before the land of Palestine was the property of the Jews, lib. i., cap. 6.

¶ Grotius reasserted these principles in the Preliminaries to his *De Jure Belli ac Pacis*.

** *Janui Seldini Jurisconsulti Opera Omnia*. Tam edita quam inedita. London, 1776. Vol. iii.

†† It was not printed till 1635, and then only in Latin.

the assertion of the *marine dominion* or empire of the Crown of England, where also that great question touching the sea being capable of dominion, is largely disputed, and the affirmative clearly and fully concluded, especially out of the law or custom of almost all nations known on the earth." But the moment Selden quitted the field of historic research, and attempted to combat the proposition of Grotius and Vasquez, that the sea was free to all, and destined to be so; that it was not, like other property, divided and divisible, he at once showed the weakness* of his defense against these self-evident truths, by impugning the veracity of Vasquez, and asserting that the air as well as the sea could be made property and be appropriated by men.

The law of nations, as laid down by Grotius, proved the wreck, (in later days) of Selden's whole argument, for by it might have been proved that might made right, and that even piracy was justified by the customs and usages of nations. But the monarch for whom he wrote cared not for the self-evident truthfulness of a principle, and in 1636 he attacked with his fleet the fishing busses of the Dutch, who ransomed themselves by paying £30,000.† During the few succeeding years this claim seems to have slept; but when Cromwell was firmly seated at the head of the commonwealth, it awakened, strengthened and invigorated by its long repose. The Dutch fleet meeting an English one in the Channel, refused to strike their sail, and from this little affair, and so-deemed affront to England's supremacy of the seas, a war arose, which ended, as all the other wars of the Protector did, in favor of England; and though two centuries have passed since those deeds were performed, that shed a halo of glory round the Commonwealth's name, yet we seem almost to hear Cromwell telling his parliament, that Portugal had ceased her insolence, Holland lowered her flag at his bidding, and that Denmark had given the same liberal privileges to English vessels passing the sound, as she had to the Dutch;‡ and thus all had conceded to England the dominion of the seas. The treaty thus concluded by the Dutch with England left them the liberty of fishing, nor were they disturbed in this pursuit till the time of Charles II. War at this time breaking out, and the Lord Keeper, as the mouth-piece of the king thus spoke:—"The Dutch, no recompense offered, nor so much as leave asked for the liberty of fishing upon our coast; and yet the right of our sole fishing is so clear, that we find in our ancient rolls of Parliament, in the times of Richard II., a tax laid upon all strangers who fish in our seas, and this not by way of custom when they come into our ports, but by way of tribute for fishing in our seas; and this evidence of his majesty's dominion within his own seas, hath been in all ages downward preserved in some measure until the time of the late usurper, who for private reasons first abandoned it. As to the flag this is the thing shall be done: whole fleets shall strike their sails to single ships, and they shall do it out of his majes-

* Azguni, a distinguished juriconsult of Naples, whose writings we have before referred to, says, in speaking of Selden's work, that as it defended the right of property in the sea, it was generally regarded by the juriconsults of Europe as a weak defense of that principle.

† Hume thus notices this attack: "1636. The effect of the ship-money began now to appear. A formidable fleet of sixty sail, the greatest that England had ever known, was equipped under the Earl of Northumberland, who had orders to attack the herring busses of the Dutch, which fished in what was called the British Sea; the Dutch were content to pay £30,000 for a license that year. They openly denied, however, the claim of dominion of the seas beyond the firths, bays, and shores, and it may be questioned whether the laws of nations warrant any further pretension."

‡ Cromwell's Speech in the Painted Chamber, [Sept. 4, 1654.] "took by one who stood very near him, and published to prevent mistakes. London: printed for George Sawbridge at the Bible, Ludgate Hill, 1656."

ty's seas too."* To this speech the House of Commons replied: "These our humble requests (exclusion of the Duke of York and the appointment of Protestant officers in the state and army) being obtained, we shall, on our part, be ready to assist your majesty for the preservation of Tangiers, and for putting your majesty's fleet into such a condition, as it may preserve your majesty's sovereignty of the seas."† In the instructions given to Sir Lionel Jenkins, who was dispatched to Cologne to negotiate a treaty of peace with the Dutch, the king says, "That you will demand £10,000 per annum, as honorary acknowledgement for the great benefit that republic reaps from the fishery on our coast, and £2,000 for the like liberty they enjoy upon the coast of our kingdom of Scotland." To this demand the Dutch returned answer, that they were in possession of the right of fishing, by prescription, of about two hundred years, and had the celebrated treaty of Intercursus Magnus from Henry VII.‡ but that they would pay for the privilege of drying their nets on shore, or buy the right with one round sum, and lastly, that rather than pay a tribute for the liberty of fishing, they would abandon it altogether, because it was a badge of servitude, and they would not submit to it. Suffice it to say, the Dutch carried their point.

We ought here to notice Lord Howell's "Precedence of Kings," in which that learned man contends that the sea of England extends to their neighbor's shore, and that the sea dominion of England is one ground upon which he bases the claim of the precedency of her king. In 1680 was published another work entitled, "De Jure Maritima et Navali," and intended for a defense of property in the sea. Like Selden's great master works, it appeals to precedent, not reason, and in addition to defending this claim, it asserts the right of search and impressment of seamen. Another tract upon this subject deserves our notice, as it was prepared by wish of Charles II., who had the only manuscript copy, but was afterwards printed by command of the crown. It is entitled "Observations concerning the Dominion of the Seas. By Sir Philip Meadows, Knight." Unlike any other writer that had preceded him, he contended that no king of Great Britain ever had dominion over the sea, or that any nation whatever ever admitted their claim. He also asserted that the custom of striking the flag was never stipulated till 1654, and then only because Cromwell wished the monarchical nations to admit that the Protectorate was as worthy of honor as the crown. He proves that the early claim was for the purpose of destroying pirates and preventing their depredation, and that no nation or sovereign ever paid a license for the right of fishing.§ In the course of his tract he maintains that "he who asserts a sea dominion, and by it under-

* Speech of His Majesty, together with the Lord Keeper, to Parliament, Jan. 7th, 1674. Published by His Majesty's Command, by the printers to His Majesty, 1674.

† Address of the House of Commons. Dec. 12, 1680. "I appoint John Wright and Richard Chiswell to print this address. Perused by me, according to the order of the House of Commons; and that no other person presume to print the same.—Williams, Speaker." Dec. 21st., 1680.

‡ A treaty peculiarly favorable to the Flemings, made in 1453.

§ This statement of Meadows at first thought looks like an absurdity, especially when it is so often asserted that such and such nations paid for a license. But we shall at once see the truthfulness of it, when by examining the old histories it will be seen, that this tax was paid by persons in their individual capacity, and not as delegated agents of a nation. Such was the tax paid by Bruges, cited by Sir Lionel Jenkins, and that of the Dutch at one period to the Commander of Scarborough Castle. It was paid by individuals to secure their exemption from molestation, and as in case of the Dutch, was soon forbidden by their respective nations. The same was true of the ships in King John's time, which struck their flag, and so down to Cromwell; but it was not, as he alleges, stipulated by treaty.

Hargrave, in notes on Coke upon Lyttleton, commends highly this tract, and ranks it next to Selden's work.

stands anything less than property, embraces a cloud for Juno." He then explains the difference between power and property, and concludes in the rightfulness of sovereignty but not of dominion over the sea. His review of Selden's arguments, and examination of his facts, are replete with interest and full of information, and doubly refreshing when coming from so disinterested a source, and in opposition to the then public sentiment of England.

That his work produced no abiding effect is too clearly evidenced by the early acts of William III. Not only did he assert the dominion of the seas, in his declaration of war against France, but in 1705 his minister procured the passage of an act prohibiting all aliens* from fishing upon the Banks of Newfoundland, or in any way encroaching on the same. In succeeding years there is but little worthy of notice as regards this claim, save that the writer of the "Enquiry into the Conduct of Great Britain in regard to her Foreign Relations," (1729,) urged upon the classes he addressed the necessity of asserting and maintaining the claim.

In 1769, Malachy Postlethwaite, in his *Universal Dictionary of Commerce*, (translated from M. Savary's work of the same character,) reasserts this claim, and on reading his treatise upon the "Dominion of the Seas," we could not help being struck by the truthfulness of Sir Philip Meadows's observation, that he who would write in defense of the dominion of the seas, after Selden, would attempt an *Illiad* after Homer. In fact the entire article of Postlethwaite is but a plagiarism upon Selden's both in argument and fact.

Since that time there have been some signs of a desire on the part of Great Britain, to renew this claim over whole seas, and this was evidenced in 1783, by soliciting and obtaining from France the treaty of peace concluded with that power, for the purpose of striking out "North Sea" and inserting "British Sea," thus retaining, in the language of the prime minister, the acknowledgement of Britain's ancient claim.† Of the various forms this claim took, from this date to 1815, we will only remark that the accredited organ of the British government boasted, during the last war with us, that, as Rome limited the triremes of Carthage, so would England limit the ships of the American navy.‡ From this arrogant boast she was forced to recede, and now, from claiming dominion over whole oceans, and property in whole seas, she has narrowed down her claims and pretensions to the dominion of a "king's chamber."

Reserving the discussion of this claim till we take up the fisheries, we now pass to a point of considerable interest.

While we have been speaking of the different nations who have asserted this claim, probably the inquiry has presented itself to every mind that loves justice and honor, Can a nation have property in, or dominion over the sea? For us to answer this question, even if we were competent, in our own language, would be but to provoke a smile at our presumption, instead of awakening indignation at the enormity of the claim and the insolence of that nation that now asserts it. We shall therefore answer the question, by citing the opinion of the ablest writers who have ever written upon the law of nature and nations, and of property in or dominion over the seas. As early as the Christian era, the emperor of the mightiest nation that perhaps

* We did not at first suppose that this act was intended to exclude the colonies also, but by reference to Hanzard's Parliamentary History, we learn that such was the intention of the bill.

† Hanzard's Parliamentary History, 1775-6.

‡ Cobbett's Letters.

ever existed, declared: "By the law of nature and nations, the sea and its shore are common to all." Grotius, the great champion of the right of Holland as to free navigation, has thus left his testimony as regards property in the sea. "There is a reason in nature why the sea cannot be possessed or appropriated, because possession is of no force unless it be in a thing that is bounded."* So Vasquiz, a distinguished casuist of Spain, to whose opinion we attach more weight than any other, from the fact that he wrote without any hope of reward and against the claims of his country, thus expresses his opinion: "From hence (the law of nature) it appears how little esteem is to be had of their opinions who suppose that the Genoese and Venetians may, without injury, forbid others to sail through their seas, as if they could have laid claims to those seas by prescription, which is contrary to the primitive law of nature and nations, that cannot be altered." And again: "Though the commonality of land has been abolished, yet it hath been and still is as to the dominion of the seas, which from the beginning of the world to the present day is and ever hath been common to all." Rutherford† is no less explicit: "The ocean, either as to the whole or as to the principal parts of it, does not admit of property, but remains still in common to all mankind, notwithstanding the introduction of property in other things.

"Since, therefore, property in the ocean could not be introduced, either by occupancy or by division, the necessary consequence is that it cannot be introduced at all." The opinion of Puffendorf cannot be rightly understood by throwing it into a single sentence, therefore we shall state more in detail his opinions. He assumes that the same divine grant that gave man the land gave him the sea also, and that the fluidity of the seas was no bar, as alleged by Grotius, to its being property. He then asserts that the moral reason that the sea is sufficient for all and its bounties inexhaustible, is the strongest reason of all that has been urged against its being made property; and still he does not believe the soundness of the reasoning, either as to the uses of navigation or fishing. After thus expressing his opinion that nations may obtain dominion by performing such acts of sovereignty as the nations require, he makes the remark, "That the dominion of the main ocean would not only be unprofitable, but unjust, and that discovery or possession around it, gives no claim." He then says: "From what we have observed, it is clear that to sail the ocean in a peaceful manner hath, is, and ought to be the free privilege of all nations;—*it is*, because no one people have attained such a right over the ocean as will justify them in shutting out all others from the same benefit; and *it ought to be*, because the law of general kindness and humanity require it."‡

Brynkensbach is decided in his declaration as to property in the sea. He says (De Domino Maris), "There is no part of the main ocean, nor of any sea inclosed with land, that belongs to any power farther than he can command it from the shore; because there is no power in actual possession."§

With the opinions of such men as these, so freely and copiously expressed, we might take leave of this part of our inquiry without doing any injustice to the subject, but there is one who has not yet spoken, and who combines in his opinion not only his own judgment, but that of another

* De Jure Bellis a Pacis, lib. ii., cap. 2, p. 3.

† Rutherford's Institutes of Natural Law, book 1., cap. 5.

‡ Puffendorf's Law of Nature and Nations.

§ See M. Berbeyrac's Notes on Puffendorf.

abler than he,* and whose Law of Nations is to-day the accredited authority of almost all states and empires. He expresses himself so clearly, plainly, and decidedly, that we copy entire his impregnable arguments and self-evident truisms: "The open sea is of such a nature as not to admit the holding possession of it, since no settlements can be formed on it, so as to hinder others from passing it." After remarking that nations may forbid others to fish in and navigate it, he observes: "Let us see whether she has a right to do this." "It is manifest that the use of, which consists in navigation and fishing, is innocent and inexhaustible—that is to say, he who navigates or fishes in the open sea, does no injury to any one; and the sea in these two respects is sufficient for all mankind. Now, nature does not give to any one a right of appropriating to himself things that may be innocently used and that are inexhaustible and sufficient for all." "The right of navigation and fishing being, then, a right common to all, the nation that attempts to exclude another from that advantage, does an injury, and furnishes her with sufficient grounds for commencing hostilities. Nay, more, a nation which, without legitimate claims, would arrogate to itself an exclusive right to the sea, and support its pretensions by force, does an injury to all nations, and they are justified in forming a general combination against it, in order to repress such an attempt."†

After such testimony as this against property in the sea, and the assertions of all writers that the sea is common to all, it will naturally be asked, How, in defiance of principles so self-evidently just and incontestably true, came nations to assert this claim? To answer this question rightly, and at the same time to show the real position in which that nation stands that now asserts this claim, it will be necessary to look at the rise and progress of those principles and laws that are now the admitted authority of all civilized nations, and which, "when applied only to individuals, has called forth the enthusiasm of the greatest men and the greatest writers of ancient and modern times, in those sublime descriptions where they have exhausted all the powers of language, and surpassed all the other exertions even of their own genius in the display of the beauty and majesty of this sovereign and immutable law."‡

While the principles of which we propose to speak have called forth such glowing praise from one of the brightest intellects of the age; while the utterance of them has almost stamped the offices of Cicero with the impress of inspiration; while the contemplation of them must strengthen every good citizen in the love of morality and virtue; while their self-evident truthfulness and the constant obedience of them, is the only bulwark of the rights and privileges of any maritime and commercial nation, yet, though such be their importance, we propose to look at them only so far as is necessary to show the grounds upon which different nations have based their claim to the dominion of the sea. To attempt to cite separately the principles of each nation of whom we have spoken, would be but to tire the reader with a constant repetition of the names of nations who were devoid of every principle of honor; whose constant actions set at defiance every principle of right: whose wisest legislators thought that a youth's greatest virtues were his thefts; whose wisest lawgiver thought piracy more honorable than labor,

* See Wheaton's Law of Nations, page 182-5, where he compares the matter in Well's and Vattel's work.

† Vattel's Law of Nations, book i., cap. 23.

‡ Mackintosh's Discourse on the Study of the Law of Nature and Nations.

and gave to it a systematic code;* whose government devoted their mighty energies to the subjugation of their neighbors, whose only crime was that they were the weakest nation; whose constant maxim was, that "might made right, and that no government could exist without injustice;"† who deemed the conquest of a foe a sufficient claim to his life, liberty, and property, and the subjugation of a nation as bestowing on them the right of annihilation;—and, in fine, to tell the constant tale of nations who believed no principles of nature's laws, save those that made the eagle seize the dove and the lion tear the lamb.‡

Such were, indeed, the principles of natural law inculcated and enforced by those nations of whom we have spoken, though we must not forget that among them were a few philosophers, who inculcated principles of right and justice, that at this distant day make us honor the names of Zoroaster, Socrates, Pailo, and Plato.§

As we leave these minor states of antiquity, and come to that empire that absorbed them all, we find more enlightened ideas, correcter principles, and a juster acknowledgment and acquaintance with the laws of nature. Cicero, in his Republic, lib. 3, beautifully expresses his sentiments in regard to it: "Right reason," says he, "is indeed a true law agreeable to nature, and common to all men—constant, eternal, immutable. It prompts men to their duty by its commands, and deters them from evil by its prohibitions. Neither the senate nor the people can dispense with it."|| And then in the Institutes of Justinian, lib. 1st, tit. 2d, it is declared as a fundamental law of the empire, "That law which natural reason enacts for all mankind is called the law of nations. The laws of nature observed by all nations, inasmuch as they are the appointments of Divine Providence, remain fixed and immutable."

Such were the principles of the Roman government when it declared, "that the sea and its shore were common to all;" but as she rose in power and importance, she forgot the early purity of her principles, her people were corrupted with luxury, and in her decline she denied the principles she asserted in her youth, and claimed the dominion of the sea in her expiring age. Of the nations that sprung up from her ruins, none were so virtuous, either as regarded the virtue of their subjects or the principles of their governments; and, as a matter of course, we find those nations asserting principles as vicious as those entertained by their citizens, and their claim to the dominion of the sea may be rested on these grounds, at least till the time of Grotius:—1st. That might made right, as with the northern pirates and rovers. 2d. That it was conceded to them in consideration of keeping certain seas free from pirates, as Vattel remarks was the case with Venice, and as Sir Philip Meadows informs us was the case with England, to whom nations paid a tribute of six pence a ton, in consideration of her

* Wheaton's Introduction to Modern Law of Nations.

† Cicero; *Esprit du Lois*, liv. xxi., chap. 7; Puffendorf, book ii., cap. 12.

‡ We must except the Persians from those nations of antiquity of whom we have spoken; nor are they in reality chargeable with asserting a dominion of the sea for the purpose of making it property: on the contrary, they regarded it as an object of worship, and demanded the acknowledgment of their sovereignty over it upon the ground of their being defenders of the honor of that Deity, whose prophet, Agassan, said—"Reverence the four elements, the second of which is water." See the *Desatir*, or Ancient and Sacred Writings of the Persians, containing the commands of morality and the prophecy of various Persian prophets.

§ For an interesting account of the development and progress of those principles of natural law that now constitute the basis of every good government, see M. Berbeyrac's *Historical and Critical Account of the Progress of the Science of Morality*.

| Burlemaqui's *Principles of Natural Law*.

keeping the British Seas free from piratical rovers. 3d. Papal grants and discovery combined, as in case of Portugal and Spain. And, lastly, and which, as we read the history of those times and the crude nations then prevalent, we believe to be in reality the first cause of this claim, commencing with Rome, the inseparability of jurisdiction and sovereignty from dominion or property, as in case of Rome, who kept four fleets in the seas adjacent to Italy, that by possession she might always claim jurisdiction;* as in case of Venice, who, in the language of Chizzolla, kept the Adriatic, that her subjects on its waters might be restrained by her laws and kept from violence and anarchy; and, lastly, as in case of England, who extended her jurisdiction over the whole British Seas, that her subjects might ever be protected in their rights and be amenable to the crown.†

While such were the foundations of the claims of most, if not all nations, arising from the almost entire absence of any general principles of justice and right, causes were in operation that soon were to show the fallacy of their claims and their undeniable injustice. Wheaton ascribes, as one reason of the attentions that began to be paid in the middle ages to the duties of men and nations, the discussion of the casuist in the Catholic Church; and certain it is, that the principles advanced by Vasquez, whose works are quoted by Grotius, Selden, and Puffendorf, Saurez (the general tenor of whose writings is given in Culverwell's *Light of Nature*, London, 1660), Victoria, and Ayala, opened the way for Grotius, who justly ranks as one of the first who advanced those pure principles of morality that should govern men and regulate the conduct of states and empires.‡ We have already given his written definition of the law of nations; and in defining the law of nature, he seems to have adopted the opinion of Aristotle, "that the consent of all men in every point is to be deemed a law of nature." And again, "the consent of all men is the voice of nature." So in relation to the law of nations, he declared the customs of the most civilized nations to be the law of nations; and it was this basing the law of nations on numbers instead of principles, that gave Selden the advantage over him in their controversy as regarded property in the sea.

But, happily for the commercial world, a new era was approaching in the science of morality and national law, and the law of nations was to be based not on numerical multiplication, but on God's immutable justice as evidenced by the principles of right he had implanted in man, or, in the language of Culverwell, "The law of nature powerfully discerning and abhorring evil, and having the manifestations of beauty and goodness." Puffendorf, who

* M. Barbeyrac's Note on Puffendorf.

† "The realm of England comprehends the narrow seas, and formerly it was the practice to punish both treason and felony committed there in the Court of King's Bench."—Hale, 54, 1 Hand., 152.

‡ And such offences committed there might be tried in the next county adjoining to the coast, by an indictment taken by the jurors for that county before a special commission."—Admiralty (E) Comyn's Digest.

"The king has the property in the sea as well as the land, and all profits in the sea and all navigable rivers. The king's jurisdiction and interest extends over the whole sea between Britain and Ireland and France, and the middle of the sea between Britain and Spain."—Navigation (A) Comyn's Digest.

"The dominion of the whole sea, which surrounds England, belongs to the king. This dominion extends to both shores, and the liegance or dominion of it belongs to the crown of England."—Prerogative (P) Comyn's Digest.

Sir Matthew Hale observes, "That in the open sea the king has a double right, viz., a right of jurisdiction, which he ordinarily exercises by his admiral, and a right of property or ownership."—Thomas Coke's Inst. vol. 1., 46.

"If a man be upon the seas of England, he is within the kingdom or realm of England, and within the liegance of the king or of his crown."—Coke.

‡ M. Barbeyrac.

succeeded Grotius, based the law of nature on the dictates of right reason and the law of nations, on impartial justice. All that followed as writers upon natural law or of the law of nations, among whom were Wolf, Vattel, Montesquieu and Burlamaqui, admitted this principle "that each individual nation is bound to contribute every thing in her power to the perfection and happiness of all the others, (Vattel.) Under such principles as these have been swept away the last vestige, almost, of the claim of dominion of the sea or property in its waters. And yet a shadow of the claim still exists, and which we propose to examine in another place, and we will conclude this paper with a single remark. Though all the nations that have asserted this claim were apparently governed only by a desire to expel pirates, obtain jurisdiction over their subjects, and keep, in the language of Chizzola and Pacius, the sea from anarchy, yet the real motive was the pecuniary enriching of the nation and the destruction of rival maritime states. Thus Venice fought with Genoa that she might secure the profits of helping forward the crusader to the Holy Land; with Portugal, that she might absorb the wealth of the Indies; and Portugal and Spain that they might enrich their kingdoms by the wealth of two new worlds, and destroy the marine of England and Holland, and lastly, as with England, who hoped, by the destruction of the fisheries of Holland, to undermine and destroy its maritime power, and make herself, like Holland, the carrier of the world's produce. She succeeded in her plans, though not by the means she first attempted; and now she re-asserts a claim which, if allowed, will sap the very foundations of our mercantile marine, and place it, not where it now is, taking rapid strides by which it will soon outrun her, but beside those dead, decaying powers, Holland, Portugal, and Spain. That we have not misjudged the nation, nor overrated the value of the right threatened, and its importance to our mercantile marine, we will demonstrate in our next paper upon the history, value, and importance of the fisheries.

Art. II.—OREGON: ITS COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES.

DESCRIPTION OF OREGON—FACE OF THE COUNTRY—ITS NATURAL DIVISION INTO THREE REGIONS—
SOIL—PRODUCTIONS—TRADE AND COMMERCE—HEALTH—NAVIGATION.

OREGON is quite an extensive territory—extending from the divide on the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, some 1,200 miles, and stretching north and south from 42 deg. to 49 deg. north latitude. The whole is naturally divided into three regions: the eastern, middle, and western. These regions are divided or separated from each other by lofty mountains. But these dividing mountains, although they occupy a very large portion of the country, are not the only mountains in the territory. There are the coast mountains, of less altitude, stretching along the whole length of our sea coast: then we find frequent collateral ranges running crosswise from one of these leading ranges to another, which leaves the valleys surrounded by mountains on all sides. These valleys—(by the by, we term the intervening space between two mountains a valley, whether it is rough or smooth)—

are, for the most part, interspersed with hills, some of which are pretty high.

I shall now attempt to describe each of these regions separately, but shall confine myself more particularly to the west region, for the reason that the settlements are, at present, confined to this region, and that it is the only portion a description of which would interest you. I will say of the appearance of the east region, with the exception of a small portion of the western part, that it is the most worthless desert on the face of God's earth—checkered with cross mountains, hills, kanyons, and sand plains, destitute of timber and vegetation of any kind, except the artimacia or wild sage; the very smell and appearance of this detested shrub is enough to disgust you with the worthless country where nothing else will grow. True, in many miles travel, and far distant apart, may be found very limited spots that produce grass, and sometimes a few dwarf willows, and at such places you will generally find water. This artimacia is the only chance for fuel to cook with in passing through this desert land. But in the immediate vicinity of the Blue Mountains, which separate the eastern from the middle region, there is considerable good land clad with a heavy coat of the most nutritious grasses, and the mountains around are covered with good fir and pine timber, and watered by good springs and mountain streams. The climate of the east region is dry and hot in the summer, and dry and cold in the winter. But let me here remark, that the altitude makes more difference in the climate, as it respects heat and cold, in not only this, but all other parts of Oregon, than in any other part of the world I was ever in. I will further remark, that this region, and a great portion of the middle region, looks as if it had been burned with fire and brimstone for a thousand years, then heaved up and torn to pieces by some powerful convulsion in nature, leaving long and narrow chasms so deep, in many places, that the eye with difficulty can reach the bottom. But I wish you to bear in mind the exceptions, for I assure you that many excellent grain and grazing farms could there be made.

We come next in order to speak of the middle or second region. This is the intermediate space between the Blue and Cascade ranges of mountains. It is useless for me to give you distances here, for should you pass through, you would doubtless call it all mountains in this middle region. It is very hilly and rough for the most part, destitute of timber, except on the mountain ranges and on some of the mountain streams for a few miles in the valley. Oak-timber is seen for the first time on your way from the States, on the west side of this region, as you approach near the Cascade Mountains, but it is very short and scrubby; nevertheless, you will be glad to see it—it is a species of the white oak. There is an extensive sand plain in this region along the Columbia River and about at the junction of the Umatilla River with the same. Those plains bear neither grass nor other vegetation. The southern portion of this region is highly volcanic, being composed of high and irregular hills covered with burned rock and scoria, deep chasms, and extensive salaratus plains. I will now give you some of the redeeming qualities of this middle region, which will be found applicable to the inhabitable part of the eastern region likewise. The hills, valleys, and table-lands, are mostly set with the most nutritious grass that I have anywhere seen. It is called bunch-grass, from the fact of its growing in bunches some distance apart. Large portions of this region, as you will be able to discover, are well adapted to raising stock—which is at present the

most profitable business in Oregon—while sufficient grain lands, in limited parcels, everywhere abound to support a numerous population who may choose to lead a pastoral life. This region is generally well watered by rivers, creeks, and springs. The climate of this region differs but little from that of the eastern, though there is no greater uniformity, taking a number of consecutive years, in the season anywhere in Oregon, than you find in the Eastern States. We have our hot and cool summers here, likewise our mild and our cold winters. No settlements have as yet been made in either of these regions; they are held by different tribes of Indians. There is a station for government troops at the Dalles of the Columbia River, in the western part of this region, but few soldiers there at present.

We now come to speak of the western region of Oregon. This region extends from the Cascade range of mountains to the Pacific Ocean, a distance differing from 100 to 150 miles. When I tell you that there is a range of comparatively low mountains extending along the Pacific coast, and frequent cross ranges extending from the Cascade to this coast range, you will be able to form a correct idea how it is blocked off into valleys. These mountains are generally covered with a luxuriant growth of the best fir, cedar, and pine timbers, that are anywhere to be found. The summits of these mountains are not always very easy of access from every part of the valleys, on account of collateral ridges and steep hollows. A map of this country will show you the relative position of the rivers, as also the locality of their different sources, likewise the courses they flow. There is a river running through each valley, with tributary streams from the mountains on each side. With these general remarks, I will now begin to particularize, commencing at the north, (and of that portion lying north of the Columbia River, I am sorry that I cannot give information from actual observation, having explored but little of it myself,) on the Columbia River. There is no portion of country, from its source to its mouth, that can with propriety be termed a valley; and through this west region it mostly runs through a low chain of cross mountains, forming, in many places, very extensive bottom lands and numerous fertile islands. These bottoms and island lands are divided into timber and prairie: these prairies, and in many places the timbered lands, are covered with a heavy coat of tall grass, upon which the stock grow fat during the greater portion of the year. The timber is fir, white oak, ash, soft maple, willow, balm of gilead—termed poplar by some—but there is no poplar in Oregon. Vancouver is situated on the north side of the Columbia River some 90 or 100 miles from its mouth. The tide flows on this river to the Cascade Falls, some 25 or 30 miles higher up. It is navigable for large class vessels to the last named place.

As I cannot dwell long upon any particular locality, you must now leave the immediate vicinity of the Columbia, and, in going north, you have one of those cross ranges to travel before you can reach another valley. And here allow me to remark, that a great portion of the soil on most of the mountains throughout this western region is of good quality. This remark is alike applicable to the Blue Mountains—the timber is the great objection to settling them. We will now return to where we had crossed from the Columbia River, north, over the mountains, and we find ourselves in what is generally termed the Puget's Sound country. The inhabitable portion of this part is said to be quite extensive, though much of the land near the sound is said to be very gravelly and unsuited to farming, but good for grazing purposes, whilst in other parts are found lands possessing an excel-

lent soil. The prairies are said not to be so extensive here as in some other parts, but the timber lands are very rich. This part of the country lies handy to Puget's Sound, one of the best harbors in the world, with no mountains to cross to get to it. Towns are fast springing up along the Sound, and this part is filling up by settlers very fast. The country is well watered and very healthy.

I shall not attempt to give you a description of the country lying south of the Columbia River and west of the Cascade range. First in point of importance is the Willamette Valley. In passing from the Columbia River to this valley, a depression in the mountains on the east side of the Willamette affords an easy access, (though the mountains on the west side are not worthy of the name in this country). This valley is 150 miles in length from north to south, and 40 miles wide from east to west. The Willamette River approaches this valley from the south in three different branches, which unite soon after reaching the valley, thence, running nearly through the center of the valley, empties into the Columbia five miles below Vancouver. This stream receives many tributaries on each side, which rise in the Cascades on the one side, and in the coast mountains on the other. This stream and its tributaries are all skirted with timber, among which will be found fir, oak, ash, soft maple, balm of gilead, and a variety of underbrush, of which the hazle and vine-maple are most common.

The Willamette River is navigable for shipping to Portland, which is the chief commercial town in the territory; thence to Oregon City, 12 miles, it is navigable for steamboats. At this latter place is the celebrated Willamette Falls, and above these the river is navigable for steamboats of light draught as high as Three Forks, about 100 miles. In the northern part of this valley is the most timbered land, but in the south part there is more prairie land. A great portion of this valley consists of beautiful level or slightly undulating prairies interspersed with hills, some of which are bare of timber, whilst others are sparsely timbered with white oak trees, which never grow tall in this country. Both hills and valleys are covered with grass of good quality, which dries up in the summer and again becomes green when the rains commence in the fall. The soil is uniformly good throughout the valley. The largest portion of the people of Oregon are living in this valley, and it is more extensive than any other inhabitable portion lying in a compact form. Towns and villages are fast springing up—the most important of which are Portland, Oregon City, Salem, and Marysville, all situated on the Willamette River, and ranged up the valley in the order in which I have named them. I have no statistical information whereby to enable me to give an estimate of the population of either.

The climate of this valley differs but little from the climate of the balance of the western region. The seasons are divided into wet and dry. The rainy season commences about the first of November and continues till the first of April, during which time we have long and tedious spells of incessant rain, and much of the time is more or less showery. After the time last named, we have but very little rain till fall again. We generally have some snow every winter, and every four or five years we have a cold winter. We likewise have rains in the summer in certain seasons. Rains are seldom attended with thunder and lightning. Streams are much swollen in the winter season—the ground gets full of water and makes bad traveling, and everything wears a gloomy and dreary appearance. From most any spot of open lands in the valley we have from one to three snow-peaks in

full view, whose white summits appear to pierce the very skies. These are ranged along the Cascade Mountains from 50 to 100 miles apart, north and south. The wind prevails from the south in the winter, and from the north in the summer. The nights are cool and pleasant during the summer, though the days may be hot.

The Umpqua Valley comes next. It lies south of the Willamette Valley, and is separated from it by the Callapooiah Mountain. This mountain is not high: it is covered with timber, among which is to be found the Oregon chestnut; the soil is good. The Umpqua, like all other valleys, is entirely surrounded by mountains. This valley consists of a succession of hills and narrow intervening valleys. The whole is covered with a fine coat of excellent grass. The soil is very rich in these small valleys. The Umpqua Valley is about 60 miles long from north to south, and near half that width from east to west. It is watered by two rivers of the same name, which unite in the valley and flow west to the Pacific Ocean. It is watered by many other tributary streams of the Umpqua likewise, and many springs of good water. The timber is fir, pine, white and black oak, &c. The climate is similar to that of the Willamette, perhaps a little warmer in the winter season. This valley is fast settling, mostly by persons who wish to raise stock. But since the discovery of gold in the south part of the territory, the produce of the farms would demand a good price.

The Rogue River Valley lies south from the Umpqua Valley, and is separated from it by the Umpqua Mountain and a succession of mountain ridges and narrow valleys. This mountain is high, precipitous, and rough; it is heaved up into high peaks, with intervening low gaps, through one of which a wagon road has been made, and with a small appropriation from government, judiciously applied, an excellent road might be made. The soil of this mountain is rather poor, and such is the character of all the mountain soil south of it. What is termed the Rogue River Valley lies high up on the river of the same name: it is 30 miles long from north to south, and about 15 miles wide from east to west. It is a beautiful valley to the eye of the beholder, but much of the soil is rather sterile; yet there is some excellent land that produces good crops of native grass, and would produce good crops of grain if cultivated.

This valley is also settling fast: gold mines have lately been discovered in it, and some of the miners are doing very well. It is also near the Shasta mines in California, which will secure a high price for everything raised here. None of the rivers south of the Willamette are navigable, consequently the supplies for the mines are taken from the Willamette Valley. From what I have said of this western region, you will see that there is a succession of valleys separated by mountains, and lying back from the coast reaching from Puget's Sound to the California line. It is necessary that Congress should make an appropriation of money to locate and open a road from Puget's Sound through these valleys to the navigable waters of the Sacramento, or Bay of San Francisco, in California. This is necessary to the government for military purposes, and ere long will be indispensably so as a post route.

In addition to those parts that I have attempted to describe to you, I must say something about the country lying immediately on the coast. At the mouth of the Columbia River, on the south side, is a country of limited extent. This is called the Clatsop Plains, and is already thickly settled. Higher up the river, on the same side, is the ancient town of Astoria, sur-

rounded by hills and high peaks of the coast range; these hills are timbered with fir, hemlock, &c. In this vicinity is found some of the largest and tallest timber in the territory. The country south of this, on the coast, has been but little explored; but sufficient is known to justify me in saying there are many depressions and slopes on the Pacific side of the coast mountains, where good settlements may be formed. The soil is said to be rich on the coast mountains generally. At the harbor near the mouth of the Umpqua is a small settlement, and also at Port Orford, farther south. The vicinity of these settlements is hilly, mountainous, and rough. If you will procure a map of Oregon, and locate places as I have imperfectly described them, you will have a tolerable good knowledge of Oregon.

Many other persons beside yourself have made the inquiry of me, by letter, respecting the society of this country. In answer, I will say that the inhabitants of the country are mostly immigrants from the United States, consequently the society may, with fairness, be presumed to be just such as those who make the inquiry would form, if situated so themselves. I will further remark, that each and every State in the Union, from Maine to Georgia, has its representatives here, and I am happy that I am not the only representative of the good old Hickory State, Tennessee.

The same denominations of Christian worshipers that you have in the States are found here. Schools are as numerous throughout the country as the sparse population will justify, though as yet we have no permanent school fund, but Congress has appropriated the eighteenth part of all public lands here for that purpose.

From what I have said, you can form a correct idea as to where the agricultural lands are situated, as well as the grazing lands. Like all other countries, the soil of Oregon varies not only in color, but in productive qualities. The prairie lands—which, by the by, are used almost entirely for farming purposes—are mostly of a dark-gray color, and the soil is what is generally called a clay soil, from one to two feet bedded, with some exceptions, on a porous clay, which becomes of lighter color the deeper you go, till you reach the sand, which you will do in fifteen or twenty feet in most places. This quality of soil is much darker when wet than when dry. It pulverizes quite easy when plowed in proper order, but if plowed or tramped by stock when it is wet, it will bake very hard when it becomes dry; and this is the case with all soils in this country, except some very limited spots that are very sandy. We also have a pale and a deep dark-red soil. These colors of soil are found on the hills in the Umpqua Valley, and also on the hills in the south part of the Willamette Valley. Near the base of some of the hills, and on the bottoms of some of the streams, the soil is a rich alluvial deposit that produces extremely well.

The productions of the country are wheat, oats, barley, rye, peas, and garden vegetables, such as potatoes, cabbage, onions, beans, parsnips, carrots, tomatoes, turnips, beets, melons, squashes, &c. The apple, pear, and peach tree thrive very well, and produce good fruit. It would be a very hard task for me to give you a satisfactory account of the quantity of wheat, or other grains, produced to the acre; for whilst but little depends on difference in soil, much depends on the time and mode of cultivating. Where land is well broken and completely pulverized by repeated harrowings after the rains are over in the spring, and the seed sown and well covered, so that it may come or vegetate with the first rains in the fall, it will, one year with another, yield from 20 to 30 bushels of wheat per acre, and more than that

of oats; but if sown late in the fall or in the spring, from 10 to 20 bushels per acre will be the most. The garden vegetables that I have named thrive well most anywhere on manured land. This climate does not suit the growth of corn; it is not raised as a crop, but to use while soft. Our lands will doubtless become deteriorated by continued crops of small grain: we shall then have to resort to clover and manure to fertilize them. Tame grasses are not cultivated, as all the open parts of the country produce a native grass equally as good. This native grass is quite short compared with that of the Western States; but when not fed down, it runs up a seed straw from two to three feet high, which produces a heavy crop of seed. On this grass cattle, horses, sheep, &c., subsist both summer and winter without the care of man. Hogs do tolerably well in this country, considering we have no corn to feed them on: they subsist on vegetables, roots, white oak and hazle nuts, &c.

I will now give you the prices of some of the products of the grain and grazing farms:—

American horses, \$100 to \$200; Indian horses, \$40 to \$100; American cows, \$50 to \$60; oxen, per yoke, \$120 to 150; sheep, per head, \$4 to \$6; chickens, each, \$1; beef, per pound on foot, 8 cents; pork, 10 to 12 cents per pound on foot; stock hogs, 8 cents per pound gross; butter 35 to 40 cents per pound; eggs, 40 to 50 cents per dozen; bacon, 25 cents per pound; wheat, \$1 75 to \$2 per bushel; oats, \$1 per bushel.

These prices are obtained at or in the immediate vicinity of the seller, without the trouble of going far to market. Potatoes and other vegetables are raised in large quantities on the Columbia River and on the plains near its mouth, for the California market; but I am not sufficiently posted up in this market to quote the prices.

The export trade of this country, since the discovery of the gold mines in California, has been confined to that country, and consists in lumber, stock hogs, beef, butter, eggs, chickens, pork, oats, flour, potatoes, onions, &c., besides large droves of beef cattle, cows, and other stock, driven overland to the mines. There is also much flour, bacon, butter, cheese, &c., packed on animals or hauled in wagons to the mines. In the articles of flour and grain, this country cannot compete with Chili, on account of the high price of labor here, and the very low price of labor in that country. As to the imports, every article, such as our clothing, boots, shoes, hats, &c., come mostly from the United States and Europe; our coffee from Rio, Java, and the Sandwich Islands; our sugar and salt from various parts of the world—a good portion of it from the States and Sandwich Islands. Vessels are arriving and departing all the time.

I am not aware that we have had more than one arrival direct from China; but arrivals of vessels from San Francisco, various ports in the United States, Sandwich Islands, Europe, and other places, are of almost daily occurrence. For the prices of store goods, groceries, and everything in that line, I refer you to the Portland wholesale prices current—you will add to these prices about 50 per cent, and you will then have a good idea of the retail prices in the country. The United States mail arrives twice a month. We have post routes and weekly mails to every inhabited part of the country, besides a river route, by steamboat, from Astoria to Portland, thence to Oregon City, thence to Marysville, high up the Willamette River; also a route to Salt Lake, whence the mail goes and returns every two months.

The representative population of this country is about twenty thousand. The Indians in the vicinity of the settlements are not very numerous—they are fast disappearing by death. They are generally harmless and inoffensive, and subsist mostly on salmon, which are found in great abundance in most of the streams that empty into the Pacific. There are a few bear, a good many deer, and any quantity of wolves in this country: the latter are very destructive to stock in many parts of the territory.

By an act of Congress, approved September 27, 1850, donations of lands were made, (subject to certain conditions and restrictions,) to the then settlers on the public lands in this country. By another section of the same law, provision is made for all who emigrate to this country and settle on the public lands, from about the time last mentioned until December 1, 1853. This latter section grants a donation of 320 acres of land to a married man, and half that quantity to each single man who comes to the country within the time specified. Four consecutive years' residence and cultivation is exacted by the government before you can obtain a patent. It is necessary I should say, that each settler is allowed to select for himself any unoccupied lands, except the 16th and 36th sections in each township, which are reserved and appropriated for common school purposes.

Congress, by another act, appropriated money to extinguish the Indian title to the lands in the western region of Oregon. Agents have been appointed to make treaties with many of the tribes, but whether these treaties will be confirmed or not, I cannot tell.

The health of the first portion of the western region spoken of is not very good, owing to the overflowing of much of the bottom lands by the Columbia. It is somewhat subject to fever and ague, and other bilious diseases. This remark is alike applicable to the bottom lands on the Willamette River. In fact, bilious, typhus, and lung diseases, influenza, rheumatism, &c., are not of uncommon occurrence throughout the entire country. Yet, upon the whole, I believe this country to be as healthy as the State of Tennessee.

In speaking of the navigable rivers of Oregon, let me remind you that the Columbia, and the Willamette, that empties into it 90 or 100 miles from its mouth, are the only ones of note of this class. The Columbia is navigable, with the exception of a portage of some four or five miles at the Cascade Falls, from its mouth to the Dalles, a distance of 200 miles.

I have heretofore spoken of the navigation of the Willamette River, with the obstruction of the Falls at Oregon City, where a portage of half a mile is made. But this is not the only obstruction on that river during the summer season; for when the water becomes low, there is a number of bars where the water becomes shallow and forms a barrier against the passage of boats of a profitable size. One of these bars is one mile below the Falls, and some three or four others between the Falls and Marysville. These obstructions will doubtless, at no distant day, be removed. Our present delegate to Congress, when canvassing before the people for an election, advocated, without the solicitation of any person, the propriety of Congress making an appropriation to effect this object; but since he has gone to Washington, he has written back and says he is *politically* opposed to all such measures. But if there is no deception in the signs of the times, the day is near at hand when the enlightened people of Oregon will lay all such political demagogues on the shelf, and will take in hand to manufacture and direct public sentiment themselves.

A portion of the citizens of Portland, together with others—(Portland is situated on the west bank of the Willamette River some 12 miles from its mouth)—acting under a legislative charter, are constructing a plank road from that place to the Tualatin Plains, a distance of some 12 to 15 miles, in a northwesterly direction, and when completed it will be of much benefit, not only to that portion of the country, but to nearly all Oregon.

You ask whether we have limestone or freestone water. This is a question I am unable to answer, as this is neither a limestone nor a freestone country, but volcanic. I would say the water was rather a nondescript—nevertheless, cold, healthy, and well tasted. The most prevalent rocks of this country are the basaltic and trapp rocks, though granite, slate, quartz, and, in a few places, a coarse sand-stone, are found. The agricultural lands are generally clear of rocks or gravel. And as respects the waters of the country, like the branches of the forest tree, you will find in each valley small streams that have their rise in the mountains, on either side, winding their way through the valley till they reach the main stream; besides these, at the foot of the hills and mountains, we frequently find good cold springs; but then in many of the large prairies and plains, water becomes scarce in the summer time; in such situations the settlers dig wells, where they find good water at a depth of from 20 to 40 feet. The harvest of wheat, oats, &c., comes off in the months of July and August. The quality of the wheat is always good; the berry is full and plump, however small the yield may be per acre.

JOHN M. FORREST.

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

NUMBER XXXV.

NEWBURYPORT, MASSACHUSETTS.

NEWBURYPORT is situated on the Merrimac River, the center of the city being about two and a half miles from the river's mouth, and is by railroad 34 miles from Boston, 20 miles from Salem, 15 miles from Haverhill, about 20 miles from Portsmouth, N. H., and 71 miles from Portland. According to the State survey of 1845, its latitude is $42^{\circ} 48' 32''$ N., and its longitude $70^{\circ} 52' 41''$ W. It is in the extreme northeast corner of the State, and of Essex County, which is the densest populated area of the same extent in New England, and of course the densest to be found in the United States, or on the continent of America. The superficial extent of this county is about 400 square miles, and its population in 1850 was 127,170, equal to about 318 inhabitants to the square mile; the density of Massachusetts being 126 to the square mile, of Rhode Island, 108, and of New York, 67. Very few places in Europe indeed, of like extent, are so thickly populated as the County of Essex. But the extent of the population is not more remarkable than the uniformity of its division. The county is covered at almost equal intervals with villages, none of them of overgrown dimensions. There are thirty incorporated towns in the county, the largest of which is Salem,

with only 20,264 inhabitants in 1850. Lynn, with 14,257 inhabitants, is the only other city or town in the county ranking above Newburyport in population, which had in 1850, prior to its incorporation as a city, 9,534 people.

Newburyport bears still the rank, which it has long held, of the third commercial town in the State, although in regard to population it has descended to the *tenth* place.

Newbury, the parent town, was settled in 1633, the first settlers being agriculturists, and was incorporated in 1635. It was named from a town in Berkshire County, England, about 56 miles from London. The aboriginal name of the place, or of some part of the water thereabout probably, (for the Indians generally attached names rather to streams, or falls, or lakes, than to the land about them,) was, as differently spelt, and perhaps never correctly written, Quascacumcon, Quascacanquen, Quafacanquen, Wessacumcou, (as in the General Court records,) and lately, Wessacumcou. To all appearance, the land was taken from the few miserable savages found upon it or claiming it, as the Dutch really took Manhattan Island by virtue of the stronger arm; and if the principles voted by the Milford church meeting were not formally readopted, they were at least practically recognized—those affirmations being: 1. "That the earth is the Lord's, and the fullness thereof;" 2. "That the earth is given to the saints;" 3. "That we are the saints."

But in the disposition of the land thus acquired, the socialists and land reformers of our day could not have beat them in agrarianism. The whole seizure (the town being incorporated with 33,000 acres) was divided into conveniently small lots, of which one was freely given to every new comer, and even Indians were not denied a share with their generous white brethren.

As the plantation increased and prospered, the rudiments of a fishing, and finally of a commercial interest began to appear, and before long had become strong enough to quarrel with the primitive interest. The former were seated on the Merrimac banks, the latter remained where it was first domiciled, on the banks of the Parker. The Merrimac settlement had much the faster growth, and the result of their disagreements was a division in 1764, one hundred and thirty-three years after the original settlement, at which time the whole town contained about 4,000 inhabitants, of which the Merrimac town, called Newburyport, took 2,282, and a more than proportionate share of the common wealth, with nearly all the manufacturing industry and general enterprise, although very restricted in territory, having no more than 647 acres, or one square mile, being the smallest town in area ever incorporated in the State, and probably in the United States.

This imperfect separation, although it left Newburyport more free to pursue her own course, did not answer its object with regard to either town. As Newbury inclosed her daughter on three sides, abutting still on the Merrimac both above and below Newburyport, at which points there were still growing villages of fishermen, ship-builders, and other artisans, the assumed desideratum of uniformity of pursuit in her population had not been attained; while with regard to Newburyport, much inconvenience arose from the fact that the interests of the villages at her sides were mingled almost wholly with hers, and she was thus deprived of the advantages of one municipal administration throughout what was essentially her own extent. As

these suburbs of Newburyport enlarged, the disagreement between them and the rural community was renewed, and eventually, after protracted effort, determinedly resisted, led to another separation, to be hereafter noticed. This correlation of concerns necessarily involves, in a sketch of the history of Newburyport, a rather extended notice of the affairs of the town of Newbury.

From the period of separation until the Revolution, the two towns went forward with considerable vigor. The ship-building interest became very important, and the Merrimac-built ships attained a high reputation throughout the colonies and in the mother country. Within the memory of people now living, ninety vessels have been in progress of construction at one time at Newburyport. About 1770 several rafts of timber, in form of a ship, and completely solid with the exception of a small cavity for the accommodation of the sailors, were constructed in New England to the order of some merchants of London, whither, provided with the means of navigating the ocean, they were sent. One of these, built at Newbury, and bearing the name of the town, is mentioned as arriving out in 26 days from the Merrimac.

In the earlier and later wars, from the Pequot to the Revolution, these towns took their full share, furnishing able and distinguished officers as well as efficient troops. The sentiment prevailing in them in the revolutionary period was thoroughly whig. The merchants of Newburyport joined heartily in the non-importation and other retaliatory measures preceding the outbreak, and after the war commenced, entered vigorously into privateering. In this effort they were at first very successful. On one occasion, an armed ship, with a very valuable cargo, a portion of which was provision and stores for the British army in Boston, was taken off the bar by seventeen men, in an open boat, through a bold stratagem. But the evil of this privateering essay of New England upon British Commerce was its *too great* success. When the greedy flotilla had become so swollen as to block up every pathway of the sea, carrying their audacity even to the extent of cruising in the Irish Channel, blockading British ports, throwing Dublin into consternation, and raising fears all along the coasts, perhaps even greater than those excited by the grand Armada, and the combined French and Spanish fleets riding in the complete mastery of those waters, and effecting really far greater injury than was accomplished by those vast armaments, England thought it full time to arouse herself to the extirpation of an enemy so formidable. In the effort, made with an energy which nothing but a blow so severe at her vital interests could stimulate, America was partially driven back to her original position of the assailed, and the losses which fell upon the privateering towns were very heavy. From one vessel, the brigantine Dalton, 54 citizens of Newburyport were taken, and all thrown into the noted Mill Prison at Plymouth. Among them was Henry Lunt, who was a lieutenant to Paul Jones in the *Bon Homme Richard* at the time of his desperate action on the coast of Scotland. But the elements also joined the efforts of the British fleets to clear the seas of these terrible depredators. Twenty-two vessels, sailing from Newburyport alone, carrying probably as many as 1,000 men, never returned from their expeditions, nor were ever heard of.

Upon the establishment of independence and the resumption of our interrupted trade with Great Britain, *the first vessel that ever displayed the American flag in the River Thames was the Count de Grasse, commanded by Capt. Nicholas Johnson, of Newburyport.* The first American vessel

that was fitted out for the Labrador Fishery sailed also from Newburyport, toward the close of the century, as we are informed by Mr. Sabine.

In 1781 there were in Newburyport 3 rope walks, 39 warehouses, 10 distilleries and sugar-houses, 430 dwellings, and 87,900 superficial feet of wharf. In Newbury there were 16 grist, saw, fulling, and slitting mills, and 437 dwellings. The tonnage of Newburyport was 7,176, Newbury, 192; total, 7,368 tons.

In 1790 there were owned in Newburyport 6 ships, 45 brigantines, 39 schooners, and 28 sloops, in all 11,870 tons, an increase of about 60 per cent in tonnage in nine years. The stock in trade of Newburyport was £74,131, of Newbury, £592; ounces of silver plate in both, 5,467. Newburyport had 616 houses, and 4,837 inhabitants; Newbury, 3,972 inhabitants—total, 8,809.

The growing and prosperous trade of Newburyport suffered severely during the French difficulties. In the midst of the contention between our government and the Directory, and when war appeared unavoidable, (in 1798,) the merchants of this town, emulating the example of the larger cities, built by subscription a 20-gun ship and presented it to the government, then very poorly off in regard to a naval force, the simple cost of building to be repaid at the convenience of the government.

After the French affair had blown over, and along for some years in the opening of the present century, the town was commercially, and of consequence otherwise, more prosperous than at any other period of its history. It had an ample share in the great West Indian trade, that, in consequence of the difficulties of Europe, thrived so remarkably at that period, and under the wholesome influence of which, as its chief business, the town was fast expanding, and had fair promise of opulence and maritime importance. Probably no town of its size in the United States could then boast a brighter prospect. In 1807 its shipping had increased to 30,000 tons, having nearly trebled within a few years.

But continuous prosperity this unfortunate town was never fated to enjoy. Her whole history is a series of oppressive disasters recurring at brief intervals, and destroying the gain of the intervening snatches of good fortune. In the commercial troubles which arose at this time out of the political policies of Europe, and in the aggravation of this evil by the policy of our own government, which, whatever opinion may be held of its wisdom in the main, was eminently afflictive to New England, no town suffered proportionately more. The losses through the seizure of her vessels under Napoleon's decrees, in the Mediterranean and elsewhere, were most ruinous, and when the embargo and its kindred measures prohibited her merchants from efforts to retrieve their fortunes in other trade, before they should become altogether desperate, and laid up the remnant of their vessels to "rot at the wharves," the gloom overspreading their hopes was indeed thick. After this policy was abandoned, another forward effort was made, and in this moment of clear breathing time, the word and the result was, Onward. Ship-building revived, and Commerce began to hew out to itself new channels. In 1810 there were built on the Merrimac 21 ships, 13 brigs, 1 schooner, and 7 vessels of other description, amounting to above 12,000 tons—the largest amount ever built in any one year upon that river.

A long breath had been drawn and a step taken, when there came the visitation of 1811. This conflagration swept away 250 buildings, clearing

a space of fifteen closely covered acres in the very heart of the town. Among the buildings destroyed were the custom-house, post-office, surveyor's office, two insurance offices, four printing offices, (all in the town,) a meeting house, &c. The loss was variously estimated between \$1,000,000 and \$2,000,000—probably it was not below \$1,500,000, the whole valuation of the town being about \$7,000,000. From this dreadful blow the town has never to this day recovered. It crippled her energies, and threw her into a somnolent state, from which she seems never to have more than partially recovered.

On the heels of this catastrophe came the War of 1812—*Water* completing the work of *Fire*—which prostrated the little remaining vitality of Newburyport, and deepened her quietude into a profound slumber. This crowned the series of disasters. The interruption to both her pursuits on the ocean, Commerce, and the fisheries, was complete, and her population began to question seriously in what way they might be enabled to gather a subsistence.

Of course, with the vast majority of the people of New England, the citizens of Newburyport and its vicinity were not particularly friendly to the authors and promoters of the war. Following the example of Boston, they held public meetings, and issued manifestoes denouncing Madison and his whole policy as anti-commercial, and ruinous to every real interest of the country. Under the excited state of their feelings, their words, of course, were not entirely guarded. At that time, the clergy deemed the occasion to be such as to warrant their taking an active part in political discussions. The sermons of Rev. Elijah Parish, who was settled in Newbury, one of the most learned and respected divines in the State, were remarkable for the eloquence, power, and electrical vigor of their diatribes against the government. They were mostly published, and are read to this day. Rev. Mr. Giles, the only clergyman, we believe, in Newburyport of the war party, undertook the defense of the country's rulers in his pulpit, but, it is said, and is probably true, preached his congregation out of doors.

Under such a state of things, the government could not expect from that quarter to which Newburyport belonged, an efficient contribution to its operative forces. The cause which thus so strongly indisposed the people of New England to the war policy, destroyed in a great degree the very means which they were asked to furnish to its support. With universal bankruptcy and ruin staring them in the face, what *could* they respond to the earnest petitions of the government? Yet, under circumstances of disaster which would have convulsed any other republic of the world, and have shivered to fragments any confederacy that ever before existed, New England kept her place, true to the Union and to herself. What *some* of her great men did, or wished to do—if even *they* did or thought to do wrong—is no matter. The body was sound and knew its duty. New England gave her money, and gave more of that which she had in greater plenty—men. New England soldiers were strong in every battle-field of the North during that whole war. And it was almost alone the sailors and fishermen of Massachusetts—of Marblehead, Boston, Gloucester, Newburyport, and Cape Cod—who filled the navy, and accomplished that brilliant series of maritime victories which redeemed the many miscarriages of the land. Among the distinguished officers of that war, Newburyport furnished the name of Brig. Gen. John Boyd, the compeer of Brown and Scott, who had fought also in the Revo-

lution, and who was engaged later in the British service in India, and who, later still, 1830, was appointed by President Jackson to the post of Naval Officer of Boston.

After the war, the Middlesex Canal was built, connecting Boston directly with a region of country in Massachusetts and southern New Hampshire and Vermont, of which Newburyport had before, by a less convenient communication, enjoyed the whole trade. This trade was diverted thereby to Boston. The town could do nothing then to prevent the misfortune; but moderate efforts at a later day would perhaps have reclaimed the lost traffic. It was delayed too late. This was not the only adverse effect of the Middlesex Canal. The timber used by the ship-builders of Newburyport was brought, at this period, from New Hampshire. On its way down the river it had to be taken round the falls by land carriage, which added much to the expense of transportation. As the canal united with the river above the falls, the timber could be carried by the canal to Boston cheaper than it was brought to Newburyport. Consequently, Boston robbed Newburyport of her eminence in that business also; and other ship-building towns springing up about the same time in favorable localities, the name and fame of the Merrimac-built ships seemed likely to be heard of no more.

In 1816 the shipping owned in Newburyport was down to 24,691 tons, and in 1820 it had been further reduced to 20,000 tons.

The fisheries in the British waters, early engaged in, had furnished some relief, as the means of an easy transit to a new channel of a portion of the capital in the freighting business, during the politico-commercial difficulties. In the year 1808, forty five Labrador cod-fishermen sailed from Newburyport. It had been long and profitably pursued by other towns in Massachusetts; and after the war Newburyport turned her attention more toward it, as the most feasible mode of permanently employing her vessels and supporting her population. The fisheries kept the town from falling to ruins, and helped to maintain a small coastwise and West India trade, which would else have died altogether. Though moderating her commercial aspirations, Newburyport has since had and still holds the rank of the *third fishing town* in the United States.

In 1819, Newbury was again disintegrated by a split in its agricultural population. The new town was called Parsonsville, and afterward West Newbury. It took about 9,500 acres from Newbury, of its best land, leaving about 23,000 acres, or about two-thirds of the original area, and 1,279 inhabitants, these being among its most substantial farmers, out of the joint population of about 5,000.

About 1830 some reviving effort began to be made in Newburyport. Since 1810, the population had dwindled from 7,634 to 6,741, and the joint population from 12,810 to 11,960; and the general valuation had depreciated from \$8,000,000 to \$4,000,000. One most serious and permanent disadvantage under which the town had always labored, was the sand-bar at the mouth of the river, which neutralized all the advantage of an excellent harbor, and a channel deep enough for the largest ships. The obstacle had grown worse and worse for years, the water on the bar becoming at length so shoal that it was necessary to send their ships and all larger vessels to unload at Boston, or to lighten them at the bar. The removal of this obstructure had been from the first in earnest contemplation; the favorite scheme, and the only feasible one, being a breakwater, so placed as to

turn a part of the water that forms the wide bay toward the mouth of the river into the channel, thus strengthening the current; but it was not until 1830 that the urgent solicitations of the Newburyport merchants prevailed, and the government commenced the work. The breakwater was built under direction of Col. John Anderson, of the U. S. engineers; it was 1,900 feet in length, and the first appropriation, which did not finish it, was \$35,000. It failed completely of its object, neither removing the bar nor deepening the inner channel. As all repairs were neglected, it gradually decayed, and a year or two since was wholly broken up by a storm.

But the modest exertions of the people of Newburyport made near this time to help themselves, were more fortunate than the effort of the government in their behalf. The cod and mackerel fisheries progressed, and a spirited adventure was made in the whale fishery. At the outset a fair success was achieved, and for a while Newburyport seemed disposed to embark earnestly in this new pursuit. In 1835 she had four ships, valued at \$175,000, in the whaling business, (New Bedford had then 54,737 tons, and Nantucket 26,266 tons in that fishery;) but the prospect getting momentarily dull, the discouraged adventurers sold their ships to Nantucket, and washed their hands clean from oil. That town and others, having then no better prospect than Newburyport in that pursuit, had yet more perseverance, and the result of their exercising it is well known. New Bedford, which had but 3,947 inhabitants in 1820, when Newburyport had 6,852, and which has scarcely entered at all into the other fisheries, depending for what she has become almost solely on the whale fishery, is now a city of 16,443 inhabitants, and has plenty of margin left for growth, with prospect of filling it respectably out.

About this time the ship-building interest revived a little, and had soon regained something of the ancient Merrimac reputation.

In 1834 there were owned in Newburyport, as appears by its shipping list of that year, 28 ships, of 10,130 tons; 4 barks, of 1,198 tons; 26 brigs, of 5,258 tons; 145 schooners, of 8,370 tons; and 4 sloops, of 192 tons; a total of 25,148 tons—an increase of about 5,000 tons since 1820. There were inspected for the year 27,777 barrels of mackerel, the largest number, we believe, ever inspected in the town in any one year; and 20,000 quintals of codfish were brought in and prepared there for the market.

In 1835 there were employed in the cod and mackerel fishery 150 vessels, carrying 1,350 men, and there were 27,767 barrels of mackerel inspected. In the freighting business there were 32 square-rigged vessels, of 10,594 tons; in the whale fishery, 4 ships, as before mentioned. There were 17 dry goods and 30 grocery stores, and 298 stores, shops, and warehouses of all sorts; a comb factory, employing 85 hands, and turning out 90,000 dozens of combs yearly; and a tobacco manufactory, making 10,000,000 cigars and 5 tons of snuff yearly. The valuation (Newburyport alone) was \$3,306,400. There were in Newbury, 3 tanneries, 5 grist-mills, running 11 pairs of stones, 2 mills for corn with cob, 3 saw-mills, 1 cotton factory, with 1,200 spindles, and 1 woolen factory with 150 spindles. The tonnage enrolled and registered as built on the Merrimac, for the two years ending Sept. 1835, was 5,279 tons.

After the retreat from the whaling enterprise another new idea occurred, and the project of building up a Cotton Manufacture was entered upon with some spirit. To the effort in this direction, the projectors were incited by

the remarkable success of Lowell. Not having the water-power advantages of Lowell, a more expensive, but on many accounts a better agent, Steam, was employed in the mills built at Newburyport. Their success was so good that others followed, the building of several of them being under the direction of Gen. Charles T. James, the present enlightened senator from Rhode Island, who also for some years directed the management of one of the mills. There are now five large cotton mills, including one double mill in operation, but their profits are much lower than formerly, and there is no present prospect that the cotton manufacture will be any further enlarged in that place.

About the same time with the commencement of the manufacturing enterprise, the Eastern Railroad was incorporated, and was completed to Newburyport in June, 1840. This road connects Newburyport directly with the metropolis, and with several of the larger towns of the country, on one side, and on the other, extends its communication with Portsmouth and to Portland. It is 58 miles in length, and had cost, to Jan. 1, 1849, \$3,095,000. Its capital is \$2,250,000. The road enters the town by a tunnel excavated through a large hill, on emerging from which the cars are almost immediately rumbling high in air over the upper floor of a two-decked bridge, the river at this point being three-eighths of a mile wide. The ride through Newburyport presents one of the most remarkable features to be met with in the railway traveling of the United States.

In 1840, Newburyport had 832 dwellings, 238 ware-houses and stores, 4 cotton factories with 11,046 spindles and 280 looms, 1 woolen factory, with 800 spindles, and 453,812 superficial feet of wharf, or five times as much area of wharf as in 1781. In Newbury, there were 401 dwellings, 6 rope-walks, 3 grist-mills, 4 tan-houses, and 2 woolen factories, with 240 spindles. In the three towns, there were raised 811 bushels of wheat, 1,240 bushels of rye, 6,073 bushels oats, 15,635 bushels Indian corn, 3,166 bush. barley. In Newbury there were cut from 3,825½ acres of marsh, 2,865½ tons of salt hay.

According to the statistical survey of Massachusetts, made by order of the Legislature, in the year ending April, 1845, there were 75 vessels from Newburyport and Newbury engaged in the fisheries, their tonnage being 4,292, and their fares 27,000 qtls. codfish, valued at \$56,250, and 2,000 barrels mackerel, value \$70,072; total catch, both kind, \$126,322. The salt consumed by these vessels amounted to 43,638 bushels; and the hands employed were 705. The number of vessels built was 12, (all in Newbury,) of 5,130 tons, valued at \$227,000, and employed in the construction 256 shipwrights. The returns of the Secretary of the Treasury, (year ending June, 1845.) state the vessels built in the district of Newburyport at 7 ships, 2 brigs, 6 schooners, total 15 vessels, of 5,463.53 tons, which amounts to above one-fifth of all built in the State for the year, and is far ahead of all other places in the State but Boston, which built over 14,000 tons, a figure not in much excess, however, of the Merrimac build of 1810. Besides these, the State statistics give 32 boats valued at \$3,500, built in Newburyport. Beside the persons enumerated as ship-builders, there were 25 ship-joiners, whose work was valued at \$15,000; 35 ship painters, \$6,000; 6 sailmakers, \$6,000; 20 riggers, \$5,000; 7 mast-makers, \$2,000.

The following is a statement of some other matters, for the three towns, gathered from the State statistics for the year ending April, 1845.

	No.	Value of Yearly product.	Capital.	Hands.
Cotton Mills.....	3	\$562,000	\$700,000	*921
Boots and shoes made.....	.	130,100	435
Comb factory.....	.	70,700	22,575	86
Snuff, cigars, and tobacco manufactured.....	.	29,369	114
Chronometers, watches, gold and silver ware..	3	25,200	12,600	13
Railroad cars, coaches, chaises, etc.....	8	19,340	10,705	35
Tin ware.....	6	18,700	10,000	16
Forges.....	22	15,000	5,100	30
Tanneries.....	6	14,300	8,500	16
Cotton, woolen, and other machinery.....	2	13,000	8,000	25
Chair and cabinet ware manufactures.....	9	10,400	5,000	22
Soap and candle manufactures.....	6	9,795	5,500	17
Hollow ware.....	.	8,375	3,000	8
Bricks made (1,360,000).....	.	6,700	19
Blocks and pumps.....	.	6,000	20
Hats and caps.....	.	4,400	7,684	12
Saddle, harness, and trunk manufactures.....	4	3,200	900	8
Fire-engine manufactures.....	2	3,200	10

PRINCIPAL AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

	Newbury.	West Newbury.	New- buryport.	Total Value.
Hay..... tons.	4,623	2,039	150	\$57,993
Indian corn..... bush.	9,399	8,283	100	10,876
Oats.....	626	3,199	1,408
Rye.....	831	740	1,157
Wheat.....	147	699	846
Barley.....	453	288	470
Potatoes.....	49,172	19,292	2,000	17,526
Other esculents.....	21,697	2,963	1,200	7,869
Fruit.....	41,497	31,843	10,500	20,510
Butter..... lbs.	24,065	24,364	600	7,986
Cheese.....	12,810	22,310	1,978

\$128,619

LIVE STOCK.

	No.			
Horses.....	236	161	223	\$39,142
Neat cattle.....	1,386	1,010	90	46,108
Swine.....	410	288	120	6,408

The great quantity of fruit produced in Newburyport, was raised entirely in very small gardens, almost wholly by amateur cultivation, and is an extraordinary product for so small and compact a place.

The shipping list for Newburyport, for 1845, states the vessels owned there at 24 ships, 9 barks, 17 brigs, 96 schooners, and 1 steamer, total 23,962 tons.

The census for 1846, states the population of Newburyport at 8,117, viz males, 3,557, females 4,560, polls 1,830. The large excess of females is occasioned by the numbers of them employed from abroad as operatives in the mills. This was a gain of 956 from the census of 1840. The valuation, same year, was \$3,866,461, an increase of \$119,061 on the valuation of the year previous, and \$657,604 on that of 1840.

A branch of the Eastern Railroad, from Newburyport to Salisbury, has been built within a few years, and on the other side, the Georgetown Railroad, for some years contemplated, was finished in 1840, connecting with the Eastern Road, and also with the Boston and Maine Railroad. One design of this road was to open a new route to Boston, and another, to regain some por-

* 662 Females.

tion of the country trade wrested from the town many years ago. But the latter object can never be more than partially accomplished. Railroads and facilities have brought Boston too near the region of country in question, and other towns are now so situated that they can claim and get a fair share of that part of this trade which Boston does not monopolize. The receipts of the road, the first year, were \$9,533, and the expenses \$8,371. A steamboat has also been employed for several years on the river, in summer, with rather indifferent success, but we believe was taken off altogether, the late season.

The births, marriages, and deaths, in Newburyport for six years, 1842-7, according to the yearly abstracts of the Secretary of the State, were as follows:—

	Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
1842	296	61	114
1843	167	63	139
1844	189	62	114
1845	227	67	115
1846	220	99	114
1847	253	101	140

This affords an average of 225 births, 75 marriages, and 123 deaths yearly. Assuming an average population for the time of 7,500, the deaths are 1 in 61 yearly, an exceedingly favorable state of the public health, the proportion of deaths being only about *one-third* that of New York, the last year, and about *one-half* that of Boston, which shows how much pure air and proper living have to do with health.

At length, after repeated efforts of the two villages on the sides of Newburyport, one of which was the seat of the ship-building, and the other of a large portion of the fishing interest, to effect their union with her, the project was accomplished in 1851. With this considerable addition of population (numbering now over 12,000 souls,) and wealth, Newburyport received a charter incorporating her a city. The annexation enlarged her area to about 6,000 acres, leaving Newbury with about 17,000 acres, or one-half her original area, and about 1,800 inhabitants—in population, now the smallest of the three towns made out of her territory. Hon. Caleb Cushing was chosen the first mayor of the new city, and on resigning the office to accept a seat on the Supreme Bench of the State, Henry Johnson, Esq., a respectable merchant, was appointed to succeed him, and is its present chief magistrate.

The statistics of various interests, for 1851, are as given below:—

COTTON MANUFACTURE.

	Essex Mills.	Bartlett Mills.	James' Mills.	Globe. Mills.	Ocean. Mills.
When incorporated.....	1834	1838	1842	1845	1845
Length of Mill.....feet.	253	{ 150 196 }	312	320	165
Breadth of Mills.....	40	50	50	50	50
Number of spindles.....	6,720	18,080	17,000	13,300	8,785
Number of looms.....	180	391	348	208
Horse-power of engines.....	100	{ 70 100 }	150	300	120
Number of employees.....	130	450	425	350	175
Consumption of coal.....tons.	600	1,200	1,200	1,600	900
Consumption of cotton.....bls.	750	1,200	1,200	2,000	850
Cotton goods manufactured....yds.	1,700,000	2,000,000	2,000,000	3,500,000	2,185,000
Number of stock shares.....	200	700	2,500	800	400
Par value.....	\$500	\$500	\$100	\$400	\$400
Capital stock.....	\$100,000	\$350,000	\$250,000	\$320,000	\$160,000

The aggregate results of the above statement are as follows:—

No. of square feet covered by mills	67,270	Tons of coal consumed.....	5,500
No. of spindles	63,884	Bales of cotton consumed....	6,000
Horse-power employed.....	840	Yards cotton cloth manufac..	11,385,000
Hands employed.....	1,530	Amount of capital stock	\$1,180,000

The capital invested is \$480,000 more than in 1845, and there are 611 more hands employed.

The number of vessels of each class owned at the latter part of 1851, as we gather from shipping list, was 10 ships, 4 barks, 8 brigs, and 94 schooners; the tonnage, according to the custom-house returns, being 26,707.

The largest of the ships are the Castilian and Clarissa Currier, registered at 999 tons each; 13 of the schooners are over 100 tons, the largest being 128 tons. Of the schooners, nearly all are employed in the fisheries, in the warm season, and all of these last year, but 12 or 15 codfishermen, were mackereling. The whole capital invested in the coast trade is stated at about \$1,000,000, that in the fisheries is about \$200,000.

BANKS.

There are three banks:—

	Mechanics'.	Merchants'.	Ocean.
Incorporated	1812	1831	1833
Number of stock shares.....	2,000	6,000	2,000
Par value.....	\$100	\$35	\$60
Capital stock.....	\$200,000	\$210,000	\$100,000
Total bank capital.....		\$510,000	

The amount of bills in circulation by the three banks, may be stated at about \$275,000, and their total resources at \$975,000. The average semi-annual dividends for several years past, are about 4 per cent.

There is one Savings Institution, in which the number of depositors, in 1851, were 3,481, the amount of deposits \$536,156 50; it held in public funds \$137,125, bank stock \$154,849, railroad stock \$14,300. The uniform dividend for some years past has been equal to 5 per cent annually.

The whole business capital may be stated as follows:—

Cotton manufacture.....	\$1,180,000	Fisheries.....	\$200,000
Coast trade, etc.....	1,000,000	Other manufactures..about	150,000
Banks	510,000		
			<u>\$3,040,000</u>

About \$3,000,000, which is exclusive of the value of stores, ware-houses, wharves, &c. There may be added \$100,000 for manufactures, etc., not included in Newbury and West Newbury.

We present here, business statistics for a series of years, giving the whole progress of the towns at one view:—

POPULATION.

	1764.	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Newburyport.....	2,282	4,837	5,946	7,634	6,852	6,741	7,161	9,534
Newbury	3,972	4,076	5,176	3,671	3,771	3,789	4,457
West Newbury	1,279	1,448	1,560	1,708
	8,809	10,022	12,810	11,802	11,960	12,510	15,699

VALUATION.					
NEWBURYPORT.			NEWBURY.		
Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.
1810 about	\$7,000,000	1821	\$799,316
1830 below	3,000,000	1831	846,173
1835	3,306,400	1836	840,000
1840	3,208,857	1840	904,026
1850	4,437,650	1850	1,515,554
1851 city	5,390,069			
WEST NEWBURY.			THE THREE TOWNS.		
Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.
1821	\$316,017	1830 about	\$4,225,000
1831	385,965	1840	4,589,037
1840	476,154	1850	6,531,875
1850	578,671			

The average wealth per head in the first town was above \$900, in 1810, and in 1840 it was reduced to \$448 10; in 1850 it was \$465 45. Of the joint towns, the average wealth per head was about \$353 in 1830; \$366 80 in 1840, and \$416 07 in 1850. This is quite as fair, probably, as the average of the New England second and third class towns. In Salem, in 1845, the average per head was \$601 60; in Providence, 1845, \$898 06; in Newport, 1850, \$493 61; in Boston it was \$1,297, in 1850; and in New York city \$555.

DIVISION OF AREA.

What may be considered the village portion of the three towns, that is, so much as is occupied by buildings or divided into small lots, will cover about 8,000 to 10,000 acres, the part occupied tolerably close, being embraced within about two square miles. The division of the agricultural surface, according to the assessors' statement in 1840, was—

English and upland mowing landsacres	4,548
Fresh meadow	1,430
Pasturage	11,120
Woodland	1,167
Unimproved land	391
Total	18,656

The tables subjoined, relating to ship-building, tonnage, and its employment, and the arrivals and clearances for a series of years, we have compiled from the annual reports of the Secretary of the Treasury. These statements refer to the *district* of Newburyport.

Years.	VESSELS BUILT.						Total.	Tons. 95ths.
	Ships.	Brigs.	Sch'rs.	Sloops.	Steamboats.			
1833	6	1	3	10	2,693.01	
1834	6	1	8	15	3,017.53	
1836	3	0	11	14	1,764.05	
1837	5	0	9	14	2,753.37	
1839	6	0	8	14	3,242.31	
1840	4	2	5	11	2,788.20	
1841	8	2	4	14	5,785.72	
1842	4	1	1	6	2,162.11	
1843	3	0	1	4	1,400.89	
1845	7	2	6	15	5,463.53	
1846	0	4	8	..	1	13	1,475.68	
1847	12	1	7	..	1	21	7,036.74	
1848	12	1	12	25	8,585.91	
1849	6	0	4	10	3,067.61	
1850	8	0	2	10	4,656.65	
1851	4	0	5	9	3,005.59	

The amount of tonnage built in most of these years, was exceeded in the State only by Boston.

TONNAGE, AND HOW EMPLOYED.

The annexed table shows the total amount of tonnage belonging to Newburyport in each year since 1825—the part thereof registered, or engaged in the foreign trade, the part enrolled and licensed, and the proportion of the enrolled and licensed in the coast trade and in the cod and mackerel fisheries. The year ends with December 31, to 1834, thence with September 30, to 1843, and since then with June 30.

Year.	Registered.		Enrolled and licensed.		Coast Trade.		Cod Fishery.		Mckrl. Fishery.		Whale Fishry.		Total Tonnage.	
	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.
1825...	8,309.02		12,048.54			20,357.56
1826...	9,844.58		12,986.36			22,880.94
1827...	10,778.75		13,622.37			24,401.17
1828...	12,280.62		14,707.49		9,114.88			5,592.56				26,988.16
1829...	11,215.78		7,398.83		35.11			7,363.72				18,614.66
1830...	9,714.44		6,862.98		1,004.60		1,490.26		4,390.12				16,577.47
1831...	10,487.65		7,172.23		793.93		1,839.18		4,539.07				17,659.88
1832...	11,854.00		8,277.90		988.09		3,307.22		3,982.59				20,131.90
1833...	12,166.11		9,368.86		588.04		4,273.78		4,507.04				21,535.02
1834...	14,669.09		8,632.88		2,251.61		1,563.69		4,817.53				23,302.02
1835...	14,510.85		10,693.62			25,204.52
1836...	12,059.30		10,205.24		3,759.15		1,881.22		4,564.72		1,440.20			22,264.54
1837...	11,473.38		10,604.59		4,064.48		1,660.70		4,879.36		685.38			22,078.02
1838...	10,640.66		9,908.52		2,198.62		1,703.83		6,006.02		329.35			20,549.23
1839...	13,172.50		10,048.73		3,084.54		2,719.30		4,244.84		413.65			23,221.28
1840...	14,591.73		9,373.34		4,424.05		2,070.61		2,962.63				23,965.12
1841...	14,286.44		8,931.30		4,435.11		2,721.03		1,775.16				23,217.74
1842...	15,648.19		5,392.84		1,376.63		1,863.43		2,162.63				21,041.08
1843...	14,362.04		5,324.29		2,551.84		2,521.37		251.03				19,686.33
1844...	16,162.65		4,910.55		766.21		3,647.46		496.83				21,073.75
1845...	16,586.32		5,396.69		2,025.36		3,161.89		209.29				21,982.91
1846...	16,451.08		5,865.06		2,071.91		3,687.40		101.65				22,406.14
1847...	18,038.42		7,144.44		2,557.93		3,867.84		718.57				25,182.86
1848...	21,314.45		7,658.55		1,303.85		2,865.83		3,488.77				28,973.05
1849...	17,720.82		7,289.87		2,646.48		2,982.02		1,661.37				25,010.74
1850...	16,213.57		7,048.29		494.27		3,739.11		2,814.86				23,261.86
1851...	18,766.11		7,940.69		495.29		4,667.47		2,777.88				26,706.80

While the aggregates of the tonnage here stated as engaged in the fisheries, are correct, the division to the two branches of that pursuit, is far from truth. To make this evident, we need but refer to a single year, the last.

The tonnage in the cod fishery in 1851, is stated by the Secretary, as informed by the Collector of Newburyport, at 4,667, and that in the mackerel fishery, at 2,778; while the amount actually engaged in the latter, was 4,223 tons, and in the former was much below the figure given. The error in question arises mainly from the manner of taking out the licenses for the vessels, and cannot, under the circumstances, be rectified in the Treasury tables.

The year ends with September 30, in the following table, until 1843, thence with June 30.

ARRIVALS AND CLEARANCES.

Years.	ARRIVED.			Total Tons.	CLEARED.			Total Tons.	
	No. of Am. Vessels.	Tons.	No. of For. Vessels.		No. of Am. Vessels.	Tons.	No. of For. Vessels.		
1827	4,372	4,372	..	3,795	..	3,795	
1828	6,015	6,015	..	4,555	..	4,555	
1829	6,565	6,565	..	4,521	..	4,521	
1830	5,480	5,480	..	4,301	..	4,301	
1831	5,890	5,890	..	5,921	..	5,921	
1832	6,964	..	68	7,032	..	6,618	..	6,688	
1833	6,884	6,884	..	7,181	..	7,181	
1834 .. 32	5,497	5,497	35	6,168	..	6,168	
1835 .. 26	5,087	1	136	5,223	28	4,706	1	136	4,842
1836 .. 23	4,203	4	301	4,504	27	4,177	4	301	4,478
1837 .. 24	4,779	6	468	5,247	22	3,582	5	393	3,975
1838 .. 19	3,347	12	979	4,326	23	4,709	13	1,055	5,764
1839 .. 21	3,767	14	1,017	4,784	25	4,469	14	1,017	5,486
1840 .. 21	4,168	16	1,028	5,196	23	3,780	15	993	4,773
1841 .. 22	4,146	11	722	4,868	32	4,824	12	757	5,581
1842 .. 17	4,057	8	576	4,633	32	5,501	8	504	6,005
1843 .. 17	3,358	10	650	3,938	22	3,766	10	650	4,416
1844 .. 25	5,386	15	843	6,229	23	4,058	15	343	4,901
1845 .. 10	2,096	37	1,834	3,930	15	2,849	37	1,834	4,683
1846 .. 17	4,390	40	1,979	6,369	26	4,430	40	1,951	6,381
1847 .. 7	1,236	8	428	1,664	22	3,423	7	330	3,753
1848 .. 15	2,800	51	2,848	5,648	23	3,546	49	2,783	6,229
1849 .. 12	2,112	91	5,686	7,798	29	4,224	90	5,456	9,680
1850 .. 10	2,110	118	6,495	8,605	20	2,851	120	6,852	9,703
1851 .. 7	1,366	112	7,340	8,706	14	1,749	108	7,175	8,924

MACKEREL INSPECTED.

The reports of the Inspector-General of pickled fish, state the inspection at Newburyport, in—

	Barrels.		Barrels.
1835	27,767	1848	26,295
1845	11,061	1849	16,880
1846	37,628	1850	22,929

The whole quantity of Codfish caught by the Newburyport vessels, and cured there, for the last ten years, is about 200,000 quintals, an average of 20,000 quintals per year, which would amount in number to about 2,000,000 fish, averaging all kinds. These codfish, when dried, are shipped principally to New York, a small part going directly to the West Indies.

The year 1851 was one of signal disaster to the fishing fleet of this place. It was one of those storms on the British waters, which have heretofore, so often and so calamitously fallen upon the fleets of Gloucester and other towns, but which the vessels of Newburyport have more often escaped. This time her loss was the heaviest. There were 67 mackerelmen, of 4,223 tons, and having 707 men on board, "in the bay" from Newburyport, that year—it being the heaviest fleet from any of the 23 fishing towns of Massachusetts, except those of Gloucester and Welfleet. The following is a list of the vessels lost in this gale:—

Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.	Names.	Tons.
Atlantic	60	Good Intent	92	Ocean	45
Blossom	44	H. Ingram	76	Spray	82
Enterprise	46	Index	51	Statesman	99
Forest	65	James	71	Thistle	62
Franklin	38	Lucinda	51	Traveler	45
Fulton	93	Mary	99	Ruby	44
Gentle	73	M. Scotchburn	85	20 vessels of	1,321

Two or three only of these vessels were got off and repaired after having gone ashore and been abandoned. Twenty lives were lost with them, ten of them being in the *Statesman*, all her crew, and eight in the *Traveler*. The greatest number of lives lost from any other place was Portland, eleven men perishing from that place. Portsmouth lost ten, and Dennis, Mass., ten—in all about 150 perished in the storm.

Besides the changes in business already remarked, there have been others worth notice. Tanning and preparing Leather was once a prominent pursuit. In 1781, there were in Newburyport and Newbury, 64 tanneries, a part of them in connection with slaughter-houses. In 1845, they had dwindled to five. Rope-making was once extensively carried on. So late as 1840, there were six rope-walks in Newbury, and one in Newburyport, one of them being worked by steam-power. The business is now entirely abandoned. In 1781, there were ten distil and sugar-houses; only one distillery is now left. Although ship-building has considerably revived of late, it has not near regained its ancient importance. That the vessels built on the Merrimac excel still, in the manner of old, their present fame gives ample assurance. Improvements in building are as likely to actually originate here as elsewhere; and when made abroad, are not deterred by the bar from finding their way up the river. Donald McKay, the celebrated East Boston builder, was located at Bellevilleport (now a part of Newburyport) several years, and did much to restore to the Merrimac banks their former reputation. Some of the very finest ships added to the New York packet lines for some years past, were built at Newburyport. Among the ships recently launched there, we need only mention the *RACER*, whose perfections were of late the theme of so much comment. The *PARTHENIA*, owned in that place, is one of the last that has been set afloat, and is a splendid specimen of naval architecture.

The old town of Newbury has a number of very interesting historical reminiscences. Thus, she claims the merit of the first incorporated Academy in the State (Dummer's)—the first toll-bridge—the first suspension chain-bridge in the State or in the United States, and said to be the second in the world—and the first incorporated woolen factory in the State.

Another evidence of former enterprise, but which, like too many other efforts here, was very illy rewarded, remains yet in the *Newburyport Turnpike*. The project of this road—a company adventure—was started early in the century, in connection with other towns in the county, when the ambition of this town was high and her prospects flattering. It was built on an arrow-line, across the whole county of Essex and part of Middlesex, mounting over hill and descending into valley, leveling the one and filling up the other, so as to leave no irregularities but long and gentle slopes which, though they look formidable ahead, the traveler scarce perceives in overcoming. Turning aside for nothing, it reached Malden bridge, and connected Newburyport with Boston. It was finished in 1806, and cost \$420,000. The expectations of its projectors were high, but were totally disappointed. It never paid, and was at length wholly superseded by more eligible means of travel. Of late years, the company have been endeavoring, with but little success, we believe, to have it taken up by the several towns as a public road.

There are several fine public buildings in Newburyport. The Custom-house is of rough granite, with hammered stone pilasters, entablature, cornice, and portico. It is in the Grecian-Doric order; is entirely fireproof;

cost \$25,000. The brick Court-house cost \$16,000. The new City Hall is a beautiful edifice, costing \$32,000 with the ground. But the Putnam School-house is the finest architectural effort in the city. The latter, with the ground, cost \$25,000. The Suspension Bridge, built in 1827, cost \$70,000.

Newburyport is a delightful place for residence. Retired business-men, gentlemen of leisure, students, &c., could hardly select another place so inviting. Dr. Morse, the geographer, says there is not so beautiful a town in the United States. It sits on a gentle declivity, with the river at its base. The rise is about 100 feet in its length of about three-fourths of a mile; on the summit of the ridge is High-street, an avenue of unrivaled beauty. The town is laid out with exceeding regularity, the streets being all at right angles, wide and airy, trees abundant, and the houses elegant. Among what may be called the *municipal advantages* tempting to settlement here, are—extraordinary quiet, generally; an excellent state of public health: good air and water; a gas supply just introduced; fine landscape; the propinquity of fine summer resorts; 16 churches, (one to every 750 inhabitants), embracing ten different persuasions; eight male, seven female, and three mixed primary schools, five male and five female grammar schools, a male high school, a female high school, the Putnam Free School—an endowed institution with a permanent fund of \$50,000—for teaching the common and higher branches of English, the French language, &c., and (in Newbury) the Dummer Academy, one of the most widely-known institutions, as well as the oldest of the kind, in the State, (incorporated 1756); a Lyceum, furnished with the best popular lecturers every winter; a new and promising public library, just established; Masonic, Odd Fellows, and Sons of Temperance lodges; and about a dozen religious and benevolent societies, open to the membership of those inclined to do good by associative effort. In the same list are, also, a convenient and well-provided market; an efficient fire department, provided with eight fine engines; and a tolerable civil administration, (which people of some *other* cities could appreciate if *they* had it). If one has a relish for the air breathed by greatness, here were born or lived, such men as Rufus King and John Quincy Adams, Tristram Dalton, Senator in the First Congress, Gov. Wm. Plumer, of N. H., Parsons, the unequaled jurist, Judges Bradbury, Jackson, Thatcher, Wild, and Lowell, of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, Jacob Perkins, the inventor, Rev. Jedediah Morse, D. D., the learned geographer, and many others. Here Whitefield died, and his dust still reposes under the old South pulpit. One of the eminent divines of the city of New York, Rev. Gardner Spring, went thither from Newburyport.

That Newburyport will make a much better advance in the next ten years than she has effected within the last ten, cannot be doubted. A better spirit seems to be gradually waking up; some creditable efforts have been made, and, by-and-bye, the new city will take one of those leaps, which have of late years advanced other towns of the old Commonwealth to such respectable elevations, and will look about again with the renewed flush of 1810's hopes and prospects.

ART. IV.—TRAITS OF TRADE—LAUDABLE AND INIQUITOUS.

CHAPTER VII.

FAILURES.

It has been estimated that over nine-tenths of the merchants in this country fail at least once in course of three years devoted to mercantile pursuits. Why this calculation is applied only to this profession, is not apparent, for it is not too strong a statement to make that nine-tenths of the whole industrial population of the United States fail in course of their lives. The merchant stands in the foremost rank in all business operations. If there is shipwreck, fire or fraud, he is the first to suffer and to fall. The custom of the world with such unfortunate ones is to take from them all the little that is left, tread them under foot, close the ranks over them, and rush onward in the pursuit of the all tempting gain. Let the same usage be applied to all classes and ranks of men, and who would escape the direful fate? Let the mercantile rule of payment to the day or the hour, with or without grace, be enforced as a general rule, and in default thereof, an assignee be appointed and administration commenced. Under such circumstances, the petty guddler who stands one side, and exists on the very indulgence of the class of courageous men he derides, may consult the annals of bankruptcy to his heart's content and welcome, if it affords him any satisfaction. The farmer who has lived upon the expectant crop, which the summer's drought has curtailed, here finds no favorable extension to another season, but his farm and utensils must be brought to the hammer. The mechanic who, from ill health or accident, is withdrawn from his trade, would surely find a successor in his place. The physician who should neglect to collect his fees, would lack physic to prosecute his practice. The clergyman with his "forty pounds" delayed, would find an undoubted opportunity to practice some of the virtues, the theory of which he is supposed to understand. In short, the rule would effectually prostrate all excepting the drones of the world, who live on what others have stored up for them.

Notwithstanding the large majority of men who, in the pursuits of wealth, fall victims to false legislation, to the abrupt change of political policy, to fire, flood and famine, to fraud and pestilence, or to any other one of the legion of causes ever lying wait in the merchant's career, it is the habit of the world to look upon his fate as more or less ignominious. This fact seems often to spur on the sensitive merchant to reckless madness. His honor, his integrity, are at stake. He sees his own elevated position filled by another. His friends, his neighbors, look coldly upon him, or pass by without recognition. His wife and children are slighted, his home, with all its treasured associations, is violated. Himself, after a life of incessant toil, known to no other profession, is ground to poverty and may find his retreat in a work-house or a madhouse. The mortal who lacks charity for such an one, most richly deserves the same tragical fate.

There are large classes of speculators who meet with failures in their operations, as frequent as the gambler loses his risk. Indeed, for the purpose of the present essay, this species of character, viz., all who blindly rush into any sort of speculation, without any regard to the legitimate rules of trade, are to be left entirely out of the question. They are no merchants, any more than those who purchase lottery tickets, or such as lay a risk upon the cast of a dye. Both are gamblers, and as such they may be left to their fate.

In regard to true mercantile failures, the ground to be taken here is, that in the very nature of business operations, they are sure to occur to a very large proportion engaged therein, that there is, ultimately, no great evil in them, that there should be no ignominy attached to such a misfortune, and that of all living men in the world, the embarrassed or failed merchant most needs sympathy and kindness.

Merchants, as a class, take the responsibility of transporting and equalizing the necessaries, the luxuries, the property of the world. The profits of this business are nominally larger than for any other kind of industry. If there was no loss, the profits would be too large. Inasmuch as there is great liability, this loss must occasionally come upon the inexperienced or upon the small capitalist. Failures follow as a matter of course. Still, in the aggregate, the business goes on. The industrious, the rich, the valiant have fallen in the strife; yet the grand conquest is pursued. There may be one failure, one hundred, or one thousand, the city, as a whole, goes on in the steady acquisition of wealth. You may take Boston, New York, Philadelphia or New Orleans, and count the failures that have happened in either place during ten, twenty, or fifty years, and moralize upon them as you may, these cities have steadily progressed, and will continue to progress, in the acquisition of wealth, mainly by merchandizing. Many men have failed once or twice, have rallied again, and left not the field until they had conquered success. Many more have failed and thereby become convinced that they were unfitted for the responsibilities they had undertaken. Others there are who, with a craven, cowardly spirit, rush into dissipation, or commit suicide, thus proving their natural inability to battle manfully in such a profession.

"But," it is asked, "can you not give us any directions how to avoid failures, cannot the rocks and rough seas be pointed out?" There has never yet been any accurate mercantile chart promulgated, that could be safely relied on by the inexperienced adventurer. The old routes are being constantly changed, the old customs are renewed, and most fortunes are made in some new manner, unknown to few but those who make them. All that can be said by way of advice, is "Be cautious, conscientious and persevering. If loss and failure come, and you fall, begin and climb again. Most men succeed the second time. If creditors oppress and persecute you, what care you if you have done what you could? You will, probably, have an opportunity to see some of them in the same perilous position themselves.

CHAPTER VIII.

MONEY AND ITS USES.

Let no one here squeamishly object to such a motive as "the love of money" being placed foremost in the forces that extend Commerce to the ends of the earth! There are other motives, undoubtedly, but this is, and ever will be, the leading impulse. Money, money is what men work for, suffer for, die for. It must be approved; it is the ruling passion; it ever has been, and it ever will be as long as human nature is human nature! Well, may not even the darkest deeds of sin be made to praise the Giver of all good! The conquests of the Roman Emperors extended Rome over so many countries, that Rome became a term synonymous with the world. It was upon the wings of this worldly power that the revelations of God were borne to all nations. Christianity thus received an impulse which nothing else but direct personal inspiration could have given it. Rome, after thus accom-

plishing an end to which all other objects in the world are as nothing, became dismembered, and literally no more. Xerxes, weeping for more worlds to conquer, Cæsar on the shores of Gaul, these small men had small purposes of their own, and thought of little save their own aggrandizement. Thus philosophically may be treated unlawful, even dishonest gains. The poor tool, who flatters himself that he has "much goods laid up for many years," and sees naught in prospect but magnificence and ease, by the unquietness of conscience, or other causes, is made to disgorge his misgotten wealth. It may go to endow a church to make men better than he was. It may found a college where the very children of those he has defrauded shall be reared and educated without price, for philanthropists, philosophers, and statesmen.

It has been said that once upon a time a poor man lived upon the banks of a broad and beautiful river. His land was poor, but it afforded good pasture for his sheep, and, as he guarded them, he gazed over the playfully tumbling waters, and was content. A fisherman, strolling along his premises one day, talked to him of richer lands in a neighboring town, where large crops of grain could be raised. But his description reached not the heart of the old shepherd. His father had lived there before him, and he thought that his children should live there after him. Other emissaries appeared to him afterwards under different pretenses, but no effect could be produced upon him. The next winter was very severe, and the poor man's sheep died. In the spring he was overjoyed to find that a stranger offered to sell him a new flock, and give him time to pay for them without any charge of interest. Here was the snare that he could not escape. The poor man's land was attached to pay for the sheep. The sheep must be sold for the shambles to pay for litigation. When it became certain that the land must be sold to pay the debt, it was sold at auction. One of the largest of New England manufacturing cities now stands upon that sheep pasture. The original owner died in the poorhouse. The purchaser is now one of the richest men in the country.

A captain of a small brig was once lying at a port in one of the West India Islands. An insurrection of the slaves broke out, and the wealthy citizens deposited their money and plate on board this American brig. The captain soon after sailed from the port. Some years after he was found in a very large and profitable importing business, and he is now a millionaire. He has even been called an honorable man.

A shrewd lawyer, in the settlement of a bankrupt's estate, cunningly contrived to appropriate a valuable estate to himself by his misrepresentations to the creditors. He succeeded and became immensely rich, while the creditors of that bankrupt believe him to be a dishonest man.

A deacon of an evangelical church became largely indebted to a London banking-house, and, upon some quibble, refused to make payment. He invested his money in lands neighboring to a city, in another man's name, closed his business, and retired, apparently in poverty. He has recently turned up rich.

Facts like these are the most common occurrences in the annals of trade. There is nothing to be said in extenuation of such transactions. It can only be hoped that, when fortunes are thus accumulated, they will speedily fall to pieces for the benefit of the oppressed.

What will great wealth do for a man? Why, it will enable him to dine even on the rarest dainties, and sip champagne; no, not champagne, but

wines and brandies of age and reputation! It will enable your wife to outshine common-place people in her dress, diamonds, and equipage! It will make ignorant, foolish men envy you, and take off their tattered hats to you! It will make your sons spendthrifts, gamblers, and dissolute; your daughters weak, vain and foolish; while both sons and daughters will harbor a constant wish that "the old coon would evacuate!" It will furnish you with a bloated body and with gouty feet at an early age. Finally, it will provide you with a magnificent funeral and a costly tomb!

But, burlesque aside, seriously there are the strongest reasons for the best men to seek money and to labor for it. With money, he and his family can be sheltered, fed and clothed! The man who has ever been certain of these first necessities of life, has never experienced the fearful misfortunes that lie at his very door. Oh, to lie down at nights, after a day's anxiety and struggle for the coarsest fare, not to sleep, but to be enshrouded with the thought of the sufferings that misfortune has borne down upon you and an endeared family; to feel the winter's piercing chills penetrating every crevice of the hovel you call your home; to fear that colds, croups and consumption are lying in wait for some little soul whose presence here is as necessary to you as your own health;—surely not to sleep, but to the torture of the anguish of want! To rise up in the morning without the certainty of honestly providing bread to prevent starvation. But whoever has not experienced actual want, cannot be made to understand what it is unaccompanied by filth, rags, and blasphemy. The general statement, however, can be comprehended. That is, place a man in such a position as to prevent him from suffering the terrific fears of want, and you have his capacities free for intense mental and physical action. And this is the first great good that wealth brings to him; the comforts, yea, the luxuries of a home! not the extravagant, but the convenient, comfortable home, furnished first with the absolute necessities, then the means of education and refinement. The place, not merely for the business man to board and lodge, but where he holds sweet companionship with the confiding, sympathizing wife, who, with a spirit equal to his own, can nerve him on to great and good deeds; where his children climb upon his knees and lovingly lisp their tenderest endearments; where the best books are read and appreciated; where music is heard and pictures are seen; where, above all things else, a domestic altar is founded, upon which the incense of a sincere and humble piety is offered up unceasingly to Heaven.

These things alone are sufficient to force a man to strive after wealth; for without wealth they cannot be had. Are not all entitled to these blessings? Are they not lavishly provided by a beneficent Providence for all men? If so, let them be realized and possessed, for without them there is danger of degradation and moral death.

As a merchant makes money, he is entitled to a wider range of benefits. He can indulge in travel to see the wonders of nature and of art. He can procure books the concentrated wisdom of the ages, he can have companionship, thus, with the greatest and best minds that have ever sojourned on the earth, and time to spend with them.

There too, are the luxuries of doing good. The opportunities, every day occurring, to aid the deserving and striving youth, in the way of benefit to himself and usefulness to the world. To save the widow and orphan sensitively secreted in some cold, dark attic; to project and carry out extensive plans of benevolence for the poor, the down-trodden, and the cast-away of

one's own city and the world; to found institutions of real and lasting benefit to general literature and science; to exert a powerful influence against political wrongs, and eradicate institutions that have grown old in oppression; to extend the holy truths of Christianity to the heathen who are living without God and without hope in the world. These are some of the privileges and blessings of wealth. Without wealth a man is comparatively powerless and insignificant.

Make money, then, acquire wealth, not for the gross love of lucre, but for the power it will give you; for the blessings broadcast you can bestow; for the right to be godlike in action; for your own highest good, and for the good of all within reach of your benevolence.

Art. V.—TRADE OF TREBIZOND IN 1852.

THE Commerce of this great and chief port of the Black Sea, amounted in imports in 1852, to 224,179,300 piasters, or \$8,967,172, and in exports, to 105,052,656 piasters, or \$4,202,107, showing a difference between the two of 119,126,644 piasters, or \$4,645,066. Part of the transit trade to Persia has been balanced, as in last year, by returns in specie, the greater portion of which go to Tifflis, in Georgia, where they are turned into paper, (bills of exchange on Europe).

In the notice of exports, detailed under this head, is comprised 38,683,100 piasters, or \$1,547,324, in specie, sent from Trebizond to Constantinople by steam, to pay for goods for the transit trade with Persia. The bales of Persian productions amounted to some 17,116 in number, among which are 6,300 in silk, all brought from Persia, through Egeroom on horses or mules. On the other hand, there were imported for the transit trade of this country, 48,300 bales of manufactures, sugar, &c. By comparing the figures of the trade of last year with these of the present, a considerable diminution will be perceived in the imports in transit for Persia, which has its origin in the circumstance that a great amount of goods was amassed in Persia in 1851, so that it caused a considerable diminution in the prices of nearly all kinds of manufactures, and thus prevented any farther orders being given for more. However, from the figures of the present year, it will be observed that no unimportant amount of trade has been carried on. The products of Persia, especially silk, have found an active and free sale, and the loads of the present year surpass those of the last, 14,756.

The number of passengers which embark and disembark at Trebizond is very great. The Capital attracts vast numbers of emigrant people from the interior. In 1852, they amounted to 17,200, the greater portion of which took passage in the steamers belonging to the Imperial Arsenal, and to the Ottoman Company. The three companies, viz., Turkish, Austrian, and English, are declared rivals, and in spirit of competition have lowered the fare so much, that it cannot certainly leave any profit to either.

The trade of Persia still continues to pass through Trebizond and Egeroom. The road which, at the request of the British ambassador was commenced, between these places, has long since been abandoned. The speculations of the Governor of the Province, Ismail Pacha, absorbed nearly all the sums devoted to that purpose by the Porte; and it is not improbable also that Russian intrigue aided in putting a stop to an enterprise so useful

to British manufactures and to Turkish Commerce, but so contrary to the views of Russia, which still cherishes the idea of drawing all the transit trade of Persia through Georgia. To effect this, the emperor must obtain a port for his Georgian province—say Battoom—from Turkey, and then, by a little annexation, on the head branches of the Arras, secure a direct and cheaper route for Persian caravans.

IMPORTS.		Plasters.	Plasters.
Ottoman.—51 steamers.....		120,225,151	
“ 120 sailing vessels.....		9,525,440	129,750,592
Austrian.—20 steamers.....		52,803,996	
“ 1 sailing vessel.....		73,984	52,877,980
English.—17 steamers.....		40,057,940	
“ 3 sailing vessels.....		295,644	40,353,584
Danish.—1 sailing vessel.....		859,000	
Russian.—2 sailing vessels.....		161,850	
Greek.—2 sailing vessels.....		104,520	
Ionic.—1 sailing vessel.....		71,784	
French.—1 sailing vessel in ballast.....		000	
		—————	1,197,144
Total.....			224,179,030

Total number of vessels: 219—88 steamers; 130 sailing vessels; 1 sailing vessel in ballast.

PRINCIPAL MERCHANDISES IMPORTED.

Manufactures.....pkgs.	48,859	Sugar.....cases	7,668
Cloth.....bales	382	Coffee.....sacks	1,494
Silk.....cases	58	Pepper.....	175
Coarse cloths.....bales	184	Indigo.....cases	40
Linen do.....pkgs.	22	Cochineal.....	47
Red caps.....cases	35	Tea.....	408
Dry fruits.....	2,966	Pianos.....pieces	5
Medicine.....	72	Furniture.....cases	79
Planks.....pieces	22,000	Glass ware.....	60
Beer.....bbls.	380	Perfumery.....	50
Brandy.....	104	Lucifer matches.....	55
Liquor.....	109	Pottery.....	53
Wine.....	476	Incense.....	58
Rum.....	478	Tobacco.....bales	538
Iron bars.....pieces	4,497	Pipe nuts.....cases	176
Zinc in leaves.....bbls.	13	Ropes.....bales	157
Copper.....	117	Wool.....	230
Steel.....cases	264	Yellow seed.....sacks	97
Tin-plate.....	191	Lemons & oranges.....cases	284
Nails.....bbls.	227	Preserved fruits.....	69
Implements.....cases	309	Olives.....bbls.	161
Worked copper.....	91	Oil.....	87
Glass wares.....	357	Soap.....sacks	566
Leather.....bales	1,100	Sundry provisions.....	164
Colors.....cases	20	Sundry objects.....	1,541
Books.....	55	Charcoal.....tons	14,813
Paper.....cases	327	Salt.....killo.	47,500
Jewelry.....	13	Rice.....sacks	40
Horology.....	15	Wheat.....killo.	199,800
Hardware.....	585	Maize.....	91,800
Porcelains.....	15	Barley.....	7,000
Umbrellas.....	22	Flour.....sacks	70

EXPORTS.		Piasters.	Piasters.
Ottoman.—51 steamers		60,248,520	
“ 48 sailing vessels		9,108,124	
“ 72 ditto in ballast		000	
		-----	69,356,644
English.—17 steamers		19,222,656	
“ 3 sailing vessels in ballast....		000	
		-----	19,222,656
Austrian.—20 steamers		14,423,768	
“ 1 sailing vessel in ballast		000	
		-----	14,423,768
French.—1 sailing vessel		1,211,488	
Russian.—1 ditto		838,100	
“ 1 ditto in ballast		000	
Danish.—1 do.		000	
Ionic.—1 do.		000	
Greek.—2 sailing vessels in ballast		000	
		-----	2,049,588
		-----	-----
Total			105,052,656

Total: 219 steamers and vessels.

PRINCIPAL MERCHANDISES EXPORTED.

Shawls.....pkgs.	196	Pens (reeds).....pkgs.	83
Silk.....	6,389	Turkey shoes.....	39
Gall-nuts.....sacks	2,073	Tressed straw.....	785
Leeches.....pkts.	399	Grease.....	144
Persian tobacco.....bales	5,959	Tar.....bbls.	106
Wax.....pkgs.	800	Rice.....sacks	32
Tiftik.....	177	Yellow seed.....	84
Tow.....	80	Potatoes.....	145
Boxwood.....qntls.	16,000	Nuts.....	3,532
Gum.....cases	494	Kidney-beans.....	8,727
Hemp thread.....pkgs.	1,045	Wheat.....killo.	14,000
Carpet.....bales	20	Smoked meat.....pkgs.	458
Tobacco.....	440	Apples.....cases	1,486
Saffron.....	781	Butter.....bbls.	186
Caviar.....bbls.	294	Worked leather.....pkgs.	204
Honey.....	73	Skins.....	387
Cheese.....	27	Salted skins.....	118
Dry fruits.....sacks	131	Horsehair.....	88
Alum.....cases	61	Pipe wood.....	93
Lead.....salmons	154	Various dyes.....bales	125
Copper.....	4,483	Turkish manufactures.....	447
Iron.....qntls.	1,389	Several merchandises....pkgs.	1,125
Colors.....sacks	88		

Art. VI.—OPORTO:—ITS COMMERCE, ETC.

THE city of Oporto, called the second capital of the kingdom of Portugal, like the greatest part of the maritime places on the southwestern coast of Europe, was built by the Phenicians, near the mouth of the river Douro, on the undulating declivities of three large hills which form a kind of amphitheater, the bases of which are watered by the silvery waves of the same river. On the opposite side lies the town of Villanova, celebrated for its beautiful sites, like the hill of Gaya, and the historical and splendid Serra do Pillar, which, in cases of war, can be considered as the strongest bulwarks of the fortress of Oporto. But, more than to the enchanting beauties of its scenery, Villanova owes its renown and richness to the immense number of large and spacious wine-lodges which occupy nearly the whole area of the lower part of the town, where all the best wines from the Douro are deposited and kept previous to being shipped, or used for internal consumption. Only wines of a second or inferior quality, destined for the home consumption, are admitted to storage within the city of Oporto, while those classified by the wine inspector as first quality wines, are to be stored in the lodges of Villanova, which are numbered, registered, and often inspected by officers of the custom-house and surveyors appointed by the Royal Douro Wine Company, and by the Commercial association.*

The city of Oporto has a population of 80,000 inhabitants, inclusive of the suburbs, and the watering place of St. Joao da Foz, situated about one league distant from the city, at the mouth of the Douro. There the port of Oporto, which for small and middling sized vessels, would become one of the best and safest mooring places on the Atlantic coast of Europe, is encumbered by a bar formed by beds of sand, and several rocks, above the ebb of the sea, among which *O Cabedello* and *A punta da Cruz* are the most conspicuous. These dangerous obstructions, against which, every year, at least half a dozen of vessels meet with inevitable loss, make the passes impracticable during the flood of the Douro, and in many other instances, when there is either too much surf, or too much current on the bar, or when the water is too low. Vessels making the bar of Oporto, are oftentimes obliged to cruise between that place and the rock of Lisbon, for many days, before they receive a pilot from St Joao da Foz, and can attempt to cross the bar. In other instances, especially during the winter season, they are obliged to seek for shelter in the Bay of Vigo, at about five leagues' distance, on the coast of Galicia.

The frequent and distressing losses of valuable cargoes, and often of precious lives, on the bar of Oporto, impressed the Portuguese government with the necessity of *doing something for it*. Unfortunately, they did not do anything for it, but they *made something out of it*. More than fifty years since, a law was passed, by which all the vessels, inclusive of the small crafts and coasters which cross the bar, are charged an extra tonnage duty of 100 reis for each ton, to be appropriated to the improvement of the bar. That duty has been levied and faithfully collected ever since on all national and foreign vessels, by the custom-house of Oporto, which gives an account of

* The first quality wines stored in the wine lodges at Villanova vary from 120,000 to 150,000 pipes; and the yearly exportations to the different parts of Europe, Brazils, and North America, average 36,000 pipes, at least 25,000 of which are shipped to England.

nearly \$10,000 a year, so that we can easily reckon that about \$500,000 were actually received by the Portuguese government for what they call the *works of the bar* (as *obras da barra*;) but, to the great shame of that government, not one cent has yet been spent towards that salutary object, nor does exist any reserved fund in the hands of the public functionaries, appropriated to that specific purpose. Mismanagement, dilapidation, and speculation have always been prominent characteristics of the government of Portugal. Many projects and plans have been presented, at several times, to the government, by foreign companies, and by rich and philanthropic capitalists of Oporto, for the improvement of that bar, by which Commerce in general, and the community of Oporto especially, would have been greatly benefited, without any cost on the part of the government, except the extra tonnage due, which, of course, would have been received by the contractors. But, up to this day, the ministers of Her most faithful Majesty did not deem it fit to give up that small income for the better safety of her subjects, and of their property.

Vessels drawing more than eleven feet of water cannot cross the b Oporto, even in the best weather. After such premises, it is needless for us to say that the navigation of the beautiful river Douro, which, without much expense and trouble could be easily extended across all the province of Traz os Montes, to the very center of Spain, in its present state, it is only practicable by small flatboats, which carry to the Oporto mart the productions of the interior, the wines from the Regoa, and the wheat from Castille, which is stored at Villanova, and re-exported, according to recent treaty stipulations with Spain. The principal exportations from Oporto are made to England, mostly in English bottoms, and consist in wine, fruit, argols, wool, and cork-wood. A few cargoes of the same goods are also sent to Hamburg, and to some other ports on the Baltic. To Brazils, with which Oporto has still a very lucrative intercourse, they export wine, hardware, common crockery, coarse woolens and cotton goods, in return of more valuable cargoes of hides, sugar, coffee, cocoa, raw cotton, and some lumber.*

With the United States they exchange their wines (the average is 3,000 pipes a year, mostly of the second quality) with staves, masts, rice, whalebone, cotton, and naval stores; but the transactions between the two countries are almost insignificant.

The greatest and most costly importations in Oporto come from England, especially in dry goods and other manufactures, and in codfish from Newfoundland.

To give an idea of the extent of the British trade with the kingdom of Portugal, it will be sufficient to say that the value of woolens and other manufactured wares imported into Lisbon and Oporto, from England, from 1800 to 1820, amounted to £53,259,580, although that period includes the time of the French invasion and of the Peninsular war. From 1815 to 1827, the importations from England averaged annually at £1,647,283. At least two hundred English vessels are employed every year in carrying codfish from Newfoundland to Lisbon, Oporto, Figuera, and Vianna; 4,242,441 quintals of that commodity were imported during the period running from 1796 to 1810, and 5,941,615 quintals from 1816 to 1836.

The great preponderance, at early periods, acquired by the British mer-

* All goods imported from Brazils have separate public stores, and a separate branch of the custom-house, called "Alfandega de Massarellos."

chants in the Portuguese markets, cannot be ascribed solely to the superiority of their manufactures upon those of all other countries, but principally to the immense advantages and privileges granted to them from the several treaties stipulated by the British government with the Portuguese crown.

Since the year 1571, Cardinal Henrique, as tutor and regent during the minority of the king, Don Sebastian, stipulated a treaty of *friendship* and *reciprocity*, as such treaties are generally styled, with the Court of St. James, and in 1624, another treaty of peace and Commerce was entered into with Great Britain by the King Don John IV., by which British merchants acquired the right to free and undisturbed trade, not only with Portugal and her islands, but also with Brazils and the ultra-marine possessions of the Portuguese crown.

But the humiliating conditions agreed upon by either ignorant or corrupt ministers on the part of Portugal, in former treaties, can hardly be compared with the degrading stipulations of the treaty of Methuen, of the year 1703, and of that of 1810. The government which did not shrink before the sanction of those conventions, delivered Portugal handcuffed and feet-shackled to the prepotent cupidity of an invading power, which turned to its own profit the ruin of all manufacturing industry of that beautiful and rich country.

Notwithstanding the joint efforts of English egotism and of Portuguese corruption in high quarters, to paralyze all spirit of industrial enterprise in Portugal, Oporto can still boast of being a manufacturing city. Besides some thousand looms which she possesses, and which furnish to the country, to the colonies and to the Brazils, substantial and very desirable wool and cotton goods, a large cotton spinning and twisting establishment was recently founded near St. Tyrso, on Visella river. There are also in Oporto, many silk factories, where the common raw silk of Traz os Montes is twisted into sewing silk, and the tram and organzine, imported from Italy, is converted into beautiful velvet, silks, and gros-de-Naples.

The wine, which is the principal resource of Oporto and of the surrounding districts, is made in a certain part of the country, placed on the right bank of the Douro, from between ten to twenty leagues distant from the city. The principal entrepot is a small town called A Regoa, from which all the wines are sent in small flatboats down to Oporto and Villanova. The Douro wine, in its primitive state, is not fit for shipment. In the wine lodges of Villanova it always undergoes a process of purification with the white of eggs, and of strengthening, through the addition of strong white brandy, and of some old wine. By the repeated turning, shaking and mixing of the liquid, the wine is brought to that perfection which makes the port wine so acceptable and celebrated in all foreign countries.

What is known in America as *pure juice*, is called in Portugal *geropiga*, and is generally used to give strength and an agreeable flavor to wines either naturally too poor, or having lost by age part of their power. It is the first juice of the grape, put to boil until it is reduced to two-thirds of its volume, when one-third of first-rate brandy is added to it, which gives to the stuff a high grade. In many instances sugar also is added, and the juice of the elder-berry which, by its deep color, gives to the stuff an appearance of a strong-bodied wine.

With the view of preventing frauds and adulterations in the wine manufacture, and of preserving the high reputation enjoyed by the port-wine in foreign countries, the trade of that valuable commodity has been so much

entangled by an immense number of legislative enactments and local regulations, that, in the present state of affairs, a more enlightened and broader policy is loudly claimed by the Commercial Association of Oporto, which embraces the most patriotic and instructed men of that large city.

Among the greatest deeds of the immortal Marquis de Pombal, is the establishment of the Royal Douro Wine Company, to counteract the long exercised monopoly of the English company known as the English Oporto factory. The King himself was the first stockholder of the newly formed national company. When this patriotic measure was adopted in 1755, it excited the strongest complaints on the part of the British merchants resident of Oporto, and by their malignant suggestions and instigations a large number of poor, narrow-minded inhabitants of the wine region were so misled as to attempt an insurrection, which the strong arm of the uncompromising minister succeeded in repressing, not without some difficulty and bloodshed.

The first effect of the establishment of the Royal Douro Wine Company was, that the exportations of the port-wine which, during the twenty years previous to that event, never exceeded 18,000 pipes, amounted in 1757 to 35,000, and the price which, on account of the British monopoly, had been kept down to 45 milreis per pipe, suddenly rose to 125 milreis. However, the many and important political changes occurred since that epoch, and the material progress of all human speculations in our days, induce us to hope and wish that the privileges still enjoyed by the Royal Douro Wine Company, may soon be abolished, together with the many burdens and vexatious regulations which embarrass the wine trade and exportations in Oporto. The first quality wine exported to all foreign countries, is taxed with an export duty of 15 milreis per pipe, part of which is paid for the benefit of the said Royal Company.

The total amount of the receipts of the custom-house of Oporto in the fiscal year 1841 to 1842, was 5,393,950 R's.

L. W. T.

Art. VII.—COMMERCIAL BENEFITS OF SLAVERY.*

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine.*

DEAR SIR:—In discussing this subject apparent digressions will be made, owing to the intimate relations existing, and the dependence of Commerce on the stability of governments.

* We published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for April, 1853, an article on "THE MORAL BENEFITS OF SLAVERY," communicated by Dr. PRICE, of Spencerville, Alabama; and in June another communication under the title of "THE MORAL RESULTS OF SLAVERY," from the Rev. T. W. HIGGINSON, of Worcester, Massachusetts, designed by the writer as a reply to the remarks of Dr. Price. In publishing the last-named paper, we remarked, in substance, that both were admitted with equal reluctance, because although, as Dr. Price argues, "Slaves are considered and used as merchantable property," and as such may be an appropriate subject in the pages of a mercantile work, it was not the mercantile aspect of that topic which he discussed. Now the "moral benefits" or the "moral results" of Slavery, apart from their commercial and industrial bearing, are not topics falling within the design of the *Merchants' Magazine*. As, however, Dr. Price has seen fit to discuss what he terms "The Commercial Benefits of Slavery," we are induced, in accordance with the rule which we have frequently laid down, and to which we have uniformly adhered, of allowing a free and fair discussion of mooted points, falling within the range of the work, to admit the present communication;

1. That the results of slave labor furnish the basis for Commerce, and that it cannot be furnished with constancy by any other description of labor.
2. The tendency which Slavery has in giving stability to governments.
3. The contributions of slavery to national wealth.

To maintain the leading clause of the first proposition, we look to the statistics of those governments which exercise the most diffusing and powerful influence on Commerce; it is shown the articles of cotton, sugar, rice, and tobacco, (which are almost exclusively the products of slave labor,) constitute nearly two-thirds of the exports of the United States; on the exports are mainly dependent the imports, from which is derived government revenue; hence those articles not only form the basis of external Commerce, but are the means through which two-thirds of her revenue is raised.

The product of slave labor is of acknowledged supremacy with Great Britain, not only as a commercial and manufacturing basis, but as a means of adding stability to the government, by furnishing employment to men, and money necessary for internal protection. Articles of merchandise giving healthful tone to the trade of these governments, must to a great extent affect the Commerce of all with which they have intercourse; which extends, directly or indirectly, to the known world. To render slaves profitable, strict regard must be had to their health, comfort, and happiness; with these contributions, fidelity and usefulness will be the return under proper management.

The African race being the only one now recognized as slaves, in the full sense of the term, these remarks will pertain to such, although there are others, as virtually slaves, with the (supposed) mild and qualifying epithets of serf, peyeen, apprentice, hirelings, servant, laborer, subject, tenant, debtor, &c., many of them with fewer allowed privileges, under the penalty of dismissal or imprisonment for neglect of duty, with the horrors of want to follow in their train.

and in justice to the writer, and the Magazine, we take the liberty of subjoining the note of Dr. Price; as a preface to his remarks, without further comment:—

SPENCERVILLE, ALABAMA, July 20, 1843.

MR. FREEMAN HUNT:—

DEAR SIR—I feel it a duty to offer an apology for sending you this article, after your note under Mr. Higginson's nominal reply to my April article. I assure you that it is not with the view of inviting discussion that my article on Slavery is sent to your journal; and had resolved in advance not to notice any reply that might be made. Because I have no idea of convincing any one (at least to bring them to the point of admission) whose prejudices are established against slavery; but their noticing my article is an evidence that public attention has been arrested, and that a spirit of investigation is up, inside of their public replies;—effect this and I am satisfied. The main object I have in sending my articles to your journal, is in consequence of the high value I attach to it in the hands of planters. I believe the statistics gathered from it saved for me more than a thousand dollars in the sale of 250 bales of cotton of last year's crop, by enabling me to price it according to the rule of supply and demand. Having no selfishness in my composition, I want to see it in the hands of every planter, feeling confident that they will esteem it, as I do, a faithful financial friend. You may inquire why it is necessary to publish such communications to secure its currency in the South. I answer, because there have appeared in it frequently, articles, the leading views of which were opposed to our institution of Domestic Slavery; and I have often heard the remark made, that it was not a work adapted to the tastes and feelings of slave-holders on that account. I concluded and often expressed the opinion, from the liberal tone of its editor generally, the one-sided appearance of the work was owing entirely to the want of articles being furnished on the opposite. And when my April article appeared, I felt confident in the opinion, and a different judgment respecting your journal became general among my acquaintances. Now sir, if you can, consistently with your views, admit this article into your journal, be assured that any reply to it will pass unnoticed by me, at least through your pages. I think the proper course would be to forbid any article purporting to be a reply; but if any writer should send independent articles, setting forth his views on this subject, they should receive proper consideration. As slaves certainly are merchandise, I venture to send you this, hoping that you will not consider it discourteous; with the request that should its publication not meet your views, you will return the manuscript at my expense; with the assurance that such refusal will not alter my estimate of *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*, or create disappointment.

Yours, with high respect,
WM. S. PRICE.

As to the health of slaves, every one is aware of its importance, hence no remark is necessary. Comfort and happiness are so nearly synonymous, when applied to the slave population, that to add the one the other follows, as a result. These blessings are to be conferred, by administering a well-digested police, by keeping them employed in a climate and atmosphere adapted to their physical nature, to the extent of substituting moral employment and instruction for the vicious—inclinations and actions which are the legitimate fruits of idleness. The business of planting affords such employment and location.

Cotton, sugar, rice, and tobacco, can be produced for commercial purposes, only in a mild climate, and by such labor as can be controlled; to make a crop of either, and prepare it for market, requires the entire year's work, the least relaxation or neglect, in preparing the land, planting, cultivation, or gathering, insures defeat. Can such labor be found outside of Slavery; in other words, can these staples be produced, by any other labor than such as can be sent to the field and compelled to stay there until a fair day's work is done, for a succession of years; which is necessary according to the present method of planting and the demands of Commerce?

The experiment has been tried both in this and other countries, with strong inducements presented to the laborers for their continuance in the business with the necessary energy, but without any thing like success, they preferring a change of employment, although want should be the consequence, rather than submit to the constant labor in the sun, which is essential for the production of these staples; although there is immense territory in the same climate with our own adapted to cotton-raising, yet three-fourths of that which is used in Commerce is made by the well-directed slave labor of the Southern States; and so far as the labor is involved the same may be said of sugar, rice, and tobacco. Curtail the supply of these four staples, to the extent that experience has proven would be the case if any other description of labor was to be relied on for their production, and what would be the condition of Commerce? War, pestilence, and famine, would not have such an effect on the world's prosperity; it is likely they would be confined to localities, but the other would be of world-wide effect, not only by land but by sea likewise; the affliction would not be confined to commercial communities, but every class would feel it; not alone those who are engaged in manufacturing these staples, they being thrown out of employment would crowd other professions, which would be the means of reducing wages below a living, besides the awful doom that would await the present operatives engaged in their production, as vagabonds they would wander on the face of the earth until the masses would be hunted down and destroyed by their more enlightened neighbors, as has been with some, and will be the fate of all the aboriginal tribes of America; thus the calamity would be diffused through every branch of business and every class of society, from the hamlet to the palace, its blighting effect would be felt. That Commerce is dependent on government for protection, no question will arise; a government, to enjoy the confidence of Commerce, and be able to extend protection, must have stability, and that stability is dependent on the subordination of the mass of her population, which is regulated either by their intelligence or their privileges. The masses of almost every country are ignorant as to the requisites necessary to give form and stability to government; and in all that are densely populated experience has proven the necessity of abridging the suffrage privilege, which some do by requiring

a high property qualification, others by title and grade in society; by which means the mass of common laborers have equivalent privileges with absolute slaves in making laws to govern themselves or reform the government. By the concentration of power in the hands of those possessing an identity of interests, causing power and interest mutually to protect each other from encroachments by the masses, has given stability to many European governments of long standing. The evidence we have that it is this policy which has given them stability, is to be found in the case of those governments which, for a time, adopted the popular or republican form; such as France, Greece, Mexico, the States of South America, &c., where their stability amounted to a biennial change; falling into the hands of such as were able to secure the favor of the masses, independent of merit or the form of government to be administered when in power. Thus demonstrating that the republican form of government cannot be enjoyed by a people until educated in view of it, which can be done only by a system of general political education, conducted by liberty of speech and of the press; and the fact is not yet proven that they can be fully and safely tolerated among any other people than such as have been taught their use during the formation of national character. Yet their toleration is absolutely necessary to the formation and perpetuation of a republican form of government; hence it is the slave States of this Union that may be looked to for its stability; if not the dominant, the conservative power should remain in their hands.

The slave population precludes immigration to the extent of a dangerous adulteration, by supplying labor, which will preserve in its original purity a white population, which has inherited the free and safe use of speech and of the press, as a sure means of perpetuating this government, which was conceived and brought forth in view of the institution of domestic slavery. This species of property has the tendency to produce among those who are living in its midst, and are interested in its management, an identity of interest and feeling, a fondness for the same constitution and laws, that has been found to work well for Africa's once valueless and benighted sons, for their perpetual guardians the moral and commercial world. Although political aspirants, and other restless spirits, may arouse and array party feeling for a time, yet when the vital interests of the country are at stake, its constitution and laws, there is but one sentiment, although they may differ as to action; so long as a people entertaining sentiments in common on questions of government arising from its adaptation to their interests, and have power, there can be no danger of its stability, or of its commercial prosperity from within.

That the productions of slave labor add largely to the wealth and power of the United States is founded on the fact, that nearly three-fourths of her surplus production is the result of this description of labor; and it is only such surplus being thrown into commercial channels that can bring the wealth of other countries to this, (except by a free gift,) which only could be considered a true addition or contribution to national wealth; all other means (strictly speaking) being the development of internal resources. Commercial preparations and wealth are necessary concomitants when a nation has to exercise offensive or defensive power; it is the surplus production that gives rise to such preparations, hence much of the wealth which is added from without, and of the power which enables her to command respect abroad, is referable to her slave institution either directly or indi-

rectly. Much of this reasoning is applicable to other nations dealing largely in the products of slave labor, although they may disclaim the existence of positive or perpetual slavery within the pale of their governments. The true interest of every country is to encourage the useful arts, in view of the development of all of her natural resources, the idle waters, wild soil, things on the surface, hidden treasures beneath, and the air which sweeps above are her's for culture and improvement, by which the national character is magnified, and physical support increased for a much larger population. To effect this in every country, and keep pace with science, the labor of the world's population, properly directed, would be inadequate; yet much of this population is permitted to exist in as wild and dormant a state as the undeveloped resources are. There is no doubt but every man in a state of civilization feels it his duty to be actively engaged, independent of the mere supply of his own necessities, in converting the dormant resources of the world into a tangible and realizable form for the world's progress, and it is only such that can take a retrospect and make claim to a well-spent life. Now, if it is the rational desire and ambition of civilized man to bring the things of earth to this state of usefulness, how much more so is it his duty to bring persons bearing his own physical (and probably mental) image, purporting to have descended from the same common stock, who are by millions roaming on the earth's beautiful surface, as wild as the beasts of the forests, without any more moral culture or usefulness, ignorant of any proper appreciation of nature's gifts, and a terror to civilized man in attempting to introduce cultivation or improvement. All experience has proven, and all historical authority is corroborative, that the speediest and only method which has succeeded to any extent in bringing the heathen (proper) into a state of usefulness, is by placing them in contact with, and under the educated hand of civilization, until their wild nature and slothful habits shall be worn out, and a capacity for self government manifested, although it should require thousands of years to effect it.

This work of usefulness is to be commenced by the civilized countries permitting, by law, their own and the population of each other to obtain, by purchase or capture, of the world's heathen, as many as they can profitably employ, to be perpetual slaves, with proper enactments for their treatment. There is very little doubt but the first governmental opposition to this once noble and praiseworthy license for doing good to the heathen, originated in the short-sighted apprehension that there would not be room in the civilized portions of the world for the well-doing of their own surplus population; but let them fear not, science will develop employment as fast as population can grow in all time to come; and selfish considerations should not be tolerated with such an amount of good in prospect. The ostensible objections raised against slavery are its attendant cruelties and immoralities; but they are blessings when compared with such as are practiced in their native condition; some of which are the scarifying of infant's cheeks, that pain may result when they attempt to express their wants by crying, selling each other for a trifle in return, regardless of their future lot, torturing themselves and one another under the dominion of superstition, by burying alive, the funeral pile, Juggernaut's car, &c., but that which is the worst of all is cannibalism. Think of the number of fat babies and sprightly youths of their own people, besides the unfortunate strangers that are eaten; with these historical truths before us it would be blind prejudice to compare the horrors of heathendom with the necessary penalties of

slavery, which are never carried further than to secure subordination to the reasonable government of civilization, which brings with it benefits, individual and general, which are unknown in heathendom. If enlightened governments were to take this view of the heathen's condition and act, leaving the semi-civilized nations as the field for Christian effort and benevolence, what would be the effect? The enterprise and progress of the age would call into requisition many-fold the number that are at present engaged in the efficient school of civilization, and the odium which is attached to the epithet slavery would be lost in view of the mutual benefits accruing to the heathen and his enlightened instructors through this humane institution. If the labor of the present number of heathen that are employed in the moral arts has produced so good an effect on the world's commerce as has been shown, we would expect any multiplied number to produce a proportionate effect, the ocean highways between commercial nations would be so crowded with merchantmen that their canvas would never be out of each other's sight, bearing the valuable products of slave labor. Bearing on this subject is appended a transcript of the protest resolutions of Wellington, St. Vincent, Peshurst, and Winford, presented to the British Parliament on the 20th August, 1833, against the third reading of the slavery abolition bill.

DISSENTIENT.

"1. Because it is attempted by this bill to emancipate a nation of slaves, not prepared by a previous course of training, education, or of religious instruction, habits of industry, or of social intercourse, for the position in which they will be placed in society.

"2. Because the value, as possessions of the crown of Great Britain, of the colonies in which these negroes are located, as well as the value of these estates to the proprietors and colonists, depends upon the labor of the negroes to obtain the valuable produce of the soil, sugar, whether as slaves, as apprentices, or as free laborers for hire.

"3. Because the experience of all times, and of all nations, particularly that of modern times, and in our own colonies, and in St. Domingo, has proved that men uncivilized, and at liberty to labor or not as they please, will not work for hire at regular agricultural labor in the low grounds within the tropics; and the example of the United States, a country but thinly peopled in proportion to its extent and fertility, and always in want of hands, has shown that even in more temperate climates the labor of emancipated negroes could not be relied upon for the cultivation of the soil; and that the welfare of society, as well as that of the emancipated negroes themselves, required that they should be removed elsewhere.

"4. Because the number of negroes on the several islands and settlements on the continent of America in which they are located, is so small in proportion to the extent of the country which they occupy, and the fertility of the soil is so great, and the climate (however insalubrious and little inviting to exertion and labor) is so favorable to vegetation and the growth of all descriptions of the produce of the earth, that it cannot be expected that these emancipated slaves, thus uneducated and untrained, will be induced to work for hire.

"5. Because, upon this speculation depends the value of a capital of not less than 200,000,000 sterling, including therein the fortunes and existence, in a state of independence, of thousands of colonists and proprietors of es-

tates in the colonies, the trade of the country, the employment of 250,000 tons of British shipping, and of 25,000 seamen, and a revenue which produces to the exchequer, upon sugar alone, not less than 5,000,000 sterling per annum."

WM. S. PRICE, M. D.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

THE INCORPORATION OF FIRE INSURANCE COMPANIES IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

We publish below "An Act to provide for the Incorporation of Fire Insurance Companies," passed June 25th, 1853, by "The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly," which is now in force:—

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE INCORPORATION OF FIRE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

SEC. 1. Any number of persons, not less than thirteen, may associate and form an incorporated company for the following purposes, to wit:—

To make insurance on dwelling-houses, stores, and all kinds of buildings, and upon household furniture, and other property, against loss or damage by fire, and the risks of inland navigation and transportation.

SEC. 2. Any company organized under this act, shall have power to effect re-insurance of any risks taken by them respectively.

SEC. 3. Such persons shall file in the office of the Controller, a declaration signed by all the corporators, expressing their intention to form a company for the purpose of transacting the business of insurance, as expressed in the first section of this act, which declaration shall also comprise a copy of the charter proposed to be adopted by them, and shall publish a notice of such their intention, once in each week for at least six weeks, in a public newspaper in the county in which such insurance company is proposed to be located.

SEC. 4. The charter comprised in such declaration, shall set forth the name of the company, the place where the principal office for the transaction of its business shall be located; the mode and manner in which the corporate powers granted by this act are to be exercised; the mode and manner of electing trustees or directors, a majority of whom shall be citizens of this State, and of filling vacancies, (but each director of a stock company shall be the owner in his own right of at least five hundred dollars worth of the stock of such company at its par value;) the period for the commencement and termination of its fiscal year, and the amount of capital to be employed in the transaction of its business; and the Controller shall have the right to reject any name or title of any company applied for, when he shall deem the name too similar to one already appropriated, or likely to mislead the public in any respect.

SEC. 5. No company formed under this act shall, directly or indirectly, deal or trade in buying or selling any goods, wares, merchandise, or other commodities whatever, excepting such articles as may have been insured by any company, and are claimed to be damaged by fire or water.

SEC. 6. No joint-stock company shall be incorporated under this act in the city and county of New York, nor in the county of Kings, nor shall any company incorporated under this act establish any agency for the transaction of business in either of said counties, with a smaller capital than one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, nor in any other county in this State, with a smaller capital than fifty thousand dollars; nor shall any company formed for the purpose of doing the business of fire or inland navigation insurance, on the plan of mutual insurance, commence business if located in the city of New York, or in the county of Kings, nor establish any agency for the transaction of business in either of said counties, until agreements have been entered into for insurance

with at least four hundred applicants, the premiums on which shall amount to not less than two hundred thousand dollars, of which forty thousand dollars shall have been paid in cash, and notes of solvent parties, founded on actual and bona fide applications for insurance, shall have been received for the remaining one hundred and sixty thousand dollars; nor shall any mutual insurance company in any other county of the State, commence business until agreements have been entered into for insurance with at least two hundred applicants, the premiums on which shall amount to not less than one hundred thousand dollars, of which twenty thousand dollars shall have been paid in cash, and notes of solvent parties, founded on actual and bona fide applications for insurance, shall have been received for the remaining eighty thousand dollars; no one of the notes received as aforesaid shall amount to more than five hundred dollars, and no two shall be given for the same risk, or be made by the same persons or firm, except where the whole amount of such notes shall not exceed five hundred dollars; nor shall any such note be represented as capital stock unless a policy be issued upon the same within thirty days after the organization of the company, upon a risk which shall be for no shorter period than twelve months. Each of said notes shall be payable in part or in whole, at any time when the directors shall deem the same requisite for the payment of losses by fire or inland navigation, and such incidental expenses as may be necessary for transacting the business of said company.

Sec. 7. It shall and may be lawful for the individuals associated for the purpose of organizing any company under this act, after having published the notice and filed their declaration and charter, as required by the third section of this act, and also on filing in the office of the controller proof of such publication, by the affidavit of the publisher of such newspaper, his foreman, or clerk, to open books for subscription to the capital stock of the company so intended to be organized, and to keep the same open until the full amount specified in the charter is subscribed; or in case the business of such company is proposed to be conducted on the plan of mutual insurance, then to open books to receive propositions, and enter into agreements in the manner and to the extent specified in the sixth section of this act.

Sec. 8. It shall be lawful for any company organized under this act, to invest its capital, or the funds accumulated in the course of its business, or any part thereof, in bonds and mortgages on unincumbered real estate within the State of New York, worth fifty per cent more than the sum loaned thereon; but in such valuation farm buildings shall not be estimated, and also in the stocks of this State or of the United States, or in the stocks or bonds of either of the incorporated cities of this State, which shall be at or above par at the time of the investment, and to lend the same or any part thereof, on the security of such stocks or bonds, or upon bonds and mortgages as aforesaid, and to change and re-invest the same as occasion may from time to time require; but any surplus moneys (over and above the capital stock) of any such fire and inland navigation insurance companies, or of any fire insurance company incorporated under any law of this State, may be invested in or loaned upon the pledge of the stock, bonds, or other evidences of indebtedness of any institution incorporated under the laws of this State, except their own stock; provided, always, that the current market value of such stocks, bonds, or other evidences of indebtedness shall be at least ten per cent more than the sum so loaned thereon.

Sec. 9. No company organized by or under this act, shall purchase, hold, or convey real estate, excepting for the purposes and in the manner herein set forth, to wit:—

1. Such as shall be requisite for its convenient accommodation in the transaction of its business; or,
2. Such as shall have been mortgaged to it in good faith, by way of security for loans previously contracted, or for moneys due; or,
3. Such as shall have been conveyed to it in satisfaction of debts previously contracted in their legitimate business, or for moneys due; or,
4. Such as shall have been purchased at sales upon judgments, decrees or

mortgages obtained or made for such debts; and it shall not be lawful for any such company to purchase, hold, or convey real estate in any other case, or for any other purpose; and all such real estate as may be acquired as aforesaid, and which shall not be necessary for the accommodation of such company in the transaction of its business, shall be sold and disposed of within five years after such company shall have acquired title thereto, unless the company shall procure a certificate from the controller of the State, that the interests of the company will suffer materially by a forced sale thereof, in which event the sale may be postponed for such a period as the controller shall direct in said certificate; and the controller may also give such certificate and extend the time for holding real estate, in the like circumstances, on the application of any insurance company heretofore incorporated.

SEC. 10. The charter and proof of publication herein required to be filed by every such company, shall be examined by the attorney general, and if found conformable to this act and not inconsistent with the constitution or laws of this State, shall be certified by him to the controller of the State, who shall thereupon cause an examination to be made, either by himself, or by three disinterested persons specially appointed by him for that purpose, who shall certify under oath that the capital herein required of the company named in the charter according to the nature of the business proposed to be transacted by such company, has been paid in and is possessed by it in money, or in such stocks and bonds and mortgages as are required by the eighth section of this act; or if a mutual company, that it has received and is in actual possession of the capital, premiums, or bona fide engagements of insurance, or other securities, as the case may be, to the full extent and of the value required by the sixth section of this act; and the name and the residence of the maker of each premium note forming part of the capital, and the amount of such note shall be returned to the controller; and the corporators and officers of such company shall be required to certify under oath that the capital exhibited to those persons is bona fide property of the company. Such certificate shall be filed in the office of the controller, who shall thereupon deliver to such company a certified copy of the charter and of such certificates, which, on being filed in the office of the clerk of the county where the company is to be located, shall be their authority to commence business and issue policies; and such certified copy of the charter and of said certificates may be used in evidence for or against said company with the same effect with the originals.

SEC. 11. The corporators, or the trustees or directors, as the case may be, of any company organized under this act, shall have power to make such by-laws not inconsistent with the constitution or laws of this State, as may be deemed necessary for the government of its officers and the conduct of its affairs, and the same, when necessary, to alter and amend, and they and their successors may have a common seal, and may change and alter the same at their pleasure.

SEC. 12. It shall not be lawful for the directors, trustees, or managers of any such company, to make any dividend except from the surplus profits arising from their business, and in estimating such profits, there shall be reserved therefrom a sum equal to the amount of premiums unearned on risks not matured, and also all sums due the corporation on bonds and mortgages, bonds, stocks, and book accounts, of which no part of the interest or principal thereon has been paid during the last year, and for which foreclosure or suit has not been commenced for collection, or which after judgment obtained thereon, shall have remained more than two years unsatisfied, and on which interest shall not have been paid, and also all interest due or accrued, and remaining unpaid. Any dividend made contrary to these provisions shall subject the stockholders receiving it to a joint and several liability to the creditors of such company, to the extent of the dividend.

SEC. 13. All notes deposited with any mutual insurance company at the time of its organization, as provided in section six, shall remain as security for all losses and claims until the accumulation of the profits, invested as required by the eighth section of this act, shall equal the amount of cash capital required to

be possessed by stock companies organized under this act, the liability of each note decreasing proportionately as the profits are accumulated; but any note which may have been deposited with any mutual insurance company subsequent to its organization, in addition to the cash premium on any insurance effected with such company, may, at the expiration of the time of such insurance, be relinquished and given up to the maker thereof, or his representatives, upon his paying the proportion of all losses and expenses which may have accrued thereon during such term. The directors or trustees of any such company shall have the right to determine the amount of the note to be given in addition to the cash premium, by any person insuring in any such company; but in no case shall the note be more than five times the whole amount of the cash premium. And every person effecting insurance in any mutual company, and also their heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, continuing to be so insured, shall thereby become members of said corporation during the period of insurance, and shall be bound to pay for losses and such necessary expenses as aforesaid, accruing in and to said company, in proportion to the amount of his deposit note or notes. The directors shall, after receiving notice of any loss or damage by fire sustained by any member, and ascertaining the same, or after the rendition of any judgment against said company for loss or damage, settle and determine the sums to be paid by the several members thereof as their respective portion of such loss, and publish the same in such manner as they shall see fit, or as the by-laws shall have prescribed; and the sum to be paid by each member shall always be in proportion to the original amount of his deposit note or notes, and shall be paid to the officers of the company within thirty days next after the publication of said notice. And if any member shall, for the space of thirty days after the publication of said notice, and after personal demand for payment shall have been made, neglect or refuse to pay the sum assessed upon him as his proportion of any loss as aforesaid, in such case the directors may sue for and recover the whole amount of his deposit note or notes, with costs of suit, but execution shall only issue for assessments and costs as they accrue, and every such execution shall be accompanied by a list of the losses for which the assessment is made. If the whole amount of deposit notes shall be insufficient to pay the loss occasioned by any fire or fires, in such case the sufferers insured by the said company shall receive toward making good their respective losses, a proportional share of the whole amount of said notes according to the sums by them respectively insured; but no member shall ever be required to pay for any loss occasioned by fire or inland navigation, more than the whole amount of his deposit note.

SEC. 14. It shall be lawful for any mutual insurance company established in conformity with the provisions of this act, to unite a cash capital to any extent, as an additional security to its members, over and above their cash premiums and premium notes; provided, that such cash capital shall not be less than thirty thousand dollars, and which additional cash capital shall be loaned and invested as provided in the eighth section of this act; and the company may allow an interest on such cash capital, and a participation in its profits, and prescribe the liability of the owner or owners thereof, to share in the losses of the company, and such cash capital shall be liable as the capital stock of the company, in the payment of its debts; provided, that such cash capital shall in all cases be paid in at the organization of the company, and satisfactory evidence of that fact furnished to the controller. Any existing joint-stock fire insurance company, and any company formed under this law may, (the written consent of the holders of three-fourths in amount of the stock first being had,) permit the insured to participate in the profits of the business of such company, and provide how for any scrip issued to the insured for such profits shall be liable for the losses to be sustained, and any company so doing, whenever an amount not less than one hundred thousand dollars has been accumulated and scrip so issued therefor, may, with the written consent of the holders of three-fourths in amount of the stock, pay off and cancel an amount of the original cash capital equal to one-half of the accumulated profits, and so may continue from time to time until the whole amount of the original cash capital is paid off: provided, that before any portion

of such capital stock shall be so paid off, proof shall be exhibited to the controller that an amount of accumulated profits has been realized, scrip issued therefor, and the investments made thereof, pursuant to the provisions of the eighth section of this act, at least equal to double the amount so desired to be paid off and canceled, and the controller shall also certify that he is first satisfied with such proof.

SEC. 15. Every fire and inland navigation insurance company hereinafter organized, shall, if it be a mutual company, embody the word "mutual" in its title, which shall appear on the first page of every policy and renewal receipt; and every company doing business as a cash stock company shall, upon the face of its policy in some suitable manner, express that such policy is a stock policy.

SEC. 16. Suits at law may be maintained by any corporation formed under this act, against any of its members or stockholders for any cause relating to the business of such corporation, and also suits at law may be prosecuted and maintained by any member or stockholder against such corporations for any losses which may have accrued, if payment is withheld more than thirty days after such losses shall have become due; and any member or stockholder, not individually a party to such suits, may be a witness therein.

SEC. 17. The trustees and corporators of any company organized under this act, and those entitled to a participation of the profits of such company, shall be jointly and severally liable for all debts or responsibilities of such company, until the whole amount of the capital of such company shall have been paid in and a certificate thereof recorded as hereinbefore provided. Notes taken in advance of premiums under this act, are not to be considered debts of the company in determining whether a company is insolvent, but are to be regarded as assets of the company.

SEC. 18. Any existing joint-stock fire insurance company heretofore incorporated under the laws of this State, and any company organized under this act, may at any time within two years previous to the termination of its charter, after giving notice at least once a week for six weeks successively, in a newspaper published in the county where such company is located, of such intentions, and with a declaration under its corporate seal, signed by its president and two-thirds of its directors, of their desire for such extension, extend the term of its original charter to the time specified in the twenty-sixth section of this act, by altering and amending the same, so as to accord with the provisions of this act, and filing a copy of such amended charter, with the declaration aforesaid, in the office of the controller; whereupon the same proceedings shall be had as are required in the tenth section of this act; and any mutual insurance company heretofore incorporated under the laws of this State, or organized under this act, may, with the consent of two-thirds of the corporators or members thereof, and the unanimous consent of the trustees or directors of such company, unless otherwise provided in the charter expressed in writing, after having given notice once a week for six weeks of their intentions in the State paper, and in a newspaper published in the county where such company is located, become a joint-stock company, by conforming its charter to, and otherwise proceeding in accordance with this act; and every company so extended or changed shall come under the provisions of this act, in the same manner as if it had been incorporated originally under this act.

SEC. 19. Any existing fire insurance company, and any company formed under this law, may, at any time, increase the amount of its capital stock, after notice given once a week for six weeks, in the state paper and in any newspaper published in the county where such company is located, of such intentions, with the written consent of three-fourths in amount of its stockholders; unless otherwise provided in its charter, or if a mutual company, with the unanimous consent of its trustees, (unless otherwise provided in its charter,) by altering or amending their charter in this respect, and filing a copy of their charter so amended, together with a declaration under its corporate seal, signed by its president and directors, of their desire so to do, with such written consent of three-fourths in amount of its stockholders, or the unanimous consent of the trustees as afore-

said to such increase in the office of the controller, and upon the same proceedings being had as are required by the tenth section of this act.

SEC. 20. Such companies as may have been incorporated or extended under the "Act to provide for the incorporation of insurance companies," passed April 10th, 1849, are hereby brought under all the provisions of this act, except that their capitals may continue of the amounts named in their respective charters during the existing term thereof, and are also entitled to all the privileges granted by said charters.

SEC. 21. All companies incorporated or extended under this act, shall be deemed and taken to be bodies corporate and politic in fact and in name, and shall be subject to all the provisions of the revised statutes, and acts supplemental thereto, in relation to corporations so far as the same are applicable.

SEC. 22. It shall be the duty of the president or vice-president and secretary of each company organized under this act or incorporated under any law of this State, annually, on the first day of January, or within one month thereafter, to prepare, under their own oath, and deposit in the office of the controller of this State, a statement of the condition of such company on the thirty-first day of December, then next preceding, exhibiting the following facts and items, and in the following form, namely:

FIRST. The amount of capital stock of the company.

SECOND. The property or assets held by the company, specifying,

1. The value, or nearly as may be, of the real estate held by such company.
2. The amount of cash on hand and deposited in the banks to the credit of the company, specifying in what banks the same are deposited.
3. The amount of cash in hands of agents and in course of transmission.
4. The amount of loans secured by bonds and mortgages, constituting the first lien on real estate, on which there shall be less than one year's interest due or owing.
5. The amount of loans on which interest shall not have been paid within one year previous to such statement.
6. The amount due the company on which judgments have been obtained.
7. The amount of stocks of this State, of the United States, of any incorporated city of this State, and of any other stocks owned by the company, specifying the amount, number of shares, and par and market value of each kind of stock.
8. The amount of stocks held thereby, as collateral security for loans, with the amount loaned on each kind of stock, its par value and market value.
9. The amount of assessments on stock or premium notes paid and unpaid.
10. The amount of interest actually due and unpaid.
11. The amount of premium notes on hand on which policies are issued.

THIRD. The liabilities of such company, specifying,

1. The amount of losses due and yet unpaid.
 2. The amount of claims for losses resisted by the company.
 3. The amount of losses incurred during the year, including those claimed and not yet due, and of those reported to the company upon which no action has been taken.
 4. The amount of dividends declared and due, and remaining unpaid.
 5. The amount of dividends (either cash or script) declared but not yet due.
 6. The amount of money borrowed, and security given for the payment thereof.
 7. The amount of all other existing claims against the company.
- FOURTH. The income of the company during the preceding year, specifying,
1. The amount of cash premiums received.
 2. The amount of notes received for premiums.
 3. The amount of interest money received.
 4. The amount of income received from other sources.

FIFTH. The expenditures during the preceding year, specifying,

1. The amount of losses paid during the year, stating how much of the same accrued prior, and how much subsequent to the date of the preceding statement, and the amount at which such losses were estimated in such preceding statement.

2. The amount of dividends paid during the year.
3. The amount of expenses paid during the year, including commissions and fees to agents and officers of the company.
4. The amount paid in taxes.
5. The amount of all other payments and expenditures.

The statement of any company, the capital of which is composed in whole or in part of notes, shall, in addition to the foregoing, exhibit the amount of notes originally forming the capital, and also what proportion of said notes is still held by such company, and considered capital. The statement herein provided for shall be in lieu of any or all statements now required by any existing law or provision. Every fire insurance company organized under any law of this State, failing to make and deposit such statement, shall be subject to the penalty of five hundred dollars, and an additional five hundred dollars for every month that such company shall continue thereafter to transact any business of insurance.

It shall be the duty of the controller to cause to be prepared and furnished to each of the companies and to the attorneys of companies incorporated by other states and foreign governments, printed forms of the statement required by this act, and he may, from time to time, make such changes in the form of such statements as shall seem to him best adapted to elicit from the companies a true exhibit of their condition in respect to the several points herein before enumerated.

It shall be the duty of the controller to cause the information contained in the statements required by this section to be arranged in a tabular form, and prepare the same in a single document for printing, which he shall communicate to the legislature annually.

SEC. 23. It shall not be lawful for any fire insurance company incorporated by any other state of the United States, or by any foreign government, directly or indirectly to take risks or transact any business of insurance in this State, unless possessed of the amount of actual capital required of similar companies formed under the provisions of this act, and any such company desiring to transact any such business as aforesaid by an agent or agents in this State, shall first appoint an attorney in this State, on whom process of law can be served, and file in the office of the controller of this State a certified copy of the vote or resolution of the directors appointing such attorney, which appointment shall continue until another attorney be substituted, and also a certified copy of their charter, together with a statement under the oath of the president or vice-president, and secretary of the company, for which he or they may act, stating the name of the company, and place where located; the amount of its capital, with a detailed statement of its assets, showing the amount of cash on hand, in bank, or in the hands of agents; the amount of real estate, and how much the same is encumbered by mortgage; the number of shares of stock of every kind owned by the company, the par and market value of the same; amount loaned on bond and mortgage; the amount loaned on other security, stating the kind, and the amount loaned on each, and the estimated value of the whole amount of such securities; any other assets or property of the company, also stating the indebtedness of the company, the amount of losses adjusted and unpaid, the amount incurred and in process of adjustment, the amount resisted by the company as illegal and fraudulent, and any other claims existing against the company, also a copy of the last annual report, if any made under any law of the state by which such company was incorporated; and no agent shall be allowed to transact business for any company whose capital is impaired to the extent of twenty per cent thereof, while such deficiency shall continue; and any agent for any company incorporated by any foreign government, shall, in addition to the foregoing, furnish evidence to the satisfaction of the controller, that such company has invested in securities of a similar character as required of companies organized under this act, an amount equal to the capital required by section six, of companies organized under this act; and that such securities and investments are held in trust by citizens of the United States for the benefit and security of such as may effect insurance with him or them; nor shall it be lawful for any agent or agents to act for any

company or companies referred to in this section, directly or indirectly, in taking risks or transacting the business of fire or inland navigation insurance in this State, without procuring from the controller a certificate of authority stating that such company has complied with all the requisitions of this act which apply to such companies, and the name of the attorney appointed to act for the company; a certified copy of such certificate of authority with statement must be filed by the agent in the office of the clerk of every county where such company has agents, and shall be published in the paper in which the state notices are required to be inserted, four successive times after the filing of such statement as aforesaid, and within thirty days thereafter proof of such publication by the affidavit of the publisher of such newspaper, his foreman, or clerk, shall be filed in the office of the controller. The statements and evidences of investment required by this section, shall be renewed from year to year, with an additional statement of the amount of premiums received and losses incurred in this State during the preceding year, so long as such agency continues; and the controller, on being satisfied that the capital, securities and investments remain secure, as at first, shall furnish a renewal of his certificates as aforesaid, and the agent or agents obtaining such certificates shall file the same, together with a certified copy of statements and affidavits on which it was obtained or renewed, in the office of the clerk of the county in which such agency shall be established, within the month of January. But the attorney, agent, or agents of any company incorporated by any foreign government may furnish and file such statements and evidences as aforesaid, within the months of January and February in each year, and publish the same as hereinbefore provided. Any violation of any of the provisions of this section shall subject the party violating, to a penalty of five hundred dollars for each violation, and of the additional sum of one hundred dollars for each month during which any such agent shall neglect to make such publication or to file such affidavits as are herein required. Every agent of any fire insurance company shall, in all advertisements of such agency, publish the location of the company, giving the name of the city, town or village, in which the company is located, and the state or government under the laws of which it is organized.

The term agent or agents, used in this section, shall include an acknowledged agent or surveyor, or any other person or persons, who shall, in any manner, aid in transacting the insurance business of any insurance company not incorporated by the laws of this State.

SEC. 24. It shall be the duty of the controller, whenever he shall deem it expedient so to do, to appoint one or more persons, not officers of any fire insurance company doing business in this State, to examine into the affairs of any fire insurance company incorporated in this State, or doing business by its agents in this State; and it shall be the duty of the officers or agents of any such company doing business in this State, to cause their books to be opened for the inspection of the person or persons so appointed, and otherwise to facilitate such examination so far as it may be in their power to do; and for that purpose, the controller, or person or persons so appointed by him, shall have power to examine under oath, the officers and agents of any company relative to the business of said company; and when the controller shall deem it for the interest of the public so to do, he shall publish the result of such investigation in one or more papers in this State; and whenever it shall appear to the controller, from such examination, that the assets of any company, incorporated in this State, are insufficient to justify the continuance in business of any such company, he may direct the officers thereof to require the stockholders to pay in the amount of such deficiency within such period as he may designate in such requisition, or he shall communicate the fact to the attorney general, whose duty it shall then become to apply to the Supreme Court for an order requiring them to show cause why the business of such company should not be closed, and the court shall thereupon proceed to hear the allegations and proofs of the respective parties; and in case it shall appear to the satisfaction of said court that the assets and funds of the said company are not sufficient as aforesaid, or that the interests of

the public so require, the said court shall decree a dissolution of said company, and a distribution of its effects. The Supreme Court shall have power to refer the application of the attorney general to a referee to inquire into and report upon the facts stated therein. Any company receiving the aforesaid requisition from the controller, shall forthwith call upon its stockholders for such amounts as will make its capital equal to the amount fixed by the charter of said company, and in case any stockholder of such company shall refuse or neglect to pay the amount so called for, after notice personally given or by advertisement, in such time and manner as the controller shall approve, it shall be lawful for the said company to require the return of the original certificate of stock held by such stockholder, and in lieu thereof to issue new certificates for such number of shares as the said stockholder may be entitled to in the proportion that the ascertained value of the funds of the said company may be found to bear to the original capital of the said company; the value of such shares for which new certificates shall be issued, to be ascertained under the direction of the controller, and the company paying for the fractional parts of shares; and it shall be lawful for the directors of such company to create new stock and dispose of the same, and to issue new certificates therefor, to an amount sufficient to make up the original capital of the company. And it is hereby declared that in the event of any additional losses accruing upon new risks taken after the expiration of the period limited by the controller, in the aforesaid requisition for the filling up of the deficiency in the capital of such company, and before said deficiency shall have been made up, the directors shall be individually liable to the extent thereof. And if, upon such examination, it shall appear to the controller that the assets of any company chartered on the plan of mutual insurance under this act, are insufficient to justify the continuance of such company in business, it shall be his duty to proceed in relation to such company in the same manner as is herein required in regard to joint stock companies, and the trustees or directors of such company are hereby made personally liable for any losses which may be sustained upon risks taken after the expiration of the period limited by the controller for the filling up the deficiency in the capital, and before such deficiency shall have been made up. Any transfer of the stock of any company organized under this act, made during the pending of any such investigation, shall not release the party making the transfer from his liability for the losses which may have accrued previous to the transfer. And whenever it shall appear to the controller from the report of the person or persons appointed by him, that the affairs of any company not incorporated by the laws of this State, are in an unsound condition, he shall revoke the certificates granted in behalf of such company, and shall cause a notification thereof to be published in the state paper for four weeks, and the agent or agents of such company is, after such notice, required to discontinue the issuing of any new policy, and the renewal of any previously issued.

Sec. 25. Every penalty provided for by this act shall be sued for and recovered in the name of the people, by the district attorney of the county in which the company or the agent or agents so violating shall be situated, and one-half of the said penalty, when recovered, shall be paid into the treasury of said county, and the other half to the informer of such violation; and in the case of non-payment of such penalty, the party so offending shall be liable to imprisonment for a period not exceeding six months, in the discretion of any court having cognizance thereof.

Sec. 26. All companies incorporated or extended under this act, may provide in their charters for not more than thirty years duration, but the legislature may at any time alter, amend or repeal this act, and provide for the closing up of the business and affairs of any company formed under it. Nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent subsequent extensions of the charters of companies organized or extended under this act.

Sec. 27. There shall be paid by every association, company, or agent, to whom this act shall apply, the following fees to be appropriated towards paying the expenses of executing said act: For filing the declaration required by the third section, the certified copy of the charter required by the twenty-third section, for the

papers required by the eighteenth or nineteenth sections, the sum of twenty dollars; for filing the annual statement, five dollars; for every certificate of agency, one dollar. And all declarations, charters or other papers relating to fire and inland navigation insurance companies now on file in the office of the secretary of state shall be transferred to the office of the controller, who shall furnish, on payment of the usual fees, all certificates in relation thereto, as if the same had been originally filed in his office. Every county clerk shall demand and receive for every paper filed in his office under this act, the sum of ten cents, to be accounted for and paid over to the county treasury as provided by law with regard to other fees.

SEC. 28. So much of the act entitled "An act to provide for the incorporation of insurance companies," passed April 10, 1849 as relates to fire and inland navigation insurance, is hereby repealed; but such repeal shall not affect any companies organized under the said act.

SEC. 29. This act shall take effect immediately, except that those companies whose officers or agents have complied with the law of eighteen hundred and forty-nine, in making and publishing their respective statements, shall be permitted to continue to transact the business of insurance, without further statement, until the thirty-first day of January, eighteen hundred and fifty-four.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

INCREASED EXCITEMENT IN THE MONEY MARKET—WITH AN EXPLANATION OF ITS CAUSES—INQUIRY INTO THE CONNECTION BETWEEN THE COURSE OF THE BANKS AND THE CONVULSIONS IN TRADE—SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES—PRIVATE BANKING HOUSES—BANK RETURNS IN NEW YORK—CASH REVENUE OF THE UNITED STATES, AND PROPOSALS FOR REDEEMING PART OF THE NATIONAL DEBT—RECEIPTS AND COINAGE OF GOLD FOR JULY—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY AND SINCE JANUARY 1ST—CAUSE AND EFFECT OF THE INCREASED IMPORTS—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS FOR JULY AND SINCE JANUARY 1ST, FOR FOUR YEARS—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR JULY AND SINCE JANUARY 1ST—EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK, AND FROM ALL DOMESTIC PORTS.

THE increased activity in monetary affairs, which we anticipated in our last, has been realized. It was speedily followed, if not actually introduced, by a partial panic among stock operators and other speculators, and has been attended, in all of the principal markets, with more excitement than has been previously witnessed for a twelvemonth. At New York several causes contributed to hasten the pressure. The imports have been very large, and the demand for cash duties absorbed a large amount of capital. The works of internal improvement have drawn considerable capital from the seaboard, which could be poorly spared at such a crisis. An unprecedented amount of fancy and investment stocks, bonds, and other similar securities, were held by speculators, but subject to call loans for which they were hypothecated. A large portion of the heavy capitalists and moneyed men were absent in the country, and there was but little floating capital subject to a sudden demand. The increased anxiety among borrowers resulting from these combined influences was brought to a focus by the flurry among the banks, occasioned by the demand for a weekly statement of the average amount for the previous six days of their loans and discounts, deposits, specie, and circulation. This demand, authorized by the Legislature, could not be resisted. It cut at once at the root of all the *king* which had been practised during the last two years by those institutions who pretended to lend, but were in fact borrowers of capital. It has offended some who had no need of such a

requirement, but who will in the end see both its justice and utility. It has brought about daily settlements among the city banks, a measure often urged, but never before unanimously adopted. Now each bank has possession of its means and of such deposits as it can obtain from bona fide customers, and is *limited* to the business it can thus legitimately obtain. The four items required, as an *exhibit* of the condition of the bank, are of less value than generally supposed; but the influence of the requisition upon the actual condition of the bank has not been overrated. Under the operation of the causes alluded to, the street rates of interest have been quite irregular, but have ranged mostly from 9 to 12 per cent per annum for prime business paper.

At Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, the pressure in the money market originated in part from their intimate connection with New York, and in part from local causes. The excitement in each of these cities has been less than in New York, and the stringency has been unaccompanied by the panic felt in the last named place.

At New Orleans the excitement has been from quite another cause. The Yellow Fever has prevailed there to an extent unknown for many years, and the moveable population have mostly fled, leaving the city a desolation. All regular commercial business has been suspended, and even when the epidemic has abated, and the inhabitants have returned, it will take some time to reinstate the trade in its old channels.

The great losses occasioned by this pressure in the money market, although they have fallen chiefly upon speculators and stock operators, have, nevertheless, suggested among all classes of the commercial community some serious questions in regard to the present management of the moneyed institutions of this country. There can be no doubt but that the panic was immediately brought on by a sudden contraction of their loans by the banking institutions of New York and other cities. But had the banks no agency in *preparing* the mine, which all agree they were instrumental in exploding? We do not mean to charge the managers of these institutions, as some do, with bringing on the crisis for the express purpose of depressing stocks that they might profit by judicious purchases at a low rate; but we wish to inquire, if in their anxiety to secure large dividends they have not contributed to the evil which they subsequently attempted to correct? The course pursued by the majority of the banks may be too deep for ordinary comprehension, but, as far as we can judge, there seems to be a total want of system in their general management. There are pointed exceptions to this rule, but the few who pursue a judicious course are mostly foiled in their efforts at regularity by the measures of the rest. The banks certainly, in times of expansion, presume too much upon their accidental capital, and exhaust their resources too closely. Then they commence a contraction, not gradual like the expansion, but sudden and oppressive. They attempt to regulate the foreign trade too much, and always at the wrong time. They will grant every facility to the importer, until he has given out his orders, and then when the goods are arriving freely, and he needs all their help to pay the duties and make up his remittances, they shut up their accommodations under the plea of a wholesome restriction of an excessive importation. We have begun to doubt whether the whole system of loans on call is not a nuisance which should be abated. If the banks should keep a reserve fund for a sudden call, let them keep it to them-

selves. They lend it "subject to call," and in calling for it shake commercial credit to its center. The floating capital thus loaned is almost wholly used for purposes of speculation. Such loans are never of any positive benefit to a legitimate business. Prudent merchants will not touch them, but even the most prudent cannot escape from the trouble occasioned by the use which is made of them by others. It may be that the banks will see the errors connected with the present mode of business and work the change themselves; but if they do not, the community will at last effect the reform, although they may not do it as gently as could be desired. Meantime the number of banks is everywhere increasing. The following will show that the number, even up to the last official dates, has been considerably augmented since the heavy failures following the attempted resumption of specie payments in 1839.

BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Date.	No.	Capital.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
1830....	330	\$145,192,268	\$200,451,214	\$22,114,917	\$61,323,898	\$55,559,928
1837....	788	290,772,091	525,115,702	37,915,340	149,185,890	127,397,185
1839....	840	327,132,512	492,278,015	45,132,673	135,170,995	90,240,146
1843....	691	228,861,948	254,544,937	28,440,423	58,563,608	56,168,623
1847....	715	203,070,622	310,282,945	35,132,516	105,519,766	91,792,533
1848....	751	204,833,175	344,476,582	46,369,765	128,606,091	103,226,177
1850....	829	217,317,211	364,204,078	45,379,345	131,316,526	109,586,695
1851....	871	227,469,074	412,607,653	48,671,138	155,012,912	127,557,645

The later official returns are quite incomplete, but the present number of banks in the Union is over one thousand.

If the banks continue the irregularities hitherto chargeable to them, perhaps the first noticeable attempt at reform will be the encouragement given to private banking. Already at several points throughout the Union private banking houses have been established, and are quite in favor with the commercial community.

The banks of New York city are now making weekly summary statements of their condition, from which we annex the following comparative summary:—

	Loans and discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
August 6, 1853.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
August 13, 1853.....	94,633,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,457,504
August 20, 1853.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,207,223

These returns show that each week is adding to the strength of their position.

The last quarterly return of the banks in the State has been published, from which we have compiled the following comparative table:—

	Dec. 25, 1852.	Feb. 26, 1853.	June 11, 1853.
Loans and discounts	\$134,877,200	\$141,586,945	\$144,590,696
Stocks.....	18,110,316	18,634,167	19,820,646
Specie.....	11,493,743	10,089,306	13,384,410
Cash items.....	20,906,241	16,144,816	17,883,543
Bank notes.....	2,877,708	3,670,205	4,368,195
Due from Banks.....	14,546,432	16,258,332	13,575,589
Capital.....	65,449,703	67,623,326	73,183,251
Circulation.....	33,416,100	30,063,014	30,064,959
Deposits.....	74,923,943	79,469,326	79,996,528
Due to banks.....	29,303,353	30,473,106	31,889,129

Since our last, the government has made a standing offer of 121 and interest, for the return of \$5,000,000 United States bonds redeemable either in 1867 or 1868, and 116 and 108½ respectively for \$2,000,000 of the stock redeemable in

1862, and 1856; but even in the present stringent state of the money market, the bonds come in very slowly. The par, of course, is 100, and the excess above this in the prices named, is a *premium* for anticipating the maturity of the stock. The surplus now in the Treasury is very large, and is daily increasing. The following will show the cash revenue received at New York:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
In July.....	\$4,210,115 95	\$3,558,400 12	\$3,240,787 18	\$4,640,107 15
Previous six months....	13,029,910 05	16,652,665 60	14,250,312 88	21,167,329 50
Total from January 1st.	17,240,023 00	20,211,065 72	17,491,100 06	25,807,436 65

The receipts at other ports have increased, but not in the same proportion.

The gold product has been large both from California and Australia. The amount reaching the Atlantic States from the former cannot now be so well ascertained as formerly, since a large amount is assayed in California, and reaching New York in ingots, is exported without being sent to the Mint. Over a million of dollars was shipped in this way since the date of our last review.

The following will show the deposits and coinage at the United States Mint in Philadelphia, for the month of July:—

DEPOSITS FOR JULY.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	From California.	Total.	From California.	Total.
Gold			\$3,459,000	\$3,491,000

GOLD COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Total.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles.....			50,228	\$1,004,560
Eagles.....			20,860	208,600
Half eagles.....			43,000	215,000
Quarter eagles.....			83,216	208,040
Gold dollars.....			60,276	60,276
Total gold coinage.....			257,580	\$1,696,476
Gold bars.....				2,762,993
				\$4,459,469

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars.....		552,000	276,000
Quarter dollars		1,404,000	351,000
Dimes.....		540,000	54,000
Half dimes.....		580,000	29,000
Total silver coinage.....		3,076,000	\$710,000

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents		183,288	\$1,832
Total Coinage.....			\$5,171,801

We have received no returns from the New Orleans Mint for July.

In our last number we noticed the fact that the imports for the month then closing (July) were very large, although the total was not then made up; the official summary has since been received and we have compiled our usual comparative tables for New York, which show a larger amount of merchandise than ever before entered during any similar period. In 1850 a portion of the Califor-

nia gold, shipped via Panama, was entered among the foreign ports, and thus the gross imports for July of that year would appear to be greater than for the corresponding month this year; but excluding the specie, the imports for July, 1853, were \$632,775 the greatest. The total for the month at the port mentioned, was \$7,136,250 greater than for July, 1852, and \$5,572,457 greater than for the same period of 1851, as will appear from the following comparison:—

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

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Entered for consumption.....	\$16,591,446	\$12,374,701	\$11,453,117	\$16,725,643
Entered for warehousing.....	2,155,320	1,022,725	423,919	2,080,908
Free goods.....	499,512	1,027,481	915,154	1,072,502
Specie.....	1,927,708	81,143	150,067	199,454
Total entered at the port.....	\$21,173,986	\$14,506,050	\$12,942,257	\$20,078,507
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	944,127	1,167,644	1,095,800	1,702,448

At the other ports the aggregate receipts show a comparative decline, although at Philadelphia and Boston there is a slight gain. The great increase, however, has been at New York, and no inconsiderable portion of the most expensive goods have come by steamer. The total foreign imports at New York from January 1st to August 1st of the current year, are \$43,677,146 greater than for the corresponding seven months of 1852, \$31,019,623 greater than for the same period of 1851, and \$19,718,266 greater than for the same period of 1850.

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS, ENDING JULY 31ST.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Entered for consumption.....	\$63,254,488	\$70,762,893	\$58,498,029	\$93,558,807
Entered for warehousing.....	9,916,433	7,486,712	5,451,668	13,587,589
Free goods.....	5,961,354	6,165,125	8,259,939	9,669,118
Specie.....	9,064,489	1,480,476	2,028,248	1,099,516
Total imports.....	\$88,196,764	\$86,895,407	\$74,237,884	\$117,915,030
Withdrawn from warehouse ...	5,378,101	6,879,985	9,622,577	8,227,102

The total for 1850 is swelled, as already noticed, by the California gold, part of which cleared from Chagres as from a foreign port. This large increase in the imports has excited much speculation throughout the country, and political writers of various parties have each tried to make the fact serve as an argument in favor of their respective theories. The difficulty with all such writers is that they look too far for causes, forgetting that the grandest effects are sometimes produced by the operation of a very simple natural law. The country has been enriched during the past three years, by the addition of \$100,000,000 to its metallic currency. Those who are frightened at the increased imports would do well to remember this fact. The exports have also largely increased both in quantity and in value, and the profits on the exports has been unprecedented. But the most important item in this connection is the great activity and high rate of freights, a very great portion of which is in American bottoms which has to be drawn for, and helps materially to make up the balance of trade. About half of the increased imports have been in dry goods, and we extend the comparison for four years, as the year 1850 stood at the beginning of the great increase of trade brought on by the introduction of California gold:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool	\$3,552,120	\$2,354,643	\$2,187,187	\$4,097,250
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,607,775	1,193,817	1,089,736	1,847,216
Manufactures of silk.....	4,572,161	3,933,092	3,074,265	4,824,913
Manufactures of flax.....	741,095	611,250	488,586	719,307
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	880,698	453,476	530,595	569,761
Total.....	\$10,853,849	\$8,546,278	\$7,370,369	\$12,058,447

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool	\$314,619	\$318,717	\$237,434	\$531,250
Manufactures of cotton.....	104,880	157,371	96,970	98,255
Manufactures of silk.....	124,574	265,709	149,394	233,066
Manufactures of flax.....	24,695	37,782	32,064	19,957
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	10,984	21,109	12,416	32,796
Total.....	\$579,752	\$800,688	\$528,278	\$914,324
Add entered for consumption....	10,853,849	8,546,278	7,370,369	12,058,447

Total thrown on the market.. \$11,433,601 \$9,346,966 \$7,898,647 \$12,972,771

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool	\$486,339	\$341,315	\$126,623	\$273,785
Manufactures of cotton.....	393,934	129,572	72,226	119,021
Manufactures of silk.....	222,142	268,318	130,624	144,791
Manufactures of flax.....	71,207	45,003	16,299	9,488
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	12,313	27,465	21,556	21,121
Total.....	\$1,185,934	\$811,673	\$367,328	\$568,206
Add entered for consumption....	10,853,849	8,546,278	7,370,369	12,048,447

Total entered at the port \$12,039,783 \$9,357,951 \$7,737,697 \$12,626,653

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS, ENDING WITH JULY 31st.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$9,892,766	\$8,936,521	\$7,464,841	\$14,913,222
Manufactures of cotton	7,529,974	6,978,178	5,715,788	9,469,017
Manufactures of silk	12,433,150	15,742,584	12,242,731	20,679,454
Manufactures of flax	5,167,834	4,147,367	3,423,990	4,918,869
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	1,386,408	2,373,047	2,492,455	3,356,511
Total..	\$36,410,132	\$38,177,697	\$31,339,805	\$53,337,071

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$724,050	\$896,547	\$1,079,133	\$1,164,654
Manufactures of cotton.....	753,530	1,008,874	1,125,786	701,490
Manufactures of silk	689,011	858,926	1,401,176	1,008,372
Manufactures of flax.....	258,158	397,349	615,523	149,641
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	88,123	260,821	239,265	247,543
Total.....	\$2,512,872	\$3,422,517	\$4,460,888	\$3,271,700
Add entered for consumption....	36,410,132	38,177,697	31,339,805	53,337,071

Total thrown on the market. \$38,923,004 \$41,600,214 \$35,800,693 \$56,608,771

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool	\$1,312,992	\$1,165,289	\$915,183	\$1,654,251
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,356,312	1,038,237	640,864	861,092
Manufactures of silk.....	794,542	1,238,440	1,652,118	1,115,548
Manufactures of flax.....	473,336	390,664	223,779	190,745
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	67,363	229,890	222,545	262,912
Total	\$4,004,545	\$4,062,520	\$3,654,489	\$4,094,548
Add entered for consumption.....	36,410,132	38,177,697	31,339,805	53,337,071
Total entered at the port...	\$40,414,677	\$42,240,217	\$34,994,294	\$57,421,619

The total for the month shows an increase of \$4,888,956 over the corresponding month of 1852, \$3,268,702 over the same period of 1851; and only \$586,870 over the same period of 1850.

The receipts for seven months are \$22,427,325 greater than for the same period of 1852, \$15,182,402 greater than for the same period of 1851, and \$17,006,942 greater than for the same period of 1850. The fact that there has been no great over-importation is shown, not only in the little demand for specie for export, but in the profitable sales of most of the fabrics received. There have been quite as few goods sold at a sacrifice during the current season as in any similar period when the imports were lighter; and the stock now arriving is mostly in good request for distribution.

The exports, as already stated, have largely increased. This increase is less apparent in amount at New York, where the comparison between imports and exports is always largely in favor of the former; but in proportion it has been very great, particularly during the last two months. In July the total increase, (exclusive of specie,) was 70 per cent, as will be seen by the following summary:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF JULY.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Domestic produce.....	\$3,574,260	\$3,188,027	\$2,965,542	\$4,882,957
Foreign merchandise (free).....	17,563	2,311	20,759	313,192
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	413,671	284,397	325,732	447,201
Specie.....	1,518,080	6,004,170	2,971,499	3,924,612
Total exports.....	\$5,523,574	\$9,478,905	\$6,283,530	\$9,567,962
Total, exclusive of specie.....	4,005,494	3,474,735	3,312,031	5,643,350

There has been an increase of specie for the month as compared with last year, but a falling off as compared with 1851. The total, exclusive of specie, is \$2,331,319 greater than for July, 1852; \$2,168,615 greater than for the same period of 1851; and \$1,637,856 greater than for the same period of 1850. The following will show the exports at the same port since January 1st:—

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

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Domestic produce	\$22,491,133	\$25,644,866	\$25,111,363	\$30,305,247
Foreign merchandise (free).....	444,533	373,656	541,978	1,010,669
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	2,411,578	2,266,139	2,745,307	2,488,181
Specie	3,971,812	25,097,685	15,595,508	12,579,594
Total exports.....	\$29,319,056	\$53,382,346	\$43,994,156	\$46,383,691
Total, exclusive of specie	25,337,244	23,284,661	28,398,648	33,804,097

The above shows an increase for seven months, exclusive of specie, of \$5,405,449 as compared with the corresponding period of last year; \$5,519,436 as compared with the same period of 1851; and \$8,466,853 as compared with 1850.

The great increase in exports, however, has been at the other ports, where, unfortunately, no monthly record is made up, which can be used for comparison. The returns are made quarterly, and then only after the lapse of two or three months. Enough is known, however, to show a large increase in the quantity and value of domestic produce, and to quiet all fears among those not disposed to be captious about the "balance of trade."

The demand for breadstuffs from Great Britain and the continent continues, and although the prices have been somewhat variable, they have shown a general advance, and large fortunes have been made by many engaged in this trade. The following will show the clearances from New York of certain leading articles of domestic produce, from June 1st to August 20th:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JUNE 1ST TO AUGUST 20TH.

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
Ashes—pots.... bbls.	11,450	7,308	Naval stores.... bbls.	282,500	291,213
pearls.....	481	513	Oils, whale.... galls.	30,912	219,148
Beeswax..... lbs.	159,181	132,962	sperm.....	448,896	723,074
<i>Breadstuffs</i> —			lard.....	21,975	42,992
Wheat flour .. bbls.	856,588	957,361	linseed.....	9,731	6,547
Rye flour.....	7,883	1,501	<i>Provisions</i> —		
Corn meal.....	33,076	28,770	Pork..... bbls.	25,697	46,458
Wheat..... bush.	1,072,762	2,301,077	Beef.....	34,866	34,273
Rye.....	236,460	Cut meats.... lbs.	1,190,302	6,927,865
Oats.....	8,053	43,287	Butter.....	449,754	1,116,020
Barley.....	367	Cheese.....	551,456	2,628,688
Corn.....	700,800	590,556	Lard.....	2,518,131	4,720,782
Candles, mold. boxes	40,370	33,698	Rice..... tics.	22,378	13,407
sperm.....	2,669	3,330	Tallow..... lbs.	271,570	2,278,897
Coal..... tons	26,431	21,775	Tobacco, crude... pkgs.	16,887	13,908
Cotton..... bales	273,051	192,549	Do., manufactured. lbs.	2,583,799	4,015,823
Hay.....	6,393	3,405	Whalebone.....	577,636	2,353,590
Hops.....	482	272			

It will be seen that there has been a large increase in the exports of breadstuffs, and many other articles of produce. How far this demand for our cereals is to be extended beyond the harvest now ingathering abroad, is not yet fully decided; but considerable engagements, both of wheat and flour, to France and Great Britain, have been made, extending into October. At one time, it was thought that the old times of 1846-7 were to be realized again, and "famine" prices obtained for all of the principal articles of food; but this is given up, and less extravagant expectations are now cherished. There can be no doubt, however, but what the total exports of articles of food from the United States will far exceed any year since 1849. The following comparison, which we have carefully compiled from official sources, will be not without interest in this connection:—

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATE OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FOR
THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH.

	Breadstuffs and Provisions.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Rice.
1846	\$27,701,121	\$42,767,341	\$8,478,270	\$2,564,991
1847	68,701,921	53,415,848	7,242,086	3,605,896
1848	37,472,752	61,998,294	7,551,122	2,331,824
1849	38,155,507	66,396,967	5,804,207	2,569,362
1850	26,051,373	71,984,616	9,951,023	2,631,557
1851	21,948,651	112,315,317	9,219,251	2,170,927
1852	25,857,027	87,965,732	10,051,283	2,470,029

The highest average cost of breadstuffs was in 1847. The highest average of cotton was in 1851, when it reached 12 11-100 cents per lb.; the lowest average was in 1849, when the largest number of pounds (except in 1853) was exported, and the price for the whole year averaged only 6 4-10 cents per lb. In tobacco, the highest was \$96 09 per hhd. in 1851, and the lowest \$53 34 in 1847. In rice, the highest was \$24 97 per tre. in 1847; and the lowest \$19 94 in 1849. The high comparative prices of wheat over flour have induced the farmers in the interior to send their wheat to the seaboard instead of selling it to the millers, and this may tell upon the price of flour.

The numerous and fatal accidents upon the various railroad lines throughout the country have tended to limit the travel, otherwise the receipts from this source would have been larger than ever before known. Even with the limitation, the pleasure travel has been very large, and with the additional receipts from an active freighting business, most of the lines are doing very well, and must pay unusually large dividends.

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REVENUE AND EXPENDITURES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The following are the annual returns of revenue and expenditure for the years 1852 and 1853:—

	Year ending July 5.		Quarter ending July 5.	
	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.
Customs	£19,011,774	£18,954,362	£4,502,164	£4,943,337
Excise	13,206,404	13,737,599	3,443,516	3,795,617
Stamps	6,002,860	6,477,347	1,626,826	1,675,148
Taxes	3,149,702	3,201,047	1,503,707	1,510,483
Property tax	5,363,919	5,589,079	1,056,991	1,053,027
Post-office	1,041,000	1,066,000	230,000	251,000
Crown lands	220,000	392,888	60,000	200,888
Miscellaneous	302,948	159,862	202,189	90,537
Ordinary revenue.....	48,298,598	49,578,184	12,625,393	13,510,037
Imprest and other moneys.	595,004	758,789	212,688	253,759
Repayment of advances...	842,886	1,322,469	216,652	424,573
Total income.....	49,736,488	51,659,442	13,054,733	14,201,369
Applied to consolid'ed fund	29,468,628	27,209,735	7,620,984	5,239,935
The amount applied as adv.	1,163,179	1,985,628	826,343	999,027
Applied as ways and mea's.	19,104,681	22,464,079	5,107,406	7,962,407
	£49,736,488	£51,659,442	£13,054,733	£14,201,369

A comparison of the table shows the following results:—

	Year ending July 5. 1853.		Quarter ending July, 5. 1853.	
	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.
Customs	£57,412	£141,173
Excise	£531,195	352,101
Stamps	474,487	48,322
Taxes	51,345	6,776
Property tax	225,169	£3,964
Post office	25,000	21,000
Crown lands	172,888	140,888
Miscellaneous	143,086	111,652
Ordinary revenue	1,489,084	200,498	1,101,260	115,616
Impre t and other moneys	163,785	44,071
Repayments of advances	479,533	207,921
Total	2,123,452	200,498	1,262,253	115,616
Deduct decrease	200,498	115,616
Increase	£1,922,954		£1,146,636	

The *London News* in publishing the foregoing tables, says:—

“Deducting the £3,964 deficiency under property tax, and the larger item that comes under the heading of miscellaneous, and we have the remarkable fact of an increase on the quarter's revenue of no less a sum than £1,146,636. This large total is doubly welcome when we come to note carefully the sources whence it is derived, and to remember the indications thence arising. First, we have a sum approaching half an extra million derived from customs, and telling a story of increased power of consumption by the people, of tea, sugar, and other foreign products. Next, we have still more certain indication of a comfortable population—the extended demand for exciseable articles. The growth of revenue under this heading is seen to amount to something over a third of a million sterling on the three months! Notwithstanding the pending change in our stamp law—for pending changes always check consumption—we see the activity of business indicated by an increased revenue on stamps to the tune of £48,322; the post office, the crown lands, and “repayments,” coming in to make up the remarkable and eminently satisfactory sum total. So much for the quarter.

On the year ending yesterday we find a similar result, told in equally satisfactory, though different figures. For the twelve months the headings preserve the relation of eight for increase, and only two for the reverse.

After all the amelioration of our fiscal system, to find the national exchequer flourishing after this fashion, surely encourages men of all parties—but especially the reformers to whose exertions all these changes are due—to persist in their wise determination not to rest until our system of taxation is so adjusted, as to press as lightly as possible on the energies of industrious people, whilst supplying all that may be really needful for the national service, or really necessary for the honor and dignity of the country. The total surplus on the year approaches two millions sterling.

This English balance-sheet may well be taken to illustrate the result sure to follow the steps of a nation that grows up in intelligence, industry, and freedom. Where men are permitted full scope for their industry, and safe enjoyments of its fruits, national wealth is sure to accumulate, and national spirit and power to increase.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following statement of the condition of the banks in the several States named, has been copied with care from the official returns at the Treasury Department, and embraces all that have been received up to this date. No returns have been made from any of the banks in Pennsylvania; and those received from the States of Delaware, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee, include only a part of the banks in those States. There are no banks legally existing in the States of Illinois, Texas, Florida, California, Iowa, and Wisconsin; and the banks in Arkansas are in a state of liquidation:—

STATEMENT IN GENERAL OF THE CONDITION OF SUCH OF THE BANKS OF DIFFERENT STATES OF THE UNITED STATES AS HAVE REPORTED TO NEAR
1ST OF JANUARY, 1853.

State.	1852. Date of Report.	No. of Banks.	Capital.	Loans and Dis- counts.	Stocks.	Real Estate.	Other Investments.	Due by other Banks.
Maine, June.....		39	\$3,923,000 00	\$7,042,461 37	\$118,523 22	\$956,489 00
Vermont, October.....		32	2,721,168 00	5,571,524 92	63,098 52	101,086 69	\$15,996 50	1,104,862 57
N. Hampshire, September.....		31	3,076,000 00	5,567,464 00	56,482 00
Massachusetts, September.....		137	43,270,500 00	77,172,079 03	1,090,463 09	6,666,412 15
Rhode Island, September.....		71	14,037,441 00	18,737,093 51	115,833 00	258,923 12	22,757 10	948,313 91
Connecticut, April.....		51	12,509,807 39	20,572,263 47	326,714 68	418,232 08	5,283 25	2,540,700 00
New York, September.....		277	62,207,216 00	130,124,403 00	20,950,230 00	4,262,480 00	\$,623,583 00	13,800,955 00
New Jersey, (reported in full).....		...	4,325,115 00	8,389,262 90	636,416 22	254,387 29	569,372 55
Pennsylvania, (no report).....	
Delaware, Oct. to Jan., (p'tly reported)	610,000 00	1,359,501 38	50 00	37,896 59	2,071 69	188,070 32
Maryland, Oct. to Jan., (p'tly reported)	8,064,730 00	15,135,587 79	683,512 08	328,813 78	21,937 66	1,991,902 63
Virginia, December, (in full).....		...	10,583,000 00	21,784,357 93	740,949 68	752,674 43	126,493 71	2,198,304 68
North Carolina, (partially).....		...	3,605,000 00	7,126,008 96	150,000 00	122,905 54	3,994 56	414,520 55
South Carolina, ".....		...	9,825,485 73	17,970,341 77	1,487,785 50	303,801 55	1,076,262 40	1,061,221 60
Georgia, ".....		...	3,810,000 00	7,088,252 09	421,193 51	245,839 52	66,684 02	1,655,758 41
Alabama, ".....		...	2,000,000 00	4,876,031 44	329,276 79	66,371 48	38,479 22	698,296 43
Louisiana, (in full).....		...	10,834,130 00	17,038,359 40	5,742,394 14	1,340,463 79	1,149,015 07	2,438,219 04
Tennessee, (partially).....		...	3,460,114 00	7,207,491 70	120,985 19	289,191 66	143,543 71	1,182,524 58
Kentucky, (in full).....		...	7,685,700 00	14,088,798 04	295,903 95	354,390 55	12,023 13	3,330,772 48
Mississippi, ".....		...	132,726 98	160,746 19	13,052 64	10,070 87	5,943 65
Indiana, Nov., (1 bank, 13 branches in full).....		...	2,033,007 44	4,249,994 43	108,485 00	319,448 18	207,803 40	1,432,292 98
Ohio, Nov., (in full).....		...	7,115,011 00	16,787,252 39	2,803,438 48	432,569 48	851,234 14	4,331,741 98
Michigan, ".....		...	665,863 00	1,416,328 13	508,678 11	129,520 25	43,751 66	276,455 55
Missouri, Dec., (1 bank, 5 branches in full).....		...	1,210,622 69	3,109,559 65	51,872 19	122,869 65	48,028 88	114,557 37
Total.....			\$217,831,179 83	\$414,266,394 49	\$35,453,259 68	\$297,375 80	\$1,558,794 10	\$47,905,686 43

STATEMENT OF THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES—CONTINUED.

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	Notes of other Banks.	Specie Funds.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due by other Banks.	Other Liabilities.
Maine.....	\$224,363 00	\$622,300 00	\$3,254,882 00	\$1,525,627 00	\$93,456 00
Vermont.....	168,685 50	96,450 58	176,379 66	3,779,131 75	872,420 72	31,171 83
New Hampshire.....	120,929 00	771,190 00	175,156 00	2,625,707 00	743,856 00
Massachusetts.....	5,340,162 06	3,543,782 52	21,172,360 75	15,067,204 22	8,608,238 01	\$474,051 78
Rhode Island.....	726,039 77	414,970 02	3,322,314 26	2,174,883 75	892,108 38
Connecticut.....	316,668 09	172,697 16	825,379 20	7,118,625 06	3,472,210 63	642,637 65	1,423,419 75
New York.....	15,840,540 00	13,032,961 00	9,993,815 00	29,934,657 00	66,897,497 00	28,796,332 00	5,084,011 00
New Jersey.....	877,507 74	3,126,083 50	2,824,480 51	433,230 85
Pennsylvania.....
Delaware.....	177,224 07	205,555 38	470,440 00	315,795 70	55,138 66	158,995 07
Maryland.....	1,100,380 65	127,143 94	2,838,071 09	4,254,412 27	7,282,355 13	1,676,361 53	131,734 65
Virginia.....	820,266 23	3,238,874 98	12,020,378 41	5,191,297 46	450,331 75	1,416,214 02
North Carolina.....	354,870 58	1,358,545 73	4,276,978 50	990,130 67	104,364 18	584,322 57
South Carolina.....	544,083 01	1,669,550 13	7,050,573 12	5,319,219 51	764,916 11	1,125,651 49
Georgia.....	334,844 48	1,443,714 78	4,201,604 50	1,639,354 11	673,029 56	931,898 64
Alabama.....	227,670 00	1,175,107 24	2,763,015 00	2,268,398 56	35,288 96	343,520 08
Louisiana.....	1,149,336 32	5,946,990 63	4,409,271 04	10,555,849 66	810,454 16	8,098,377 26
Tennessee.....	278,576 53	972,034 26	4,879,196 00	1,364,693 79	199,513 41	290,921 43
Kentucky.....	532,214 41	3,634,043 35	8,889,101 00	2,456,267 81	2,060,923 23	1,269,160 77
Mississippi.....	19,211 06	49,925 00	12,428 92	2,721 75	1,222 06
Indiana.....	554,754 00	8,378 44	1,308,933 38	3,907,571 00	868,066 14	108,392 77	357,863 92
Ohio.....	2,072,560 10	96,123 13	2,631,319 66	11,373,210 50	7,440,650 12	3,166,879 04	138,487 16
Michigan.....	110,417 62	197,294 92	861,140 00	579,969 14	68,084 15	182,382 15
Missouri.....	301,570 00	8,581 31	1,253,311 96	2,427,720 00	1,073,138 95	150,995 00
Total.....	\$142,185 32	\$14,343,525 56	\$44,732,558 60	\$145,468,097 66	\$22,400,830 79	\$50,619,668 98	\$322,547,958

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF OHIO.

Below we publish a statement of the condition of the banks in Ohio, as per returns made to the office of the Auditor of State, to the first Monday in May, 1853.

ELEVEN INDEPENDENT BANKS.

RESOURCES.		LIABILITIES.	
Notes and bills discounted.	\$2,192,080 87	Capital stock.....	\$669,380 00
Specie.....	198,471 35	Circulation.....	911,748 00
Notes of other banks....	199,342 58	Safety fund.....	1,017,323 67
Due from banks and ban'rs	128,012 82	Due banks and bankers...	156,978 94
Eastern deposits.....	227,502 29	Due depositors.....	1,368,250 46
Cash items.....	87,081 99	Surplus fund.....	57,075 91
Bonds deposited.....	1,040,081 99	Bills payable.....	70,196 04
Real and personal prop'ty	94,827 66	Discount, Interest, etc....	12,969 88
Other resources.....	193,550 45	Dividends unpaid.....	6,475 00
		Other liabilities.....	35,509 10
Total resources.....	\$4,805,852 00	Total liabilities.....	\$4,305,852 00

THIRTY-NINE BRANCHES STATE BANK.

RESOURCES.		LIABILITIES.	
Notes and bills discounted.	\$11,525,477 85	Capital stock.....	\$4,421,675 00
Specie.....	1,725,298 12	Circulation.....	8,006,420 50
Notes of other banks....	826,566 36	Safety fund.....	71,912 80
Due from banks & bank'rs.	814,199 45	Due banks and bankers..	496,988 67
Eastern deposits.....	1,292,556 65	Due depositors.....	3,985,397 02
Cash items.....	83,030 80	Surplus fund.....	339,345 20
Safety fund.....	874,935 64	Bills payable.....	157,525 95
Real and personal prop'ty.	146,870 91	Discount, interest, etc....	2,141 80
Other resources.....	446,780 35	Dividends unpaid.....	152,132 75
		Other liabilities.....	103,176 44
Total resources.....	\$17,725,716 13	Total liabilities.....	\$17,735,716 13

FIVE OLD CHARTERED BANKS.

RESOURCES.		LIABILITIES.	
Notes and bills discounted.	\$3,677,812 07	Capital stock.....	\$1,547,526 00
Specie.....	403,263 89	Circulation.....	1,524,654 00
Notes of other banks....	375,336 00	Due banks and bankers...	1,150,835 65
Due from banks & bankers..	218,432 47	Due depositors.....	1,054,239 21
Eastern deposits.....	593,540 75	Surplus fund.....	306,549 48
Cash items.....	112 87	Bills payable.....	6,647 66
Real and personal prop'ty..	115,518 03	Discounts, Interest, etc....	56,186 84
Other resources.....	314,481 17	Dividends unpaid.....	1,845 00
		Other liabilities.....	50,103 11
Total Resources.....	\$5,698,497 25	Total liabilities.....	\$5,698,497 25

THIRTEEN FREE BANKS.

RESOURCES.		LIABILITIES.	
Notes and bills discounted.	\$1,363,001 33	Capital stock.....	\$659,340 00
Specie.....	154,754 94	Circulation.....	803,135 00
Notes of other banks....	251,593 35	Safety fund.....	267,481 00
Due from banks & bankers.	253,085 66	Due banks and bankers...	131,000 90
Eastern deposits.....	224,112 92	Due depositors.....	1,186,931 86
Cash items.....	18,422 69	Surplus fund.....	15,827 24
Bonds deposited.....	882,028 67	Bills Payable.....	65,572 60
Real & personal property..	22,969 00	Discount, interest, etc....	6,610 12
Other resources.....	3,397 66	Dividends unpaid.....	34,912 50
		Other liabilities.....	2,555 00
Total resources.....	\$3,173,366 22	Total liabilities.....	\$3,173,366 22

INSURANCE COMPANIES IN NEW YORK.

It is a matter of public congratulation that Insurance, Fire, Marine, and Life, says the *Wall-street Journal*, is not neglected. The premium on a house or ship and cargo should be reserved as the most indispensable of the charges to be paid on the property. If there are any men so rich that they can afford to be their own insurers, let them do it in a round-about way by taking sufficient scrip in the companies where they pay premiums to receive a share in the profits of the business. Thus while they lose nothing, their money helps to form a proper basis for the protection of their poorer neighbors. Capital is, however, a secondary matter in respect to insurance; if risks are properly taken, the profits of the business will secure the company against loss. We believe that this is the case generally, and that the business is conducted carefully, that risks are divided properly, and a margin left so as to secure at once a profit to the company and a complete protection to the insured. Last year the dividends of the insurance companies of New York city amounted to fourteen millions of dollars—a sum showing at least 1,500 millions of dollars of insurable values protected by these companies, and securing every owner from loss and ruin by the payment merely of his own share of the total loss accruing on so vast an extent of property. The dividends of the various companies varied from 15 per cent to 40 per cent, and the average was about 27 per cent.

The business of individual companies is now, by means of agencies, widely extended, and if our New York companies find here rivals, they in turn by the same means are enabled to scatter their risks over the country. The business men of this city have pursued the proper policy in allying themselves to the management of these companies, and their names are a pledge well recognized in every part of the continent where New York merchants are known, that the insured will be treated liberally and paid promptly in case of a loss.

Below will be found a list of the companies and agencies doing business in New York, with their capitals. It will be seen that the total of the capitals of the foreign companies is swelled by the large capital of the two English companies, each having \$10,000,000. Among the Mutual companies, both Fire and Marine, are some with large accumulations.

FIRE COMPANIES.

NEW YORK AND BROOKLYN.		FOREIGN AND COUNTRY.	
Name.	Capital.	Name.	Capital.
Etna	\$200,000	Merchants, Louisville	\$175,000
Alliance	300,000	Merchants, Boston	500,000
Astor	150,000	Merchants, Providence	150,000
Atlantic	188,000	Mohawk Valley, Amsterdam, New York	200,000
Beekman	200,000	M. hawk Valley, Schenectady, New York	175,000
Bowery	300,000	National, Boston	500,000
Broadway	200,000	National Protec., Saratoga Springs	200,000
Brooklyn	102,000	Neptune, Boston	300,000
Citizens	150,000	N. Y. Farmers, Utica	200,000
City	210,000	N. Y. Union, Johnston.	200,000
Clinton	200,000	N. Y. Western, Oswego	150,000
Columbia	200,000	Norwich, Conn.	150,000
Commercial	260,000	Peoples, Kingston, N. Y.	110,000
Commercial	Mutual	Poughkeepsie, Poughkeepsie.	125,000
Continental	500,000	Etna, Hartford	300,000
Corn Exchange	200,000	Etna, Utica	175,000
Grocers	200,000	Albany, Albany	200,000
Hamilton	150,000	Do. Mutual, do.	200,000
Hanover	150,000	Alliance, Boston	300,000
Home	Mutual	American	300,000
Howard	250,000	American, Providence	150,000
Rudson River	350,000	American, Utica	150,000
Irving	200,000	American, Mutual, Amster- dam, N. Y.	200,000
Jefferson	200,000	Augusta Ins. & B. Co., Au- gusta, Ga.	\$75,000
Knickerbocker	280,000		
Lafarge	150,000		
Lenox	150,000		
Lorillard	200,000		
Manhattan	250,000		

Market	\$200,000	Boylston, Boston	\$300,000
Mechanics & Traders.....	200,000	Columbia, Columbia, S. C....	150,000
Mercantile	200,000	Commercial, Charleston.....	300,000
Nassau	150,000	Commercial, Hartford.....	200,000
National	150,000	Hartford, Hartford.....	150,000
New Amsterdam.....	200,000	Ins. Co. N. Am., Philadel. ...	500,000
New York City	500,000	Knickerbocker, Waterford...	150,000
Equitable	210,000	Manufacturers, Boston	400,000
N. Y. Fire & Marine	200,000	Protection, Hartford.....	300,000
Niagara	200,000	Rensselaer, Lansingburg.....	200,000
North America.....	250,000	Rochester, Rochester	200,000
North River.....	350,000	Roger Williams, Providence .	150,000
Pacific	200,000	Liverpool & London	10,000,000
Park	200,000	Royal Liverpool & London ..	10,000,000
Peoples	150,000	Springfield, Mass.....	150,000
Peter Cooper	150,000	State Mutual, Phila.....	350,000
Republic	150,000	Warren, Boston.....	150,000
St. Nicholas	150,000	Washington, Providence	200,000
Stuyvesant.....	200,000		
Sun	Mutual		
Union Mutual	750,000		
United States.....	250,000		
Washington.....	200,000		
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	\$12,740,000		\$29,335,000

LIFE COMPANIES.

Farmers' Loan and Trust Co. \$2,000,000	Etna, Hartford	Mutual
Howard..... 110,000	Albion, London & N. Y.....	\$5,000,000
Knickerbocker	Am. Mutual, N. H.	125,000
Manhattan	British Commercial	3,000,000
Mutual	Connecticut Mutual	1,700,000
New York Life..... 636,000	Hartford Life.....	100,000
New York Life & Trust..... 1,000,000	Mutual Benefit, Newark.....	1,559,000
United States	National Loan Fund, London.	2,500,000
	New England Mutual	600,000
	Union Mutual	400,000
	United States, Philadel.....	250,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$6,046,000	\$14,234,000

MARINE.

Astor Mutual	\$653,000	Delaware Mutual, Phila.	\$500,000
Atlantic Mutual	1,000,000	Falls City, Louisville.....	150,000
Atlas Mutual.....	300,000	Hudson River, Crescent, N. Y.	350,000
General Mutual.....	504,000	Phenix Mutual.....	300,000
New York Mutual	872,000	Union Mutual	380,000
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	\$3,329,000		\$1,680,000

RECAPITULATION.

New York Fire Companies	\$12,740,000
Foreign and Country Fire do.	29,335,000
New York Life	6,046,000
Foreign Life.....	14,234,000
New York Marine	3,329,000
Foreign and Country Marine	1,680,000
	<hr/>
	\$67,864,000

THE PURCHASE OF SILVER BY THE UNITED STATES MINT.

The Director of the United States Mint at Philadelphia has issued the following circular touching the plan of purchasing silver:—

MINT OF THE UNITED STATES, }
PHILADELPHIA, July 27, 1853. }

The Director of the Mint gives notice, that from and after the 15th day of August next, payments for silver purchased for the Mint at Philadelphia, and at the Branch Mint, New Orleans, will be made three-fourths in silver coin of the new emission, and one-fourth in gold. In accordance with existing arrangements the whole price will be advanced in the first instance in gold, and as the new coin is ready for issue it will be paid out, in the proportions specified, in exchange for gold returned by the parties selling silver, and in the order of their priority of sales.

At the New Orleans Branch Mint an option is reserved to substitute, partially or entirely, drafts on the Assistant Treasurer at New York, for the gold otherwise payable for silver purchased.

The present prices of silver, which will be continued until further notice, are as follows:—

For dollars of Mexico, Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and Spain; for francs, and for silver coin of the United States, other than the three cents.—\$1 21 an ounce.

For thalers of Sweden, and of the Northern States of Germany, \$1 01 an ounce gross.

For silver in bars, for mixed coins, and for other silver coins not herein specified, \$1 21 for each ounce at standard fineness (nine-tenths) as determined on assay at the Mint.

JAMES ROSS SNOWDEN, Director.

CONDITION OF THE PLANTERS' BANK OF TENNESSEE.

O. EWING, Esq., the Cashier of this Bank, has forwarded to the Editor of this Magazine the subjoined official statement of the condition of the Bank and branches, on the 1st of July, 1853, as follows:—

ASSETS.		
Notes discounted	\$1,248,569 86	
Domestic bills of exchange	1,330,134 46	
Suspended debt	65,644 58	
Real Estate.....	187,673 56	
		2,832,022 46
Tennessee State bonds, \$108,750, cost.....		92,569 39
Stocks.....		4,450 00
Due from Northern Banks.....	583,920 16	
Due from Southern Banks.....	443,736 57	
Due from Tennessee Banks.....	52,421 20	
		1,080,077 93
Cash on hand, viz., notes of other banks	72,214 00	
“ “ gold and silver	523,742 36	
		595,956 36
		\$4,605,076 14
LIABILITIES.		
Capital stock.....	\$2,248,300	
Less Amount owned by the bank	739,500	
		1,508,800 00
Profit and loss. (surplus after paying dividend.....		192,050 66
Dividend unclaimed.....	1,745	
Dividend declared July 1, 1853.....	60,352	
		62,097 00
Due to banks		5,667 45
Due to depositors.....		646,183 03
Circulation		2,190,278 00
		\$4,605,076 14

O. EWING, Cashier.

Showing an excess of resources over liabilities, of \$1,430,239. The total amount lying over under protest in bank, on the 1st of July, 1853, was \$40,080. The quarterly examination of the cash assets of the Bank, shows that everything in that important department is correct and satisfactory.

The stock of the Bank is held by 1,075 proprietors, who are classed as follows:— By individuals in their own right \$1,932,200; by guardians, executors, trustees, &c., \$220,400; banks and other corporate bodies \$1,008,200; total capital \$3,160,800. The President says:—

“The business of the year has generally been safe and regular. With but few exceptions, all obligations held by the bank have been punctually paid at their maturity. In the foreign exchange and discount departments, not a bill or note lies over. The exchanges this year have generally yielded but small returns of profit on the amount of capital employed in them; which may mainly be attributed to the very great competition and consequent equalization of values in the different markets, where we are accustomed to deal.”

A summary furnishes some idea of the various transactions of the bank, and to what extent it has offered facilities to its customers and the community, in supplying the current demands of trade during the year. From this summary we learn that the bills and notes discounted amounted to \$14,077,144; amount of domestic exchange purchased \$11,859,436; amount of foreign exchange purchased \$3,305,249; making a total of \$29,241,829. The amount of exchanges sold in checks and credits on the North and elsewhere was \$11,973,988; and in bills on England and France \$2,903,107, showing a total amount of business transacted of \$44,118,909. We subjoin a list of the present officers and directors of the Bank, viz:—

A. G. Rose, President; J. K. Sass, Cashier; John Cheesborough, Assistant Cashier; H. Gourdin, Ker Boyce, L. M. Wiley, G. A. Trenholm, Wm. Bull Pringle, Wm. H. Gililand, Alexander Robertson, J. S. Bowie, Charles T. Lowndes, T. L. Wragg, W. C. Courtney, J. K. Sass, Directors.

SUPPLEMENTAL BANKING LAW OF ILLINOIS.

We give below the several sections of “An act supplemental to, and explanatory of an act entitled An act to establish a general system of banking, and to prevent the issuing and circulating of illegal currency.”

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the people of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly,* That the act to which this is supplementary shall be so construed, that no person or persons shall become incorporated under said act until he, she, or they, shall first have deposited with the auditor United States stocks or State stocks, as required by said act, so that the capital stock of said incorporation shall amount, in such United States stocks or State stocks, at the rate and value fixed by said act, to the sum of fifty thousand dollars; and at no period during the existence of said bank shall the said capital stock of the same, in stocks deposited as aforesaid, be less than the sum of fifty thousand dollars.

SEC. 2. No bank, banking association, corporation, broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, or other person, shall emit, issue, utter, pay out, pass, or receive in payment or on deposit, any bill of credit, bond, promissory note, bill of exchange, order, draft, certificate of deposit, written instrument, or instrument partly written and partly printed, to be used as a general circulating medium, as or in lieu of money, or other currency, or intended by the makers thereof to be so used, other than the bills or notes of banks of this State, countersigned in the auditor's office, according to the provisions of the act to establish a general system of banking, or the notes or bills, (of a denomination not less than five dollars,) of specie-paying banks, created by an express authority of law, in either of the United States, Territories, the District of Columbia, or Canada. Every bank, banking association, corporation, broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, or other person, who shall violate the provisions of this section, shall forfeit and pay to any person or per-

sons, who may sue for the same, the sum of fifty dollars for each and every bill of credit, bond, promissory note, bill of exchange, order, draft, certificate of deposit, or other instrument, so issued, uttered, paid out, passed, or received, contrary to the provisions of this section, to be recovered in an action of debt before any justice, magistrate, or court, having jurisdiction to the amount claimed in any such suit.

SEC. 3. In addition to the penalties in the foregoing section, every broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, and every officer, agent, or employee, of any bank, banking association, corporation, broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, who shall offend against the provisions of this act, shall, for every bill, bond, note, order, certificate of deposit, or other instrument or piece of paper emitted, issued, uttered, paid out, passed or received, contrary to the provisions of this act, be liable to be indicted, and, on conviction, shall be imprisoned in the county jail not more than one year. It shall not be necessary in any indictment, suit, or prosecution, under the provisions of this act, to specify or particularize any particular bill, note, bond, order, certificate of deposit, or other instrument, but it shall be sufficient to allege generally that the defendant or defendants have been guilty of violating the provisions of this act by uttering, emitting, paying out, passing or receiving, as the case may be, any such bill, note, bond, order, certificate of deposit, or other instrument, of the character or description which by this act are forbidden or prohibited to be issued, passed, or received, and proof of such general nature shall be sufficient to sustain such indictment, suit, or prosecution.

SEC. 4. Whenever it shall be represented to any one of the bank commissioners, upon the oath or affirmation of any creditable person, setting forth the facts, or whenever, from any information, any one of the said commissioners shall have reason to believe that any bank, corporation, broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, or any officer, clerk, agent, or other employee, of any such bank, corporation, broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, shall have been guilty of any violation of the provisions of this act, it shall be the duty of such commissioner forthwith to proceed to the said bank, or place of business of such bank, corporation, broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, officer, clerk, agent, or employee, and then and there to inquire, by the oaths of the said broker, banker, dealer, officer, clerk, agent, or employee, or other testimony, whether the said bank, corporation, banker, broker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, officer, clerk, agent, or employee, have been guilty of any violation of this act. The said bank commissioner shall have full power and authority to issue subpoenas and attachments, to compel the attendance of witnesses before him, from any part of the State, and shall also have power and authority to administer all oaths and affirmations to parties, witnesses, or others, required to be administered or taken by this act. He shall reduce the said evidence and answers to writing, and report to the other bank commissioners, and also to the State's attorney for the judicial circuit in which the said bank or other corporation, or the place of business of any such broker, banker, dealer, officer, clerk, agent, or other employee, may be situated, and if the said commissioner shall be of opinion that any such banker, broker, dealer, officer, agent, or employee, has been guilty of any violation of the provisions of this act, he shall make complaint before some judge, justice of the peace, or other proper officer, and the said judge, justice of the peace, or other officer, shall proceed against the person or persons named in said complaints, in all respects, as provided by the eighteenth division of chapter thirty of Revised Statutes, entitled "Criminal Jurisprudence;" and, for the purpose of compelling the attendance of witnesses, may issue subpoenas and attachments to any part of the State: provided, that no answer made by any broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, officer, clerk, agent, or employee, or any other person, upon any examination made by or before any bank commissioner, judge, or justice of the peace, or other officer, touching any violation of this act, shall be given in evidence against him, her, or them, on the trial of any indictment, suit, or prosecution, for the recovery of any penalty or forfeiture imposed or provided for by this act, or in any other writ or legal proceeding whatever.

SEC. 5. In case the bank commissioners, or a majority of them, shall be satisfied that any bank, corporation, broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, or such officer, agent, clerk, or employee, has been guilty of any violation of the provisions of this act, they shall immediately apply to some judge of a circuit or supreme court for a writ of injunction against such bank, corporation, broker, banker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, such officer, clerk, agent, or employee, forbidding or restraining him or them from violating any of the provis-

ions of this act; and such judge, after reasonable notice given to such bank, corporation, banker, broker, dealer in money, produce, or foreign merchandise, such officer, clerk, agent, or employee, shall proceed without delay to investigate the questions involved in such application, and shall have power to compel the production of all books, papers, vouchers, and documents, in the possession of the defendant or defendants, or to cause and require answers, on oath, from such defendant or defendants, which answers shall not be evidence on the trial of any other action or suit in law or equity; and if, upon such examination, he shall be of opinion that any of the provisions of this act have been violated, he shall issue such writ or injunction and enforce the same, in case it shall be disregarded, according to the practice of the courts of chancery; and such further proceedings shall be had upon such application, in the circuit court of the county where the office or place of business of such bank, corporation, broker, banker, dealer, officer, clerk, agent, or employee, may be situated, as may be necessary to enforce the provisions of this act. And if it shall be finally determined by the judge or court that any of the provisions of this act have been violated, it shall, by the order of the judge or court, be certified to the auditor, which shall be sufficient authority to him, and he shall proceed to put the said bank into liquidation, in the matter contemplated by this act and the act to which this is a supplement.

SEC. 6. The bank commissioners to be appointed under the provisions of the act to which this is a supplement, before entering upon the duties of their office, shall take and subscribe on oath or affirmation, faithfully and impartially to perform all the duties enjoined upon and required to be performed by them under the provisions of this act, and the act to which this is a supplement; which said oath or affirmation shall be filed in the office of the Secretary of State.

SEC. 7. Every payment made, in whole or in part, in any bill, note, bond, order, draft, certificate of deposit, or other instrument or paper, the passing, uttering, emitting, or use of which is prohibited by this act, shall be utterly null and void, and the persons or corporation to whom any such payment may have been made therein, may sue or recover upon the original contract or cause of action, in the same manner and with like effect as if no such payment had been made.

SEC. 8. No action shall be maintained in any court of this State upon any contract, expressed or implied, the consideration of which, in whole or in part, shall be any note, check, draft, or other instrument or paper, the use, receipt, or emission of which is prohibited by this act, but the same shall be adjudged to be utterly null and void.

SEC. 9. In all prosecutions and suits for the recovery of the penalties imposed for any violation of the provisions of this act, the person suing for the same, (notwithstanding he may be liable for, or may have given bond for the costs of such suit, or may be entitled to the said penalties when recovered), and the defendant or defendants shall be competent witnesses.

SEC. 10. This act to be in force and take effect from and after the first day of August, 1853.

GOLD—ITS INCREASE AND ITS EFFECT.

The Boston *Atlas*, (now edited by the Hon. CHARLES HUDSON, late naval officer at the port of Boston,) gives an able article on the increase of gold and the effect upon the Commerce and condition of the world. The editor says that since the working of the mines in California there has been a rapid increase of gold. Up to 1852, it has been estimated that the gold from California alone would amount to \$153,000,000. The total coined at the United States Mints in 1852 was \$52,240,000; and though a small portion of this may have been obtained from North Carolina and Georgia, and another small portion may have been a recoinage of foreign gold, yet it is believed that as large a quantity of California gold has been used in manufactures as all the coinage of foreign gold, added to what has been obtained from Carolina and Georgia. We will, however, drop the odd numbers, and set down the amount at \$52,000,000. The quantity of gold dust sent from California to Great Britain and other foreign countries during the same years, must have amounted to at least \$12,000,000—making the product of California for 1852, \$64,000,000. Some have estimated it much higher. From present appearances the quantity from California the present year will be increased rather than diminished. We will set it down at \$66,000,000. We will also suppose that Australia and Siberia will yield \$44,000,000 more; we shall then have an annual production of \$110,000,000 of gold, over and above the ordinary product from other parts of the world.

Of the effect he remarks:—"On a full view of the subject, we are inclined to the belief that there will be no very great decline in the value of the precious metals. The causes to which we have alluded will tend to counteract that downward tendency in the value of gold, which would otherwise result from the vast increase. But after making all reasonable allowance for the increased demand, the addition of \$100,000,000 to the precious metals can hardly fail to produce some effect upon their exchangeable value. As gold and silver are a lawful tender in the commercial world, and as the law fixes their value, that value must remain; that is to say, a dollar will remain a dollar, an eagle an eagle, a franc a franc, and a sovereign a sovereign. But though these coins retain the same nominal value, their exchangeable value may be reduced by the rise in the price of articles which they will purchase. Thus, if a quantity of goods or provisions, which can now be purchased for \$100, should rise to \$110, in consequence of the abundance of gold, this must be substantially the same in effect as though the gold had depreciated ten per cent."

REDEMPTION OF THE PUBLIC DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES.

With a view of reducing the public debt, the Secretary of the U. S. Treasury has issued the following notice, which, if it brings forward the stocks to the amount indicated, may affect the money market to some extent favorably:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT. July 30, 1853.

Notice is hereby given to the holders of the six per cent stock of the United States, of the loan authorized by the act of 28th January, 1847, and redeemable the 31st of December, 1867, and of the loan authorized by the act of 31st March, 1848, and redeemable 30th June, 1868, that this Department is prepared to purchase, at any time between the date hereof and the 1st day of December next, to the extent of the sum of five millions of dollars of the said stocks, in the manner and on the terms hereinafter mentioned, to wit:

In case of any contingent competition, within the amount stated, preference will be given in the order of time in which the said stocks may be offered. The certificates, duly assigned to the United States, must be transmitted to this Department; upon the receipt whereof a price will be paid, compounded of the following particulars:

1. The par value or amount specified in each certificate.
2. A premium on said amount of twenty-one per cent.
3. Interest on the par of the certificate from the 1st of July, 1853, to the date of receipt and settlement at the Treasury, with the allowance (for the money to reach the owner) of one day's interest in addition.

Payments for said stocks will be made in drafts of the Treasurer of the United States, on the Assistant Treasurer, at Boston, New York, or Philadelphia, as parties may indicate.

JAMES GUTHRIE,
Secretary of the Treasury.

PRODUCT OF THE PRECIOUS METALS IN 1852.

PRODUCT OF THE PRECIOUS METALS THROUGHOUT THE WORLD IN 1852.

	Silver.	Gold.	Total.
America	\$31,000,000	\$87,000,000	\$119,000,000
Australia	76,000,000	76,000,000
Europe	8,000,000	22,000,000	30,000,000
Asia	5,000,000	14,600,000	19,600,000
Africa, &c.	3,800,000	3,800,000
Total	\$44,000,000	\$204,400,000	\$248,400,000

The following statement will exhibit the annual product of the precious metals at different periods prior to the above:—

1492	\$250,000	1800	\$52,529,867
1500	3,000,000	1843	73,678,743
1600	11,000,000	1848	86,661,060
1700	23,000,000	1851	174,000,000

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury, transmitting a report from the Register of the Treasury, of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States, for the year ending June 30th, 1852, has at length made its appearance. By the act of 1850, it should have been printed and ready for "delivery on or before the first day of January next ensuing the close of the fiscal year to which the report relates." We give below the tabular statements of the report relating to Commerce.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE VALUE OF THE EXPORTS OF THE GROWTH, PRODUCE, AND MANUFACTURE OF THE UNITED STATES, DURING THE YEAR COMMENCING ON THE 1ST OF JULY, 1851, AND ENDING ON THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1852.

THE SEA.			
Fisheries— Oil, spermaceti..... Oil, whale and other fish. Whalebone..... Spermaceti candles.... Dried or smoked fish... Pickled fish.....	\$809,274 440,287 436,673 143,098 354,127 98,883	Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse..... Biscuit or ship bread... Potatoes..... Apples..... Rice..... Cotton..... Tobacco..... Hemp.....	334,471 318,899 115,121 43,635 2,471,029 87,965,732 10,031,283 18,649
THE FOREST.		\$2,282,342	
Wood— Staves, shingles, boards, hewed timber, etc.... Other lumber..... Masts and spars..... Oak bark and other dye. Manufactures of wood... Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, & turpentine... Ashes, pot and pearl... Ginseng..... Skins and furs.....	\$2,674,577 123,522 95,459 160,154 2,193,085 1,209,173 507,673 102,073 798,504	Other agricultural products— Flax seed..... Hops..... Brown sugar..... Indigo.....	56,187 69,042 24,057 910
		\$124,375,887	
MANUFACTURES.			
Of animals— Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle..... Butter and cheese..... Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs..... Horses and mules..... Sheep..... Wool..... Vegetable food— Wheat..... Flour..... Indian corn..... Indian meal..... Rye meal.....	\$1,500,429 779,391 3,765,470 247,550 16,291 14,308 2,555,209 11,869,143 1,540,225 574,330 64,476	Wax..... Refined sugar..... Chocolate..... Spirits from grain..... Spirits from molasses.... Molasses..... Vinegar..... Beer, ale, porter, & cider.. Linseed oil..... Spirits of turpentine.... Household furniture..... Coaches and other carriages Hats..... Saddlery..... Tallow candles and soap... Snuff and tobacco..... Leather, boots, & shoes... Cables and cordage..... Gunpowder..... Salt..... Lead..... Iron—pig, bar, and nails.. Castings..... All manufactures of...	\$91,499 149,921 3,267 48,737 323,949 13,163 12,220 48,052 14,981 137,856 430,132 172,445 80,453 47,937 660,054 1,316,622 428,708 62,903 121,580 89,316 32,725 118,624 191,388 1,993,807

Copper and brass, and manufactures of.....	\$103,039	Printing presses and type ..	\$47,781
Medical drugs.....	263,852	Musical instruments.....	67,733
Cotton piece goods—		Books and maps.....	217,809
Printed or colored	926,404	Paper and stationary	119,535
Uncolored	6,139,391	Paints and varnish.....	85,369
Cotton thread and yarn....	34,718	Glass	194,634
Cotton, all manufactures of.	571,638	Tin.....	23,420
Flax and hemp—		Pewter and lead.....	18,469
Cloth and thread	5,468	Marble and stone.....	57,240
Bags and other man'es of	8,154	Gold & silver & gold leaf .	20,332
Wearing apparel	250,228	Gold and silver coin.....	37,437,837
Earthen and stone ware....	18,310	Artificial flowers & jewelry.	114,738
Combs and buttons.....	28,833	Trunks	15,035
Brushes of all kinds.....	4,385	Brick and lime.....	13,539
Billiard tables and apparatus	1,088	Coal.....	188,906
Umbrellas, parasols, & sunshades	8,340	Ice	161,086
Morocco and other leather not sold by the pound ..	18,617	Articles not enumerated—	
Fire-engines & apparatus .	16,784	Manufactured	2,877,659
		Raw produce.....	1,195,775
		Total.....	\$192,368,984

VALUE OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF UNITED STATES TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY.

VALUE OF THE DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, AND TO DOMINIONS OF EACH FOREIGN POWER, DISTINGUISHING THE AMOUNT SHIPPED IN AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, FOR YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1852.

Whither exported	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To the dominions of each power.
Russia	\$860,478	\$201,270	\$1,061,748	\$1,061,748
Prussia.....	20,668	72,565	93,233	93,233
Sweden and Norway ..	367,571	365,275	732,846	823,648
Swedish West Indies...	82,034	8,768	90,802	
Denmark.....	5,548	87,461	93,009	903,448
Danish West Indies....	603,533	206,906	810,439	
Hanse Towns.....	1,591,166	4,604,761	6,195,927	6,195,927
Holland	1,438,611	854,237	2,292,848	
Dutch East Indies	142,172	825	142,997	2,819,476
Dutch West Indies....	271,737	27,942	299,679	
Dutch Guiana.....	83,952	83,952	3,202,767
Belgium.....	2,889,144	313,623	3,202,767	
England.....	62,764,957	45,023,700	107,788,657	123,341,750
Scotland.....	1,401,986	1,039,162	2,441,148	
Ireland.....	179,361	393,889	573,250	22,684,663
Hanover.....	5,906	5,906	
Gibraltar	163,556	65,746	229,302	4,004,963
Malta.....	79,134	17,213	96,347	
Cape of Good Hope....	186,008	38,228	224,236	2,650,134
British East Indies....	554,667	10,471	565,138	
Mauritius.....	11,520	11,520	2,650,134
Honduras.....	263,631	29,182	292,813	
British Guiana.....	593,585	148,701	742,286	196,554
British West Indies ...	2,498,767	1,013,366	3,512,133	
Canada	2,083,918	1,921,045	4,004,963	196,554
British American Colonies.	604,454	2,045,680	2,650,134	
Falkland Islands.....	7,363	7,363	20,793,878
Australia	196,554	196,554	
France on the Atlantic.	20,063,296	730,582	20,793,878	22,684,663
France on the Mediter'n.	1,281,600	114,592	1,396,192	
French West Indies....	305,916	123,930	428,946	64,747
French Guiana.....	64,747	64,747	

Whither exported.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	To each country.	To the dominions of each power.
Spain on the Atlantic..	215,321	282,993	489,314	10,263,839
Spain on the Mediter'an	260,800	2,457,704	2,718,504	
Teneriffe & of'r Canaries.	13,837	2,634	16,471	
Manilla & Philippine Is.	211,791	211,791	
Cuba.....	5,643,066	160,130	5,803,196	
Other Spanish W. Indies	881,714	133,849	1,015,563	
Portugal.....	181,323	52,741	234,064	
Madeira.....	66,115	21,817	87,932	
Fayal & other Azores..	12,975	4,791	17,766	
Cape de Verde Islands..	51,490	2,935	54,425	
Italy generally.....	1,161,344	412,508	1,573,852	1,573,852
Sicily.....	23,459	32,190	55,649	55,649
Sardinia.....	649,929	119,280	767,209	769,209
Tuscany.....	17,697	17,697	17,697
Trieste, &c.....	1,497,125	906,405	2,403,530	2,403,530
Turkey, Levant, &c....	265,825	265,825	265,825
Hayti.....	1,272,284	207,042	1,479,326	1,479,326
Mexico.....	1,290,908	115,464	1,406,372	1,406,372
Central Republic of A'a	365,121	21,015	386,136	386,136
New Grenada.....	1,281,383	16,853	1,298,236	1,298,236
Venezuela.....	680,647	45,377	726,024	726,024
Brazil.....	2,572,019	210,160	2,782,179	2,782,179
Cisplatine Republic...	98,260	82,896	181,156	181,156
Argentine Republic...	468,137	49,870	518,007	518,007
Bolivia.....	210,705	210,705	210,705
Peru.....	267,784	66,010	333,794	333,794
Chil.....	1,968,207	75,629	2,043,836	2,043,836
China.....	2,477,886	2,180	2,480,066	2,480,066
West Indies generally..	49,844	12,364	72,208	72,208
South America ge'erally	37,824	5,467	43,291	43,291
Asia generally.....	14,049	14,049	14,049
Africa generally.....	1,173,313	88,047	1,211,360	1,211,360
South Se's & Pacific Oc'n.	311,791	311,791	311,791
Total.....	\$127,340,547	\$65,028,437	\$192,368,984	\$192,368,984

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY.

VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM UNITED STATES TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, (FREE OF DUTY, AND PAYING DUTIES,) DISTINGUISHING THE AMOUNT SHIPPED IN AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1852.

Whither exported.	Free of duty	Paying duties ad valorem.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.
Russia.....	\$697	\$138,025	\$138,732	\$113,933	\$24,799
Prussia.....	153	153	153
Sweden and Norway..	2,414	22,908	25,322	518	24,804
Swedish West Indies..	613	1,380	1,993	1,948	45
Danish West Indies...	84,419	36,278	120,697	66,356	54,341
Denmark.....	16,807	5,836	22,643	18,934	3,709
Hanse Towns.....	248,580	432,450	681,030	284,513	396,517
Holland.....	3,179	201,502	204,681	68,245	136,436
Dutch East Indies.....	154,430	26,755	181,185	181,185
Dutch West Indies....	2,387	15,379	17,766	13,576	4,190
Dutch Guiana.....	39	7,243	7,282	7,282
Belgium.....	377,591	623,412	1,001,003	877,365	123,638
England.....	2,379,826	2,156,359	4,536,185	2,896,959	1,639,226
Scotland.....	230,635	230,635	176,015	54,620
Ireland.....	100	100	100
Gibraltar.....	17,830	31,277	49,157	41,801	7,356
Malta.....	8,868	8,907	16,975	8,420	8,555
British East Indies....	17,976	21,384	39,360	39,360

Whither exported.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.
Australia	75	11,638	11,713	11,713
Cape of Good Hope....	1,718	1,718	748	970
British Honduras	5,600	63,659	69,259	66,562	2,697
British Guiana	9,845	8,536	18,381	17,011	1,370
British West Indies....	8,820	71,136	79,956	56,800	23,156
British A. Colonies....	262,737	879,085	1,141,822	88,997	1,052,825
Other British Colonies..	3,996	3,966	2,065	1,901
Canada.....	1,104,549	1,607,548	2,712,097	1,753,631	958,466
France on the Atlantic.	1,474,958	246,483	1,721,441	1,655,712	65,729
France on the Mediter'n	48,936	30,198	79,134	72,958	6,176
French West Indies....	12,834	12,764	25,598	5,654	19,944
French Guiana.....	117	1,161	1,278	1,278
Spain on the Atlantic..	26,113	2,095	28,208	26,408	1,800
Spain on the Mediter'an	87,965	26,272	114,237	94,532	19,705
Teneriffe & o'er Canaries	45	45	45
Manilla.....	6,246	3,681	9,927	9,927
Cuba.....	380,382	333,973	714,355	708,155	6,200
Other Spanish W. Indies	5,301	34,241	39,542	32,999	6,543
Portugal	103	4,026	4,129	2,726	1,503
Madeira	7,000	480	7,480	7,000	480
Fayal & other Azores...	1,386	1,386	1,386
Cape de Verd Islands .	5,422	4,229	9,651	9,651
Italy.....	174,611	30,731	205,342	180,266	25,076
Sicily	5,191	5,699	10,890	9,627	1,263
Sardinia.....	29,108	13,178	42,286	42,286
Trieste, &c.....	228,756	101,133	329,889	91,800	238,089
Turkey, Levant, &c....	34,612	15,759	50,371	50,371
Hayti.....	7,651	231,926	239,577	222,973	16,604
Mexico.....	1,621	876,936	878,557	838,973	39,584
Central Republic of A'a	5,767	81,615	87,382	77,128	10,254
New Grenada.....	27,057	190,501	217,558	217,451	107
Venezuela.....	36,172	31,217	67,387	64,311	3,078
Brazil.....	132,963	105,900	238,863	208,110	30,753
Cisplatine Republic ...	5,532	6,385	11,917	1,195	10,722
Argentine Republic ...	258,417	22,693	281,110	275,121	5,989
Chili.....	35,443	259,854	295,297	220,954	74,343
Peru.....	640	21,408	22,048	16,235	5,813
China	19,728	163,383	183,111	183,111
Africa generally	8,240	26,541	34,781	34,781
South Seas.....	756	20,859	21,615	21,615
Falkland Islands.....	238	939	1,177	1,177
Total.....	7,774,457	9,514,925	17,289,382	12,136,390	5,152,992
Entitled to drawback...	1,562,673	1,562,673	1,292,762	269,911
Not entitled to drawback	7,774,457	1,096,482	8,870,939	6,159,827	2,711,112
From warehouse.....	6,855,770	6,855,770	4,683,801	2,171,969

VALUE OF IMPORTS FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY.

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO UNITED STATES FROM EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, FREE OF DUTY AND PAYING DUTIES, DISTINGUISHING THE AMOUNT IMPORTED IN FOREIGN AND AMERICAN VESSELS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1851.

Whence exported.	Free of duty.	Paying duties.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.
Russia	\$54,379	\$1,527,241	\$1,581,620	\$1,279,388	\$305,232
Prussia.....	75	21,188	21,263	21,263
Sweden and Norway...	705	774,743	775,448	229,670	545,778
Swedish West Indies...	3,229	1,055	4,284	3,782	502
Danish West Indies ...	10,775	180,970	191,745	168,953	22,792
Denmark.....	16,611	16,611	16,611

Whence exported.	Free of duty.	Paying duties.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.
Hanse Towns.....	100,709	8,070,702	8,171,411	3,584,022	4,587,389
Holland.....	267,193	1,368,368	1,635,561	700,771	934,790
Dutch East Indies....	746,250	269,744	1,015,994	933,227	82,767
Dutch West Indies....	165,983	386,578	552,561	506,728	45,833
Dutch Guiana.....	2,842	83,896	86,738	86,708	30
Belgium.....	17,000	2,037,043	2,054,043	1,494,105	559,938
England.....	2,890,932	85,228,927	88,119,859	58,382,915	29,736,944
Scotland.....	2,832	2,353,115	2,355,947	725,370	1,630,577
Ireland.....	2,987	149,546	152,533	25,643	126,890
Gibraltar.....	9,251	96,602	105,853	38,274	67,579
Malta.....	2,091	112,273	114,364	79,097	35,267
British East Indies....	178,017	4,047,024	4,222,041	3,967,920	257,121
Cape of Good Hope...	40	190,758	190,798	186,545	4,253
British Honduras....	38,399	223,247	261,646	222,766	38,880
British Guiana.....	25,290	18,653	43,943	43,122	821
British West Indies....	297,505	733,032	1,030,537	591,937	438,600
British A. Colonies....	218,718	1,301,612	1,520,330	184,534	1,335,796
Canada.....	761,571	3,828,398	4,589,969	2,278,603	2,311,366
France on the Atlantic.	850,605	23,345,309	24,195,914	22,922,707	1,273,207
France on the Mediter'n	3,252	1,691,100	1,694,352	961,318	733,034
French Guiana.....	7,435	24,987	32,422	32,422
French West Indies....	43,382	2,905	46,287	44,293	1,994
Miquelon & Fre'ch Fish's	524	524	524
Spain on the Atlantic..	342,096	342,096	185,865	156,231
Spain on the Mediter'an	8,580	1,435,395	1,443,975	928,390	515,585
Teneriffe & o'r Canaries	51,615	51,615	32,305	19,310
Manilla & Philippine Is..	4,809	1,517,837	1,522,646	1,467,421	55,225
Cuba.....	553,982	17,307,746	17,861,728	16,716,323	1,145,405
Other Spanish W. Indies	37,287	2,963,936	3,001,223	2,525,521	475,701
Portugal.....	850	266,014	266,864	65,769	201,095
Madeira.....	10	89,993	90,003	86,576	3,427
Fayal & other Azores...	1,428	27,918	29,346	25,637	3,709
Cape de Verd Islands .	5,598	12,531	18,129	18,129
Italy.....	33,073	1,201,832	1,234,905	970,877	264,028
Sicily.....	3,667	602,874	606,541	371,499	235,042
Sardinia.....	1,381	73,520	74,901	294	74,607
Tuscany.....	3,624	206,965	210,589	210,589
Greece.....	23,591	23,591	23,591
Trieste & o'er Aus. ports	3,972	304,777	308,749	147,304	161,445
Turkey, Levant, etc....	9,095	547,005	556,100	508,616	47,484
Hayti.....	1,493,573	377,099	1,870,672	1,678,911	191,761
Mexico.....	1,114,506	534,700	1,649,206	1,387,757	261,449
Central Republic of A.	230,269	138,086	368,355	356,011	12,344
New Grenada.....	464,822	285,705	750,527	738,077	12,450
Venezuela.....	1,140,127	981,737	2,121,864	1,816,916	304,948
Brazil.....	10,171,087	2,059,202	12,230,289	9,777,645	2,452,644
Cisplatine Republic ...	18,812	30,895	49,707	49,707
Argentine Republic ...	6,841	2,034,256	2,091,097	1,562,063	529,029
Chili.....	281,462	1,780,698	2,062,160	2,011,845	50,315
Peru.....	76,884	618,008	694,892	607,513	87,379
China.....	7,147,412	3,446,538	10,593,950	10,248,528	345,422
Asia generally.....	1,451	130,132	131,583	131,583
Africa generally.....	143,465	914,192	1,057,657	1,032,402	25,255
S. America generally...	32,159	80,927	113,086	85,755	27,301
Equador.....	1,261	69,324	70,585	68,666	1,919
S. Seas & Pacific Ocean.	4,462	4,462	4,462
Atlantic Ocean, etc....	176	176	176
Sandwich Islands.....	5,988	5,988	5,988
Total.....	29,692,934	178,603,921	208,296,855	155,258,467	53,038,388

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH ALL NATIONS.

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, EXHIBITING THE VALUE OF EXPORTS TO, AND IMPORTS FROM, EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1852.

Countries.	Value of Exports.			Value of imports.
	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	
Russia	\$1,061,748	\$138,732	\$1,200,480	\$1,581,620
Prussia	93,233	153	93,386	21,263
Sweden and Norway	732,846	25,322	758,168	775,448
Swedish West Indies	90,802	1,993	92,795	4,284
Denmark	93,009	22,643	115,652	16,611
Danish West Indies.....	810,439	120,697	931,136	191,745
Hanse Towns.....	6,195,927	681,030	6,876,957	8,171,411
Oldenburg.....
Holland.....	2,292,548	204,681	2,497,229	1,655,561
Dutch East Indies.....	142,997	181,185	324,182	1,015,994
Dutch West Indies.....	299,679	17,766	317,445	552,561
Dutch Guiana.....	83,952	7,282	91,234	86,738
Belgium.....	3,202,767	1,001,003	4,203,770	2,054,043
England.....	107,788,657	4,536,185	112,324,842	88,119,859
Scotland.....	2,441,148	230,635	2,671,783	2,355,947
Ireland.....	573,250	100	573,350	152,533
Gibraltar.....	229,302	49,157	278,459	105,853
Malta.....	96,347	16,975	113,322	114,364
Hanover.....	5,906	5,906
Mauritius.....	11,520	11,520
British East Indies.....	565,138	39,360	604,498	4,225,041
Cape of Good Hope.....	224,236	1,718	225,954	190,798
British Honduras.....	292,813	69,259	362,072	261,646
British Guiana.....	742,286	18,381	760,667	48,943
British West Indies.....	3,512,133	79,956	3,592,089	1,030,537
British American Colonies.....	2,650,134	1,141,322	3,791,956	1,520,330
Canada.....	4,004,963	2,712,097	6,717,060	4,589,969
Other British Colonies.....	3,966	3,966
Australia.....	196,654	11,713	208,267
Falkland Islands.....	7,363	1,177	8,540
France on the Atlantic.....	20,793,878	1,721,441	22,515,319	24,195,914
France on the Mediterranean.....	1,396,192	79,134	1,475,326	1,694,352
French West Indies.....	429,846	25,598	455,444	46,286
French Guiana.....	64,747	1,278	66,025	32,422
Miquelon and French Fisheries.....	524
Bourbon.....
French Possessions in Africa.....
Spain on the Atlantic.....	498,314	23,208	526,522	342,096
Spain on the Mediterranean.....	2,718,504	114,237	2,832,741	1,443,975
Teneriffe and other Canaries.....	16,471	45	16,516	51,615
Manilla and Philippine Islands.....	211,791	9,927	221,718	1,522,646
Cuba.....	5,803,196	714,355	6,517,551	17,861,728
Other Spanish West Indies.....	1,015,563	39,542	1,055,105	3,001,223
Portugal.....	234,064	4,129	238,193	266,864
Madeira.....	87,932	7,480	95,412	90,003
Fayal and other Azores.....	17,766	1,386	19,152	29,346
Cape de Verd Islands.....	54,425	9,651	64,076	18,129
Italy.....	1,573,852	205,342	1,779,194	1,234,905
Sicily.....	55,649	10,890	66,539	606,541
Sardinia.....	769,209	42,286	811,495	74,901
Tuscany.....	17,697	17,697	210,589
Ionian Islands.....
Greece.....	23,591
Trieste and other Austrian ports.....	2,403,530	329,889	2,733,419	308,749
Turkey.....	265,825	50,371	316,196	556,100

Countries.	Value of exports.			Value of imports.
	Domestic produce.	Foreign produce.	Total.	
Hayti.....	1,479,326	239,577	1,718,903	1,870,672
Mexico.....	1,406,372	878,557	2,284,929	1,649,206
Central America.....	386,136	87,382	473,518	368,355
New Grenada.....	1,298,236	217,558	1,515,794	750,527
Venezuela.....	726,024	67,389	793,413	2,121,864
Bolivia.....	210,705	210,705
Brazil.....	2,782,179	238,863	3,021,042	12,230,289
Cisplatine Republic.....	181,156	11,917	193,073	49,707
Argentine Republic.....	518,007	281,110	799,117	2,091,098
Chili.....	2,043,836	295,297	2,339,133	2,062,160
Peru.....	333,794	22,048	355,842	694,892
China.....	2,480,066	183,111	2,663,177	10,593,950
Liberia.....
Patagonia.....
West Indies generally.....	72,208	72,208
Asia generally.....	14,019	14,019	131,583
South America generally.....	43,291	43,291	113,086
Africa generally.....	1,211,360	34,781	1,246,141	1,057,657
South Seas.....	311,721	21,615	333,406	4,462
Equador.....	70,585
Greenland.....
Atlantic Ocean.....	176
Pacific Ocean.....
Indian Ocean.....
Sandwich Islands.....	5,988
Northwest Coast.....
Uncertain Places.....
San Francisco, California.....	4,648,587.
Total.....	192,368,984	17,289,382	209,658,366	212,945,442

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

ALTERATIONS IN THE BRITISH TARIFF.

We give below, from an authentic and reliable source, a complete list of all alterations made in the Custom Duties, during the present session of the British Parliament. These changes will extend the freedom of trade, and lessen the inconveniences which all such duties impose upon the trade of the world:—

Schedule No. 2.

Duties on Tea—That in lieu of the duties of customs now chargeable on tea imported into the United Kingdom, the following duties shall be charged; that is to say, upon every pound of tea, and that the allowance of one pound for draft on each chest exceeding 28 lbs. in weight shall cease and determine:—

	£	s.	d.
To 5th April, 1854, inclusive.....	0	1	10
From and after 5th April, 1854, to 5th April, 1855, inclusive.....	0	1	6
From and after 5th April, 1855, to 5th April, 1856, inclusive.....	0	1	3
From and after 5th April, 1856.....	0	1	0

Schedule No. 3.

Duties on the articles undermentioned:

Apples, raw (not of British possessions).....	bushel	0	0	3
Ditto, dried.....	0	1	0
Butter (not of British possessions).....	cwt.	0	5	0
Cheese (ditto), to be charged on the landing weight.....	0	2	6
Cocoa.....	lb.	0	0	1

	£	s.	d.
Ditto, husks and shells	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ditto, paste and chocolate	0	0	2
Eggs (not of British possessions)	120	0	0
Nuts, small	bushel	0	1
Ditto, walnuts	0	1	0
Oranges and lemons	0	0	8
Raisins	cwt.	0	10

Schedule No. 4.

Duties on the articles undermentioned:			
Almonds, Jordan	cwt.	0	10
Not Jordan, nor bitter		0	10
Paste of,	lb.	0	0
Arrowroot	cwt.	0	0
Barley, pearled		0	0
Baskets, viz., baskets corresponding with the description commonly called			
Berlin	cubic foot	0	0
All others		0	0
Beads, coral	lb.	0	1
Arrango, crystal, jet, and other sorts, not enumerated or described		0	0
Books, being of editions printed in or since the year 1801, bound or unbound	cwt.	1	10
Admitted under treaties of international copyright, or if of and from a			
British possession		0	15
Brass, manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated		0	10
Brocade, of gold or silver	lb.	0	5
Bronze, manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated	cwt.	0	10
Candles, viz., spermaceti		0	2
Stearine, till the 5th April, 1858		0	3
Tallow		0	2
Wax		0	2
Canes, viz., walking-canes or sticks, mounted, painted, or otherwise ornamented	100	0	6
Umbrella or parasol sticks		0	3
Capers, including the pickle	lb.	0	0
Cards, viz., playing-cards	doz. packs	0	15
Cassava powder	cwt.	0	0
Cas-ia lignea	lb.	0	0
Cherries, raw	bush.	0	0
Dried, until 5th July, 1854, inclusive	lb.	0	0
From and after 5th July, 1854		0	0
Chicory, or other vegetable matter applicable to the uses of coffee, viz.,			
roasted or ground	lb.	0	0
Raw or kiln-dried, until the 10th Oct., 1854, inclusive	cwt.	0	4
From and after the 10th Oct., 1854			free.
China ware, or porcelain, painted or plain, gilt or ornamented	cwt.	0	10
Cinnamon	lb.	0	0
Clocks, viz., not exceeding the value of 5s. each	doz.	0	4
Exceeding the value of 5s., and not exceeding the value of 12s. 6d. each	doz.	0	8
Exceeding the value of 12s. 6d., and not exceeding the value of £3 each	each	0	2
Exceeding the value of £3, and not exceeding the value of £10 each	each	0	4
Exceeding the value of £10 each		0	10
Cloves	lb.	0	0
Coculus Indicus	cwt.	0	5
Coffee, roasted or ground	lb.	0	0
Comfits, dry, until 5th July, 1854, inclusive		0	0
From and after 5th July, 1854		0	0
Confectionery, until 5th July, 1854, inclusive		0	0
From and after 5th July, 1854		0	0

	£	s.	d.
Copper, manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated or described, and copper plates, engravedcwt.	0	10	0
Curks, ready madelb.	0	0	6
Squared for roundingcwt.	0	8	0
Cotton manufactures, viz. fringelb.	0	0	2
Gloves, of cotton or threaddozen pairs	0	0	3
Stockings, of cotton or thread	0	0	6
Socks or half-hose, of cotton or thread	0	0	3
Articles of manufactures of cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with dutyfor every £100 value	5	0	0
Datescwt.	0	10	0
Dicepair	1	1	0
Earthenware, not otherwise enumerated or describedcwt.	0	10	0
Embroidery and needlework, viz., silk net, figured with the needle, being imitation lace, and articles thereoflb.	0	10	0
Cotton net, figured with the needle, being imitation lace, and articles thereoflb.	0	8	0
Curtains, commonly called Swiss, embroidered on muslin or net	0	1	0
All other embroidery not enumeratedfor every £100 value	10	0	0
Of and from British possessionsfor every £100 value	5	0	0
Feathers, dressed, viz., ostrichlb.	0	3	0
Paddy bird	0	3	0
Not otherwise enumerated or described	0	3	0
Flowers, artificial, not made of silk—per cubic foot as packed—no allowance for vacant spacescubic foot	0	12	0
Wholly or in part made of silk	0	12	0
Fruit, raw, not otherwise enumeratedbushel	0	0	2
Ginger, preserved, until 5th July, 1854, inclusivelb.	0	0	2
From and after 5th July, 1854	0	0	1½
Glass, viz.: Any kind of window glass, white or stained, of one color only, (except plate or rolled glass,) and shades and cylinders, until the 5th April, 1855, inclusivecwt.	0	2	6
From and after 5th April, 1855, until 5th April, 1857, inclusive	0	1	6
From and after 5th April, 1857			free.
All flint glass, flint colored glass, and fancy ornamental glass, of whatever kind	0	10	0
Grapesbush.	0	0	2
Hair articles, manufactures of hair or goat's wool, or of hair or of goat's wool and any other material, wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with dutyevery £100 value	5	0	0
Hats or bonnets, viz.: Of chiplb.	0	2	6
Of bast, cane, or horsehair	0	2	6
Of straw	0	2	6
Of felt, hair, wool, or beavereach	0	1	0
Of silk or silk shag, laid upon felt, linen, or other material	0	1	0
Iron and steel, wrought or manufactured, viz.: Machinery, wrought, castings, tools, cutlery, and other manufactures of iron or steel, not enumeratedcwt.	0	2	6
Fancy ornamental articles of iron	0	15	0
Steellb.	0	0	6
Jewels, emeralds, and all other precious stones, setevery £100 value	10	0	0
Lace and articles thereof, viz.: Mohair or worstedlb.	0	1	6
Thread or cotton pillow lace, (not being Brussels, point, or Saxon bone lace,) not exceeding one inch in widthlb.	1	0	0
Thread or cotton pillow lace, (not being Brussels, point, or Saxon bone lace,) exceeding one inch in widthlb.	2	0	0
Silk lace, pillow, and application, (not being Saxon wire-ground lace,)	1	10	0
Silk Saxon wire-ground lace, and all lace known as Maltese	0	8	0
Brussels, point, and other lace, made by the hand, not otherwise charged with dutyevery £100 value	10	0	0
Lead, manufactures of, not otherwise enumeratedcwt.	0	2	0
Leather, viz.: Boot backsdoz. pairs	0	1	6
Cut into shapescwt.	0	10	0

	£	s.	d.
Linen, or linen and cotton manufactures, viz.: Cambric handkerchiefs, hemmed or hem-stitched, not trimmeddoz.	0	2	6
Staysdoz. pairs	0	4	0
Articles, manufactures of linen, or of linen mixed with cotton or with wool, wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with dutyevery £100 value	5	0	0
Liquorice paste (not of British possessions)cwt.	1	0	0
Powder (not of British possessions)	1	0	0
Root, until 5th April, 1857, inclusive	0	5	0
From and after 5th April, 1857		free.	
Macaroni	0	1	0
Macelb.	0	1	0
Marmalade, until 5th July, 1854, inclusive	0	0	2
From and after 5th July, 1854	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Medlarsbush.	0	0	2
Millboardslb.	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Music and musical instruments, viz.: Musical-boxes, small, not exceeding four inches in lengththe air	0	0	3
Large	0	0	8
Overtures, or extra accompaniments	0	2	6
Piano-fortes, horizontal grandeach	3	0	0
Upright or square	2	0	0
Harmoniums or seraphines, not exceeding three stops	0	12	0
Four stops, and not exceeding seven stops	1	4	0
Eight stops, and not exceeding eleven stops	1	10	0
Exceeding eleven stops	2	0	0
Accordions, commonly called Chinesethe 100 notes	0	1	0
Other sorts, including flutinas and common German square concertinas	0	5	0
Concertinas of octagon form, not common German	0	4	0
Brass instruments, all sortslb.	0	0	9
Musical instruments, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every £100 value	10	0	0
Mustard flourcwt.	0	1	6
Nutmegs, except those commonly called wildlb.	0	1	0
Nux Vomicacwt.	0	2	0
Oil, viz.: Almondslb.	0	0	1
Bays	0	0	1
Essential oil of cloves	0	1	0
Onionsbush.	0	0	1
Paper, viz.: Brown paper, made of old rope or cordage only, without separating or extracting the pitch or tar therefrom, and without any mixture of other materials therewithlb.	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Printed, painted, or stained paper, or paper-hangings, or flock paper, the square yard	0	0	1
Waste paper, or paper of any other sort, not particularly enumerated or described, not otherwise charged with dutylb.	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Pasteboard	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Pears, rawbush.	0	0	3
Dried	0	1	0
Percussion capsthe 1,000	0	0	1
Perfumery, not otherwise enumerated, and scented or fancy soaplb.	0	0	2
Pewter, manufactures of, not otherwise enumeratedcwt.	0	2	0
Pickles, preserved in vinegargal.	0	0	1
Pimentocwt.	0	5	0
Plate of goldoz. troy	1	1	0
Silver, gilt, or ungit	0	1	8
Platting, or other manufactures of straw, chip,* or other materials to be used in or proper for making or ornamenting hats or bonnets, not otherwise enumerated or charged with dutylb.	0	2	0
Cordonet, single and twist of straw or of other materials	0	0	6
Willow squaresdoz.	0	0	1

* Platting of chip is now free of duty.

	£	s.	d.
Plums, commonly called French plums and prunellescwt.	0	15	0
Dried or preserved, (except in sugar,) not otherwise described.	0	15	0
Preserved in sugar, until 5th July, 1854, inclusive.lb.	0	0	2
From and after 5th July, 1854	0	0	1½
Pomatum	0	0	2
Potato flour.cwt.	0	0	4½
Powder, viz.: Hair powderlb.	0	0	2
Perfumed	0	0	2
Not otherwise enumerated or described, that will serve the same purpose as starchcwt.	0	0	4½
Prints and drawings, plain or colored, single.lb.	0	0	3
Bound or sewn.	0	0	3
Admitted under treaties of international copyright, single, bound or sewnlb.	0	0	1½
Quassiacwt.	0	1	0
Quincesbush.	0	0	3
Rice, not rough nor in the huskcwt.	0	0	4½
Rough and in the husk.qr.	0	0	6
Sago.cwt.	0	0	4½
Scaleboard	0	1	0
Semolina	0	0	4½
Ships, foreign ships, to be broken up, with their tackle, apparel, and furniture, (except sales)every £100 value	5	0	0
Broken up	5	0	0
Silk manufactures, being velvet, the produce of Europe, plain or figured:			
Broad stuffslb.	0	9	0
The foundation of which is wholly composed of cotton or other material than silklb.	0	3	0
Ribbons of velvet, or silk embossed with velvet.	0	10	0
The foundation of which is wholly composed of cotton or other material than silklb.	0	3	6
Manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with any other materials, the produce of Europe, called plushlb.	0	3	0
Commonly used for making hats.	0	1	0
Parasols and umbrellas.each	0	1	0
Damask of silk and wool, or other materials, for furniturelb.	0	0	10
Damask Chinarunning yd.	0	0	8
Corahs, Choppahs, Bandannoes, and Tussore cloth, viz.:			
In pieces not exceeding 5½ yards in length.piece	0	0	4
Exceeding 5½, and not exceeding 6½ yards in length	0	0	6
Exceeding 6½, and not exceeding 7½ yards in length	0	0	8
Exceeding 7½, and not exceeding 8½ yards in length	0	0	9
Exceeding 8½, and not exceeding 9½ yards in length	0	0	10
And for every additional yard in length.yd.	0	0	1½
China crape shawls, plain and damasklb.	0	3	0
Embroidered	0	5	0
Pongees, in pieces, not exceeding 15 yards in length.piece	0	2	0
Exceeding 15 yards, and not exceeding 21 yards in length.	0	3	0
Exceeding 21 yards, and not exceeding 31 yards in length.	0	5	0
Handkerchiefs, plain and figured, in pieces not exceeding 9 yards in length	0	1	6
Exceeding 9 yards, and not exceeding 18 yards in length	0	3	0
Soap, not being scented or fancy, viz.:			
Hardcwt.	0	2	8
Soft	0	2	8
Naples	0	2	8
Spa warecubic foot	0	0	6
Spelter, or zinc, manufactures, not otherwise enumerated.cwt.	0	2	0
Spirits, cordials, or strong waters, not being the produce of any British possession in America, nor of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, in regard to which the conditions of the act 4th Victoria, chap. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled, sweetened, or mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength cannot			

	£	s.	d.
be exactly ascertained by Syke's hydrometer; and perfumed spirits to be used as perfumery only.....gal.	1	0	0
Starch.....cwt.	0	0	4½
Gum of, torrifed or calcined.....	0	0	4½
Succades, including all fruits and vegetables preserved in sugar, until 5th July, 1854, inclusive.....lb.	0	0	2
From and after 5th July, 1854.....	0	0	1½
Tapioca.....cwt.	0	0	4½
Tin foil.....	0	10	0
Manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated.....	0	10	0
Toys, viz.: Marbles.....	0	1	0
All other toys.....cubic foot	0	0	4
Turnery, not otherwise described.....	0	0	4
Varnish, containing any quantity of alcohol or spirit.....gal.	0	12	0
Vernicelli.....cwt.	0	1	0
Vinegar.....gal.	0	0	3
Washing balls.....lb.	0	0	2
Watches, of gold, silver, or any other metal, exceeding the value of £10.....each	1	0	0
Other watches, viz.: Gold open faces.....	0	5	0
Hunters.....	0	7	6
Repeaters.....	0	15	0
Silver, or any other metal not gold, open faces.....	0	2	6
Hunters.....	0	3	6
Repeaters.....	0	8	0
Water, Cologne water, the flask, (30 of such flasks containing not more than one gallon).....	0	0	8
When not in flasks, (as perfumed spirits).....gal.	1	0	0
Woolens, articles or manufactures of wool, (not being goat's wool,) or of wool mixed with cotton, viz.: Carpets and rugs.....square yd.	0	0	6
Shawls, scarfs, and handkerchiefs, plain, and not printed.....lb.	0	0	4
Printed.....	0	0	8
Gloves.....doz. pairs	0	0	3
Articles or manufactures of wool, (not being goat's wool, or of wool mixed with cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty,).....every £100 value	5	0	0

Schedule No. 5.

Duties on spirits imported into Scotland and Ireland:—

Spirits or strong waters, for every gallon of such spirits or strong waters, of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof of Syke's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less strength than the strength of proof of and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, viz.:—

The produce of any British possession in America, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer:—

If imported into Scotland.....gal.	0	5	0
“ “ Ireland.....	0	3	8
Rum, the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid, in regard to which the conditions of the act 4 Vic, cap. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled:—			
If imported into Scotland.....gal.	0	5	0
“ “ Ireland.....	0	3	8
Rum shrub, however sweetened, the produce of and imported from such possessions, in regard to which the conditions of the act 4 Vic, cap. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled, or the produce of and imported from any British possession in America:—			
If imported into Scotland.....gal.	0	5	0
“ “ Ireland.....	0	3	8

Schedule No. 6.		£ s. d.
In lieu of ad valorem duties:		
Biscuit and bread	cwt.	0 0 4½
Caoutchouc, or india-rubber, manufactures of	lb.	0 0 4
Coral negligees		0 1 0
Daguerreotype plates		0 0 3
Flock for paper stainers	cwt.	0 7 0
Fig cake		0 15 0
Gutta percha, manufactures of, not moulded, such as bands, sheets, soles, tubing	cwt.	0 5 0
Articles moulded	lb.	0 0 2
Lucifers, of wood, in boxes containing not more than 100 matches, the gross of boxes		0 0 2
In boxes containing more than 100 matches		0 0 3
Vesta of wax, in boxes not exceeding 1,000 matches	doz. boxes	0 0 6
In boxes exceeding 1,000 matches	1,000	0 0 0
Mandioca flour	cwt.	0 0 4½
Manna croup		0 0 4½
Mustard, mixed or manufactured, except flour		0 5 0
Oil cloth, for table covers	square yd.	0 0 1
Paper, gilt, stained, colored, embossed, and all fancy kinds, not being paper-hangings	lb.	0 0 2½
Salacine	oz.	0 0 3
Sauces, not otherwise enumerated	lb.	0 0 1
Soy	gal.	0 0 6
Stearine, till 5th April, 1858	cwt.	0 3 6
After 5th April, 1858		free.
Veneers		0 1 0

OF THE APPRAISEMENT OF IMPORTED MERCHANDISE.

We have received from the Treasury Department the following instructions to Collectors and other officers of the Customs in the United States, under the act of 3d of March, 1851, regulating the appraisement of imported merchandise, which we publish for the benefit of importing merchants and others:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, July 20, 1853.

Your special attention is called to the following instructions in relation to the appraisement of merchandise, under the act of 3d March, 1851, additional to, or in modification of the circular instructions from this Department, dated 27th March, 1851.

The invoice cost of foreign merchandise, supported by the oath required by law, will be held and taken as the importer's declaration of value at the port and time of shipment, and conclusive against the importer; unless, before entering the same, the said importer, his consignee, or agent, where the merchandise has been actually purchased, shall declare in writing, under oath, on the invoice, a decline in value between the time of such purchase and the date of shipment, and the amount thereof; in which case such declared value shall be conclusive against the importer: but in either case the appraisers will determine and fix such additional value as the law and the facts may warrant.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

REDUCTION OF DUTIES BY THE GERMAN ZOLL-VEREIN.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, July 23, 1853.

Information has been received at this Department from the United States Consul at Frankfort, that a reduction in the rate of duties on certain articles imported into the States of the Zoll-Verein went into effect on the 1st instant, to wit:—

Tobacco leaves and stems from the present rate of 5½ rix dollars to 4 rix dollars per cwt.

French brandies from 16 rix dollars to 8 rix dollars per cwt.

Wines in casks, 8 rix dollars to 6 rix dollars per cwt.

Coffee, 6½ rix dollars to 5 rix dollars per cwt.

Teas, 4¾ rix dollars to 8 rix dollars per cwt.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

GENERAL RAILROAD LAW OF IOWA.

We give below the General Railroad Law of Iowa. The companies are organized under the Act providing for the organization of companies for *pecuniary profit*. The additional privileges necessary to the construction of a railroad, such as condemning lands, and crossing public highways, are provided for by another act.

1. Any number of persons may associate themselves and become incorporated for the transaction of any lawful business including the establishment of ferries, the construction of canals, railways, bridges, or other works of internal improvement; but such incorporation confers no power or privilege not possessed by *natural persons* except as hereinafter provided.

2. Among the powers of such body corporate, are the following:--

1st. To have perpetual succession.

2d. To sue and be sued by its corporate name.

3d. To have a common seal which it may alter at pleasure.

4th. To render the interests of the stockholders transferable.

5th. To exempt the private property of its members from liability for corporate debts except as herein otherwise declared.

6th. To make contracts, acquire and transfer property, possessing the same powers in such respects as private individuals now enjoy.

7th. To establish by-laws, and make all rules and regulations deemed expedient for the management of their affairs, in accordance with law and not incompatible with an honest purpose.

3. Previous to commencing any business except that of their own organization they must adopt articles of incorporation, which must be recorded in the office of the recorder of deeds of the county where the principal place of business is to be, in a book kept therefor.

4. Corporations for the construction of any work of internal improvement must, in addition, also file a copy of such articles in the office of a secretary of state, and have the same recorded by him in a book kept for such purposes. Such articles of incorporation must fix the highest amount of indebtedness or liability to which the corporation is at any one time to be subject, which must in no case, except in that of the risks of insurance companies, exceed two thirds of its capital stock.

5. A notice must also be published for four weeks in succession in some newspaper as convenient as practicable to the principal place of business.

6. Such notice must contain:

1st. The name of the corporation and its principal place of transacting business.

2d. The general nature of the business to be transacted.

3d. The amount of capital and stock authorized, and the times and conditions on which it is to be paid in.

4th. The time of the commencement and termination of the corporation.

5th. By what officers or persons the affairs of the company are to be conducted, and the times at which they will be elected.

6th. The highest amount of indebtedness or liability to which the corporation is at any time to subject itself.

7th. Whether private property is to be exempt from the corporate debts.

7. The corporation may commence business as soon as the articles are filed in the office of the recorder of deeds, and their doing shall be valid if the publication in a newspaper is made and the copy filed in the office of secretary of state, when such filing is necessary, within three months from such filing in the recorder's office.

8. No change in any of the above matters shall be valid unless recorded and published as the original articles are required to be.

9. Corporations for the construction of any work of internal improvement may be formed to endure fifty years; those formed for other purposes cannot exceed twenty years in duration; but in either case they may be renewed from time to time for periods not greater respectively than was at first permissible, provided three-fourths of the votes cast at any regular election for that purpose be in favor of such renewal,

and provided also that those thus wishing a renewal will purchase the stock of those opposed to the renewal at a fair current value.

10. The corporation cannot be dissolved prior to the period fixed upon in the articles of incorporation except by unanimous consent, unless a different rule has been adopted in their articles.

11. The same period of newspaper publication must precede any such premature dissolution of a corporation as is required at its creation.

12. A copy of the by-laws of the corporation, with the names of all its officers appended thereto, must be posted in the principal place of business, and be subject to public inspection.

13. A statement of the amount of the capital stock subscribed, the amount of capital actually paid in, and the amount of indebtedness of the company in a general way, must also be kept posted up in like manner, which statement must be corrected as often as any material change takes place in relation to any part of the subject matter of such statement.

14. Intentional fraud, in failing to comply substantially with the articles of incorporation, or in deceiving the public or individuals in relation to their means or their liabilities, shall subject those guilty thereof to fine and imprisonment or both, at the discretion of the court. Any person who has sustained injury from such fraud may also recover damages therefor against those guilty of participating in such fraud.

15. The diversion of the funds of the corporation to other objects than those mentioned in their articles and in the notices published as aforesaid, (provided any person be thereby injured,) and the payment of dividends which leave insufficient funds to meet the liabilities of the corporation, shall be deemed such frauds as will subject those therein concerned to the penalties of the preceding section, and such dividends or their equivalents in the hands of individual stockholders shall be subject to said liabilities.

16. Dividends in insurance companies, made in good faith before their knowledge of the happening of actual losses, are not intended to be prevented or punished by the provisions of the preceding section.

17. A failure to comply substantially with the foregoing requisitions in relation to organization and publicity renders the individual property of all the stockholders liable for the corporate debts.

18. Either such failure or the practice of fraud in the manner hereinafter mentioned shall cause a forfeiture of all the privileges hereby conferred, and the courts may proceed to wind up the business of the corporation by an information in the manner prescribed by law.

19. The intentional keeping of false books or accounts by any corporation, whereby any one is injured, is a misdemeanor on the part of those concerned therein, and any person shall be presumed to be concerned therein whose duty it was to see that the books and accounts were correctly kept.

20. The transfer of shares is not valid, except as between the two parties thereto, until it is regularly entered on the books of the company so far as to show the name of the person by and to whom transferred, the numbers or other designation of the shares, and the date of the transfer; but such transfer shall not in any way exempt the person or persons making such transfer from any liability or liabilities of said corporation which were created prior to such transfer. The books of the company must be so kept as to show intelligibly the original stockholders, their respective interests, the amount which has been paid in on their shares, and all transfers thereof; and such books, or a correct copy thereof, so far as the items mentioned in this section are concerned, shall be subject to the inspection of any person desiring the same.

21. Any corporation organized or attempted to be organized in accordance with the provisions of this chapter shall cease to exist by the non-user of its franchises for two years at any one time, but such body shall not forfeit its franchises by reason of its omission to elect officers or to hold meetings at any time prescribed by the by-laws, provided such act be done within two years of the time appointed therefor.

22. Corporations whose charters expire by their own limitation, or by the voluntary act of the stockholders, may, nevertheless, continue to act for the purpose of winding up their concerns, but for no other purpose.

23. Nothing herein contained exempts the stockholders of any corporation from individual liability to the amount of the unpaid installments on the stock owned by them or transferred by them for the purpose of defrauding creditors, and an execution against the company may to that extent be levied upon such private property of any individual.

24. In none of the cases contemplated in this chapter can the private property of the stockholder be levied upon for the payment of corporate debts while corporate property can be found with which to satisfy the same, but it will be sufficient proof that no property can be found if an execution has issued on a judgment against the corporation and a demand thereon made of some one of the last acting officers of the body for property on which to levy, and if he neglects to point out any such property.

25. The defendant in any stage of a cause may point out corporate property subject to levy, and upon his satisfying the court of the existence of such a property, by affidavit or otherwise, the cause may be continued, or execution against the defendant stayed, until the property can be levied upon and sold, and the court may subsequently render judgment and order execution for any balance which there may be after disposing of the corporate property, according to the stage of the cause; but if a demand of property has been made, as contemplated in the preceding section, the costs of such proceedings shall in any event be paid by the company or by the defendant.

26. When the private property of a stockholder is taken for a corporate debt he may maintain an action against the corporation for indemnity and against any of the other stockholders for contribution.

27. For the purpose of repairs, rebuilding, or enlarging, or to meet contingencies, or for the purpose of a sinking fund, the corporation may establish a fund which they may loan, and in relation to which they may take the proper securities.

28. When the franchise of a corporation has been levied upon under an execution and sold, the incorporators shall not have power to dissolve the corporation so as to destroy the franchise, and if they neglect to keep up an organization sufficient to enable the business to proceed, the purchaser thereupon becomes vested with all the powers of the corporation requisite therefor; and when it becomes impracticable for an individual so to conduct them, and in cases where doubts and difficulties not herein provided for arise, the purchaser may apply by petition to the district court, which is hereby vested with authority to make any orders requisite for carrying into effect the intent of this chapter in this respect.

29. In any proceedings by or against a corporation or against a stockholder, to charge his private property or the dividends received by him, the court is invested with power to compel the officers to produce the books of the corporation on the motion of either party upon a proper cause being shown for that purpose.

30. A single individual may entitle himself to all the advantages of this chapter provided he complies substantially with all its requirements, omitting those which from the nature of the case are inapplicable.

31. Persons acting as a corporation under the provisions of this chapter will be presumed to be legally incorporated until the contrary is shown; and no such franchise shall be declared actually null or forfeited except in a regular proceeding brought for that purpose.

32. No body of men acting as a corporation under the provisions of this chapter shall be permitted to set up the want of a legal organization as a defense to an action against them as a corporation, nor shall any person sued on a contract made with such a corporation, or sued for an injury to its property, or a wrong done to its interests, be permitted to set up a want of such legal organization in his defense.

33. Corporations regularly organized under the general law heretofore in force, by adapting their articles of association to the provisions of this chapter, and by making the required publication of the change as well as of their intention to act under the foregoing provisions, will be entitled to all the advantages and subjected to all the liabilities above provided for, but the change in their articles of association must be made in accordance with those articles or by the unanimous consent of the stockholders.

34. Mutual insurance companies organized under the provisions of this chapter may render their premium notes a lien upon the whole or any part of their real estate upon which the property issued is situate, whether such real estate is or is not exempt from other liabilities as a homestead, but such lien will not attach until the premium note, stating the property on which it is a lien, is filed for record, and treated in the same manner as though it were a mortgage from the maker thereof to the company, except that it need not be acknowledged.

35. Nothing herein contained is intended to affect the interests of companies already organized farther than is above expressed.

STEAM MARINE OF NEW YORK.

A correspondent of the *Courier des Etats Unis* gives the following statement of the steam marine of New York:—

	Tons.
17 Trans-atlantic steamers, making voyages to Europe, and measuring.....	37,662
15 Ocean steamers, intended for service to California and the West Indies...	30,000
1 Steamer doing the West Indian business.....	800
19 Large coasting steamers.....	17,112
<hr/>	
Total, 52 steamers, measuring.....	85,574

If we add to this sum total the Pacific steamers, which are in direct communication with the California steamers above mentioned, the sum total is augmented by 21 vessels of 29,436 aggregate burden. And this last figure, let us repeat, would be much more considerable were it not for the recent disasters which have befallen navigation in the Pacific.

But, even if we strictly confine ourselves to those vessels which make New York a point of entry and departure, we feel bound to acknowledge that they form a truly important fleet. Many States would deem themselves fortunate if they possessed for Commerce and defense a steam navy equal to that of the Empire City.

RAILROADS; THEIR NECESSITY AS A MEANS OF WEALTH.

[From the Cincinnati Railroad Record.]

In the present state of railroad progress it would appear supererogatory to attempt a demonstration of the necessity of the "iron road," politically, commercially, and socially; or show that facility of intercommunication increases such communication, creates business, begets sociality, tends to the dissemination of enlightened views, and by uniting all these advantages, promotes the growth, wealth, and prosperity of the country.

It is a self-evident proposition that accessibility promotes population. The history of our country is an enduring exemplification of this fact. As facilities of intercourse increased, the area of our settlements extended, until the entire continent has been embraced within our borders. Cities and towns have sprung up in the midst of the wilderness, and the wilds have been made to blossom like the rose; and if canals, rivers, and plank and Macadamized roads—the restricted means of intercommunication enjoyed before the introduction of railroads—have sufficed to render this country so prosperous, what may we not anticipate when the vast undertakings now projected shall have been completed?—when the auriferous shores of the Pacific shall be connected with the rocky barriers of the Atlantic by iron bands, and the treasures of the East and the islands of the seas shall be transported thereupon, to find a ready market among the dwellers at the West?

That railroads will hereafter be the means of intercommunication is equally evident. They are the best and cheapest means for promoting accessibility; they can be built wherever the people will it; and by their means time and distance can almost be annihilated. The experience upon the few completed roads has demonstrated their utility and fitness for the purpose for which they were designed. And the completion of these few roads has made the building of others compulsory, or those sections lacking in such facilities must consent to sit supinely down, and witness the rapid development in wealth and prosperity of such sections as keep up with the progress of the age.

Wherever railroads have been built in this country, the inevitable consequence has been to enhance the value of property in the neighborhood. Depots have been established along the lines for the reception and shipment of freight; and from these simple depots flourishing towns have grown up, magic-like, and, anomalous at it may appear, but in few instances producing any diversion of trade from one place to another, seeming rather to create of themselves business for themselves—thus, by facilities of communication adding to population, and by population adding to the wealth and prosperity of the country.

Not unfrequently does it occur that these depots are established in the vicinity of mines heretofore unavailable, for want of means of transportation, as is the case in many instances within our knowledge. So soon as the roads are completed, and these

mines brought within the reach of a market, a town at once springs up, and the heretofore waste lands become not only sources of wealth to a few; perhaps, but of competence to many.

And when these roads are opened through an agricultural country, affording means of ready and cheap transportation to market, the farmer at once becomes independent. He is not compelled to haul his produce through almost impassable mudholes, sloughs, and ponds, to a market, where he is constrained to dispose of it at unremunerating rates, rather than haul it home again; he can quietly wait until it is called for at his own door, or until he learns from the papers that it is to his advantage to ship to a distant market. Few persons are aware of the difference in the cost of transportation between the ordinary wagon and the rail. In one of our exchanges we some time since found the following table, in which is given the comparative value of a ton of wheat and one of corn at given distances from market, as affected by the cost of transportation by railroad, and over the ordinary road:—

Miles.	By railroad.		Ordin. highway.		Miles.	By railroad.		Ordin. highway.	
	Wheat.	Corn.	Wheat.	Corn.		Wheat.	Corn.	Wheat.	Corn.
At market	\$49 50	\$24 75	\$49 50	\$24 75	170.....	\$46 95	\$22 20	\$24 00
10.....	49 25	24 60	48 00	23 25	180.....	46 80	22 05	22 50
20.....	49 20	24 45	46 50	21 75	190.....	46 65	21 90	21 00
30.....	49 05	24 30	45 00	20 25	200.....	46 50	21 75	19 50
40.....	49 00	24 15	43 50	18 75	210.....	46 35	21 60	18 00
50.....	48 75	24 00	42 00	17 25	220.....	46 20	21 45	16 50
60.....	48 50	23 85	40 50	16 75	230.....	46 05	21 30	15 00
70.....	48 45	23 70	39 00	14 25	240.....	45 90	21 15	13 50
80.....	48 30	23 55	37 50	12 75	250.....	45 75	21 00	12 00
90.....	48 15	23 40	36 00	11 25	260.....	45 60	20 85	10 50
100.....	48 00	23 25	34 50	9 75	270.....	45 45	20 70	9 00
110.....	47 85	23 10	33 00	8 25	280.....	45 30	20 55	7 50
120.....	47 70	22 95	31 50	6 75	290.....	45 15	20 40	6 00
130.....	47 55	22 80	30 00	5 25	300.....	45 00	20 25	4 50
140.....	47 40	22 65	28 50	3 75	310.....	44 85	20 10	3 00
150.....	47 25	22 50	27 00	2 25	320.....	44 70	19 95	1 50
160.....	47 10	22 35	25 50	0 75	330.....	44 55	19 80

By this table it appears that a ton of corn is estimated not to be worth hauling, by wagon, when 170 miles from market; while at the same distance upon a line of railroad it would be worth \$22 20. A ton of wheat 230 miles from market is not worth the hauling by wagon, but by railroad it would be worth \$44 55. Thus, as land may be near or more remote from lines of railroad is its value enhanced over and above the value had there been no such railroad. This is an important consideration to farmers when called upon to aid in the construction of railroads, and should influence their actions in the matter.

While it thus develops the physical resources of the country, and by the ready means of intercommunication it affords makes distant points accessible, the railroad is also intimately connected with Commerce, and with all of its powers and results, is peculiarly its agent, and has exerted a potential influence in the development and extension of modern trade, and is destined to work still greater changes and more vast achievements in behalf of the Commerce of the future.

Such being the fact, and railroads being the "necessity of the age," we say let them be built wherever they can be with reasonable prospect of success; but in railroads, as in every other line of business, judgment should be exercised, and rival lines on minor routes should be avoided, at least until such time as the wants of the community call for an extension of traveling facilities. This competition of rival lines will be one of the strongest objections to railroads, in the construction and prosperous management of which united effort is a peculiarly necessary ingredient.

LOCOMOTIVES ON THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD.

The Pennsylvania Railroad Company own and use upon their road, according to the last annual report, forty-three locomotive engines. Of these, 9 were placed on the road in the year 1849, 14 in the year 1850, 8 in 1851, and 17 in 1852. Of the whole number, 37 were built by M. W. Baldwin, 3 by Norris & Brothers, 2 by Seth Wilmarth, and 1 by Smith & Perkins. 28 of them have 4 drivers each, 7 have 6 drivers

each, 6 have 2 drivers each, and 2 have eight drivers each. As regards the size of these drivers, 20 of them are each 4 feet 6 inches in diameter, 7 are of 5 feet each, 2 are of 6 feet 6 inches, 7 of 8 feet 6 inches, 3 of 6 feet, 2 of 4 feet, 1 of 3 feet 7 inches, and 1 of 3 feet 8 inches. It will thus be seen that 32 of these engines have drivers of 4 feet 6 inches and upwards. During the year 1852 the total number of miles run by these locomotives was 663,991, and the total cost of repairs was \$32,630 07, or an average cost of \$4 92 per 100 miles run. In the year 1850 the total number of miles run by the locomotives on this road was 320,999, or nearly 11,000 less than half the total for 1852.

SELF-ACTING RAILROAD BRAKE.

In these days of railroad accidents, every invention that may contribute in any degree to prevent destruction of life deserves notice, and there is one, which has stood the test of a fair trial on the Reading Railroad, that ought to be universally adopted. It is called "Lahaye's Patent Self-Acting Brake," and is the invention of Mr. J. J. Lahaye, of Reading. The mode of its operation is very simple, and as it is self-acting, it dispenses with the necessity of brakemen on a train. The process is as follows:—As soon as an engineer, seeing danger before him, reverses the engine, the slight check given to the train, causes a pressure against the "bumper" of each car. Attached to this bumper, and passing under the car, is a rod connecting with a lever, which the moment it feels the pressure, forces a brake against the wheels of the truck, with such violence as to enable the engineer to stop the train in an astonishingly short time. On the Reading Railroad, where this brake has been in use for a year and a half, an engineer can stop a train going at the rate of thirty miles an hour, in a space of from two hundred to two hundred and fifty feet.

It is easily seen that under these circumstances a collision can very rarely occur, as it is seldom that an obstacle in a track cannot be discovered at a distance of at least five or six hundred feet. The operation of detaching the brake is also quite simple, and the whole apparatus is such as to recommend it to general adoption, especially on railroads having but a single track, where the dangers of collision are much the greatest. No description, without diagrams, can do full justice to the beauty and practical value of this invention; but the very fact that it has been successfully used, for a length of time, on a road doing such an immense business as the Reading Railroad, is sufficient to convince all of its excellence.

FIRST STEAMBOAT ON THE WESTERN WATERS.

According to statements in the Newport (Ky.) *News*, the first steamboat that ever ran on the western waters was built under the superintendence of Mr. John Robson, now 80 years old, and living with his son William, two miles back of Newport, Ky. His head is whitened by age, but his memory is good, and recollects well about his youthful exercises. He was employed by Fulton, Livingston & Co., of New York. The boat was launched at Pittsburg, Pa., on the 17th day of March, 1811, and was called the *New Orleans*. She was painted with a blueish colored paint. She passed New Madrid, Mo., at the time of the earthquake in December, 1811. Mr. Scowls, now living in Covington, a wealthy man, was cabin-boy on her; Andrew Jack was pilot, and a Mr. Baker was engineer. She carried Gen. Coffee and Don Carl, with their troops, from Natchez down to New Orleans, in 1814, at the time Gen. Jackson was defending that city against the British.

MOBILE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

The Chief Engineer of the Mobile and Ohio Railroad Company reports that the whole road is now under contract to the Kentucky line, 453 miles from Mobile. The local subscriptions amount to \$4,902,200, and the land given by Congress is valued at \$3,469,075, making together a property capital of \$8,372,175. Upon this it is intended to raise by mortgage of road and lands, a loan of \$6,500,000, including the Tennessee loan of \$1,000,000, at 6 per cent, to complete the main road and iron the Paducah, Tennessee River, Columbus, Kentucky and Columbus, Mississippi branches, all of which branches, in the aggregate, will be 102 miles long. Thirty-three miles of the road, from Mobile to Citronville, are now in operation, and fifty-five miles in addition are now under contract, and will be ready for the iron by the 1st of November, 1853.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

SONG OF THE MINER.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF NOVAISS.

Who fathoms her recesses,
Is monarch of the sphere—
Forgetting all distresses,
Within her bosom here.

Of all her granite piling
The secret make he knows,
And down amid her toiling
Unweariedly he goes.

He is unto her plighted,
And tenderly allied—
Becomes by her delighted,
As if she were his bride.

New love each day is burning
For her within his breast,
No toil or trouble shunning,
She leaveth him to rest.

To him her voice is swelling
In solemn, friendly rhyme,
The mighty stories telling
Of long-*evanished* time.

The Fore-world's holy breezes
Around his temples play,

And caverned night releases
To him a quenchless ray.

On every side he greeteth
A long familiar land,
And willingly she meeteth
The labors of his hand.

For hopeful waves are flowing
Along his mountain course,
And rocky holds are showing
Their treasures' secret source.

Toward his monarch's palace
He guides the golden stream,
And diadem and chalice
With noble jewels gleam.

Though faithfully his treasure
He renders to the king,
He liveth poor with pleasure,
And makes no questioning.

And though beneath him daily
They fight for gold and gain,
Above here let him gaily
The lord of earth remain.

MANUFACTURES OF PARIS.

NO. II.

STATISTICS OF FOOD AND THE BRANCHES OF INDUSTRY RELATING TO IT, AT PARIS.

Of the seventeen branches of industry belonging to this group, according to the classification of the Report of the Chamber of Commerce of Paris, we have noticed all but the following:—Distillers, (liquors and sirups;) grocers, (manufacturing;) ice-cream makers, alimentary paste makers, pastry cooks, sugar refiners, and pickle makers.

Manufacture of Liquors and Sirups.—Number of employers 126; amount of business in 1847, 8,276,805 francs; in 1848, 5,379,900 francs.

The effervescing drinks, of which the principal are effervescing lemonade and Seltzer water, are classed with medicinal mineral waters, and the manufacture of them is subjected to government regulation. There are two inspectors at Paris, who superintend the manufacture of all artificial waters of this kind.

Grocers, (manufacturing.)—Besides the numerous articles sold in small quantities for daily use, and which are simply bought at wholesale and sold at retail, without undergoing any change in the hands of the grocer, there are many other articles which are prepared for use at the shop, and therefore are included in the list of Paris manufactures. Thus, at some grocers' shops, chocolate, preserves, liquors, sirups, confectionary, and blacking are made, coffee also is burnt, and some vegetables prepared for use.

Of these grocers, who are classed among the manufacturers of Paris, there are 1,180; of whom 1,044 confine themselves to articles of food: 62 manufacture blacking; 6, colors and blacking; 5, blacking and ink; 8, candles, night-lights, glue, *eau de Javelle*, *eau de Cologne*.

In 1847 the amount of business was as follows:—Articles of food, 9,621,259 francs;

eau de Javelle, 110,000 francs; candles, 101,600 francs; colors, 81,500 francs; blacking, 34,155 francs; glue, ink, *eau de Cologne*, and night lights, 2,370 francs. The total is 9,950,894 francs; but these figures are far from exhibiting the real extent of this branch of industry.

Articles of food, it will be seen, form the principal item. They consist of burnt coffee, the value of which was 7,000,000 francs, including the value of the coffee; chocolate and confectionary, 2,402,913 francs; alimentary preserves, 218,346 francs.

The value of coffee burnt by those who make it a special business was 2,033,070 francs, which, added to the above amount of 7,000,000 francs, makes the total 9,033,070 francs.

The total value of sirups and distilled liquors was 8,276,805 francs; adding the amount made by the grocers, and we have a total of 8,469,781 francs.

Almost all the grocers prepare chocolate. The total value manufactured in 1847 was 3,896,977 francs, in addition to that made by grocers. The aggregate of both is 5,068,493 francs. Nearly all the grocers (1,071 out of 1,130) make preserves also.

Fruits preserved in sugar are an agreeable and useful article of food for children, and especially the sick. When the sirup alone is used, the preparations are called *gelees*: when a part of the pulp is retained they are *marmelades*. Amount of business in 1847, 1,231,397 francs; in 1848, 775,780 francs.

Ice Cream Makers.—The *cafes* are generally supplied with ices and sorbets from establishments where they are manufactured on a large scale: they are prepared, however, at some of the coffee houses. Number of employers in 1847, 45; amount of business in 1847, 1,224,160 francs; in 1848, 540,360 francs.

Alimentary preparations of dough or paste, (*pates alimentaires*), are made from the finest ground wheat, and are variously named, from their shape, *macaroni*, *vermicelli*, *lazagne*, *taglioni*, *andarini*, *millefanti*, *etoiles*, &c. This manufacture is of Italian origin, and famous at Naples and Genoa. About the beginning of this century it was introduced at Paris and Lyons, and particularly at Clermont-Ferrand. Makers of vermicelli, &c., 17; amount of business in 1847, 1,567,728 francs; in 1848, 941,800 francs. One cause of this falling off was the high price of wheat in 1847.

Pastry Cooks.—The art of pastry includes pies, cakes, rolls, spice bread, &c., and it is classified by the report into fine pastry and common pastry. Much of the common pastry is sold in the street by itinerants, who make their own cakes, or buy in the 12 arrondissements the peculiar articles made there called *galettes*, *Nanterre cakes*, and *plaisirs*.

A marked change has of late taken place in the business of the pastry cook. Many no longer furnish meals at their own shops, but undertake to furnish complete entertainments in the city. Nearly all the cooks are now instructed as apprentices by them. Number of pastry cooks, 402; of these 37 are also bakers; 11 makers of sirups and preserves; 2 makers of ices; 1 maker of broiled onions. Amount of business in 1847, 12,255,087 francs; in 1848, 6,618,780 francs.

Sugar Refiners.—The use of sugar as a food, at once healthful and nutritive, is growing with the growth of wealth. Its importance as an article of Commerce dates back only to the 17th century. The Portuguese, sole possessors of Brazil, where the cane was first cultivated, had almost a monopoly of the European market. Afterwards the Dutch, English, and French colonies cultivated the cane; and under the colonial system each had the monopoly of supplying its mother country.

The sugar trade in France is now supplied by native sugar made from the beet, by cane sugar from the colonies, and to a limited extent by foreign sugars; but high duties shut out the foreign sugars from consumption. What is received at the French

entrepôts is almost wholly re-exported. Refined sugars are allowed a drawback, by way of bounty, on exportation.

Raw sugar was consumed in France to a considerable extent some years ago, but the use of it is very much diminished in consequence of the reduction in the price of refined sugars, effected by the improved process of refining. Cane sugar was in fact the only kind that could be used raw. Now, nearly all the sugar used is refined. Value of sugar entered at custom house in 1847, 149,822,480 kilogrammes; in 1848, 106,013,371 kilogrammes. Value of sugar exported in 1847, 18,400,556 kilogrammes; in 1848, 8,258,089 kilogrammes.

The consumption of sugar evidently fell off in 1848 in consequence of the political crisis of that year. It seems to be determined by the price of breadstuffs; the average consumption of the richer classes being considerable, that of the poor very small. As prosperity increases, the consumption of sugar increases with it, and the comparative wealth of different classes would be pretty accurately shown by a classification based upon the average of sugar consumed by each individual.

According to the generally received calculations, made in 1845, the average of sugar consumed by each individual in a year was, in

Russia.....kilogrammes	0.775	Holland.....kilogrammes	5.410
Austria.....	1.200	United States.....	8.000
France.....	3.615	England.....	8.460

Raw sugar contains two different elements, the one a grain, the other a sirup, covering and closing the former. The process of refining consists in separating the two, one of which is susceptible of crystallization and the other is not, and also in removing from the sugar the foreign substances mingled with it. To effect this various chemical and mechanical agencies are employed. The sugar is dissolved in water, decolorized by animal black, clarified by beef's blood, concentrated by heat, boiled in cauldrons, and poured into moulds, in which it is crystallized in a rude manner, and then ground.

There are 18 sugar refineries in Paris and the *ban-lieue*, which supply Rouen, Amiens, Rheims, Metz, Strasbourg, Besancon, Lyons, Moulins, Chateauroux, Tours, and also the foreign demand.

The quantity of sugar received in the District of Paris, in 1847, may be estimated at 58 or 60,000,000 kilogrammes, of which from 16 to 18,000,000, or about one third, remained for local consumption. In 1848 the quantity received was only from 45 to 48,000,000 kilogrammes in the city.

Amount of business in 1847, 23,000,000 francs; quantity of sugar made, 19,500,000 kilogrammes; workmen employed, 435. Amount of business without the city, 42,000,000 francs; quantity of sugar made, 35,000,000 kilogrammes; workmen employed, 600 to 700. Total amount, 65,500,000 francs; workmen, 1,100.

In 1848 business fell to 17,625,000 francs, a reduction of 25 per cent. During the month following the revolution of February, 1848, 157 workmen out of 435, or 36 out of 100, were discharged.

Pickle Makers.—The last branch of industry in the group of pursuits relating to food includes the preparation of vinegar for the table, of mustard, and of gherkins, and other vegetables and fruits pickled in vinegar. Of these articles Paris exports considerable quantities; about one half of the quantity produced. Amount of business in 1847, 631,600 francs; in 1848, 461,000 francs: there is here a falling off of 27 per cent.

We shall next take up the second branch of industry enumerated in the Report, that of construction—including ships, houses, streets, and pavements, plumbing, and the business of the mason, carpenter, and painter.

IRON MANUFACTURES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

THE METAL TRADES OF LIVERPOOL—IRON.

There are at the present moment 178 different iron works in the kingdom, with an aggregate capital approaching £4,000,000. The production of pig-iron during the last twelve months was estimated at 2,697,240 tons; and, if we take only 2,000,000 tons, at £3 per ton, it makes the annual value of £6,000,000.

The demand for iron of late years has greatly increased, owing to its adaptability for marine purposes, in the construction of ship-building and steamers, as well as in the formation of railroads; and, although there has been a great scarcity of coal generally in South Staffordshire and to some extent in Wales. The production of pig-iron in the United Kingdom during the year 1852, was estimated as follows, the yield being calculated only upon those furnaces in blast:—

	Furnaces.		Total.	Pig-iron. Tons.
	In.	Out.		
Scotland	113	31	144	775,000
South Wales	135	27	162	635,000
Ditto, Anthracite	12	23	35	31,000
South Staffordshire	127	32	159	725,000
North Staffordshire	17	4	21	90,000
North Wales	6	7	13	30,000
Shropshire	27	13	40	120,000
Durham	18	8	26	110,000
Northumberland	7	6	13	35,000
Yorkshire and Derbyshire	35	7	42	150,000
Total.....	497	158	655	2,701,000

There is little doubt but in the course of 15 years, and even sooner, this manufacture will be doubled in its quantity. At the present moment there are 118 furnaces in blast in Scotland, producing at the rate of 800,000 tons per annum.

The principal stocks of pig-iron held in this country are kept on wharves and in yards at Glasgow, and on premises belonging to the iron works in the neighborhood, as Gartsherrie, Dundyvan, &c.; but there are smaller depots for pig-iron intended for consumption or re-manufacture in England, formed at Poulton, Fleetwood, Preston, Lancaster, Runcorn, Ellesmere Port, and Saltney, near Chester; therefore we should first ascertain the amount of such stocks, the shipments, &c., during the last seven years, which we find recorded in the report of Mr. John Barclay, iron broker, Glasgow, and Messrs. Stitt Brothers, Liverpool, as below:—

STOCKS OF PIG-IRON HELD IN SCOTLAND (IN TONS) ON THE 31ST DECEMBER IN EACH YEAR.

1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
145,000	90,000	100,000	200,000	275,000	350,000	450,000

SHIPMENTS OF PIG-IRON FROM SCOTLAND.

	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.
1846	119,100	257,851	376,951
1847	143,460	227,005	370,465
1848	162,151	227,833	389,984
1849	153,183	221,943	375,126
1850	134,576	190,033	324,659
1851	192,676	260,080	452,756
1852	224,070	199,050	425,020

The consumption of pig-iron in Glasgow and that neighborhood is now 4,000 tons a week; equal to 200,000 tons a year; and the manufacture of malleable iron in Scotland has been calculated, in tons, as follows:—

1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
45,000	60,000	90,000	80,000	80,000	90,000	90,000

As the United States of America purchase extensively, we will record the exports of pig-iron thence, direct from Scotland, during the last seven years, to show the marvellous increase:—

1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
13,918	44,993	90,235	94,212	57,509	80,019	100,700

The entire exports of iron from Great Britain are now double what they were in 1825, having almost reached 1,500,000 tons in the past year, 1853, of which those of Liverpool exceed one-fifth portion. The United States being our principal market, let us see what were the shipments of manufactured iron from Liverpool to the three chief ports, New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, during the last seven years :—

	Rails. Tons.	Bars, &c. Tons.	Hoops, &c. Tons.	Total. Tons.
1846	12,514	12,807	1,686	27,007
1847	12,635	37,543	7,195	57,373
1848	50,188	33,621	7,237	92,046
1849	33,849	57,135	13,203	104,187
1850	29,808	66,338	19,486	115,632
1851	78,199	64,301	19,293	161,793
1852	74,468	72,064	22,196	168,728

Of this extraordinary increase during the last year, 1852, New York received from us 135,299 tons; Boston, 24,414 tons; and Philadelphia, 12,024 tons.

The shipments to the East Indies are falling off. The total exports from Great Britain to Calcutta, of all sorts of iron, last year only amounted to 14,020 tons, of which 4,404 were sent from Liverpool.

THE IRON TRADE OF SCOTLAND.

The average value, per week, of the whole make of pig iron in Scotland was, in 1830, £8,000; 1840, £22,000; 1845, £36,000; 1850, £25,000; 1851, £29,500; and, at 75s. per ton, it is now £56,250 per week. Mr. H. L. Seligmann, of Glasgow, estimates that the production during the past year was estimated at 770,000 tons, and for the year previous, 765,000 tons; of which there was stored in Glasgow, in 1852, 251,000 tons; in makers' hands and stored at other ports, 189,000 tons—total, 440,000 tons. In 1851 there was stored in Glasgow, 130,000 tons; in makers' hands in other ports, 210,000—total, 304,000 tons. Of the shipments from all ports in Scotland there was, in 1852, foreign, including transhipment at Liverpool, 212,000 tons; coastwise, 218,000—total, 440,000 tons. In 1851, foreign, including transhipment at Liverpool, 178,000 tons; coastwise, 271,000 tons—total, 449,000 tons. In the past year, the highest number of furnaces in blast was in the month of December, and amounted to 113; and the lowest number was in July, and amounted to 106. In 1851, the highest number was in December, and amounted to 115; and the lowest number was in January, and amounted to 165.

MANUFACTURE OF SILESIA IRON.

The London *Mechanics' Magazine* says :—The most extensive display of iron, in all the stages of its manufacture, is sent from the numerous forges of Hutton, of Count Renard, who alone occupies a large portion of the basement of the building. The quality of the metal produced at his works has secured a local reputation, though other establishments, as the Laura Works, at Beuthen, produce iron in bar, and the larger forms, in greater quantity. The Renard Works are unrivalled in the finer sorts; and of hoop iron, nail rods, wire, cast iron for cooking vessels, steel in many varieties, especially forged steel of the finest quality, there is a most abundant supply. Sheet iron is exhibited from these works, of such a degree of tenacity that the leaves can be used for paper. A bookbinder of Breslau has made an album of nothing else, the pages of which turn as flexibly as the finest fabric of linen rags. As yet no extensive application for this form of the metal has been found, but the manager says the material must precede the use for it; perhaps books may hereafter be printed for the tropics on these metallic leaves, and defy the destructive power of ants, or any color or strength of forceps. We have only to invent a white ink, and the thing is done. Of the finest sort the machinery rolls 7,040 square feet of what may be called leaf iron, from a hundred weight of metal. In point of price, however, the Silesian iron cannot compete with the English; much is still smelted with wood, and the coal and iron districts lie at greater distances from each other, so that much capital is consumed by the conveyance of fuel to the works.

MINING AND MANUFACTURING CORPORATIONS IN MICHIGAN.

AN ACT TO AUTHORIZE THE FORMATION OF CORPORATIONS FOR MINING, SMELTING, OR MANUFACTURING IRON, COPPER, MINERAL COAL, SILVER, OR OTHER ORES OR MINERALS, AND FOR OTHER MANUFACTURING PURPOSES.

SECTION 1. *The people of the State of Michigan enact.* All corporations organized and established under the provisions of this act, shall be capable of suing and being sued, in any court in this State, and may have a common seal, and alter or amend the same at pleasure; may elect, in such a manner as they shall determine, all necessary officers; may fix their compensation and determine their duties, and make from time to time, such by-laws, not inconsistent with the constitution and laws of this State, as a majority of the stockholders shall direct.

SEC. 2. Any number of persons, not less than three, who shall, by articles of agreement, in writing, associate according to the provisions of this act, under any name assumed by them for the purpose of engaging in and carrying on any kind of mining or manufacturing business, or who shall comply with the provisions of this act, shall, with their successors and assigns, constitute a body politic or corporate, in fact, and under any name assumed by them in their articles of association, provided no two companies shall assume the same name.

SEC. 3. Before any corporation formed under this act shall commence business, the president and directors shall cause their articles of association to be filed with the Secretary of State of this State, and with the county clerk of the county or counties in which any such corporation shall conduct its mining or manufacturing business; which said articles shall be recorded in said office at length, in books prepared for that purpose at the expense of said corporation.

SEC. 4. The articles of every such association shall be signed by the persons associating in the first instance, and acknowledged before some person authorized by the laws of this State to take acknowledgments of deeds, and shall state:—

1. Distinctly and definitely the purpose for which the same is formed.
2. The amount of their capital stock and the number of shares.
3. The amount of capital stock actually paid in.
4. The name of the stockholders, their respective residences, and the number of shares held by each person.
5. The place in this State where their office for the transaction of business is located, and the county or counties in which their business is to be carried on.
6. The term of its existence not to exceed thirty years.

SEC. 5. Every such corporation shall annually in the month of July, make a report, signed by a majority of the board of directors, containing:—

1. The amount of capital actually paid in.
2. The amount invested in real estate.
3. The amount of personal estate.
4. The amount of their debts and credits as near as may be.
5. The name of each stockholder and the number of shares held by him at the date of such report; and every such report shall be verified on oath, by the officers signing the same; and if any person shall, as to any material facts, knowingly swear or affirm falsely, he shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and be punished accordingly.

SEC. 6. The amount of the capital stock in every such corporation shall be fixed and limited by the stockholders in their articles of association, and shall, in no case, be less than ten thousand dollars, nor more than five hundred thousand dollars, and shall be divided into shares of twenty-five dollars each. The capital stock may be increased, and the number of shares, at any meeting of the stockholders called for that purpose; *provided*, that the amount so increased shall not, with the existing capital, exceed five hundred thousand dollars.

SEC. 7. The purposes for which every such corporation shall be established shall be distinctly and definitely specified in the articles of association; and it shall not be lawful for said corporation to appropriate its funds to any other purpose.

SEC. 8. When any corporation shall be formed under this act, any two of those associated may call the first meeting of the corporation at such time and place as they may appoint, by giving notice thereof, by publishing the same in a newspaper, at least fifteen days before the time appointed for such meeting.

SEC. 9. The stock, property, and affairs of such corporation, shall be managed by not less than three, nor more than nine directors, as the article shall determine, one of whom shall be a resident of this State. They shall hold their office one year, and until their successors shall be duly chosen.

SEC. 10. The directors of every such corporation shall choose one of their number president, and such other officers as their articles of association and by-laws may require, who shall hold their offices one year, or until a majority of the stockholders choose others in their stead. The directors for the time being shall have power to fill any vacancy which may happen in their board by death, resignation, or otherwise, for the current year.

SEC. 11. The directors may call in the subscription to the capital stock of such corporation by installments, in such portion, and at such times and places as they shall think proper, by giving notice thereof as the by-laws shall prescribe, and in case any stockholder shall neglect or refuse payment of any such installment for the space of sixty days after the same shall have become due and payable, and after he shall have been notified thereof, the stock of such delinquent stockholders may be sold by the directors at public auction, at the office of the secretary of the corporation, giving at least thirty days notice in some newspaper published in the county: *Provided*, That if said stockholder shall reside in this State, the stock shall be sold at the business office of said corporation, in the county in which they are doing business, giving at least thirty days notice thereof in some newspaper published in the county; if no newspaper be published in said county, in which such corporation transact their business, then it shall be published in some newspaper in the city of Detroit; and the proceeds of such sale shall be first applied in payment of the installment called for, and the expenses on the same, and the residue shall be refunded to the owner thereof; and such sale shall entitle the purchaser to all the rights of a stockholder to the extent of the shares so bought.

SEC. 12. A majority of the directors of every such corporation, convened according to the by-laws, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business; and those holding a majority of the stock, at any meeting of the stockholders, shall be capable of transacting the business of the meeting; and at all meetings of such stockholders, each share shall be entitled to one vote. Stockholders may appear and vote in person, or by proxy, duly filed.

SEC. 13. If it shall so happen that an election of directors shall not take place at the annual meeting, such corporation shall not be dissolved, but the election may be held at any time thereafter, by giving thirty days notice of the time and place of such election, in the manner provided in the eleventh section.

SEC. 14. The books of every such corporation containing the accounts shall, at all reasonable times, be open for the inspection of any of the stockholders, and so often as once in each year a statement of the accounts of such corporation shall be made by order of the directors and laid before the stockholders.

SEC. 15. Every such corporation shall by their name have power to acquire and hold all such real and personal estate as shall be necessary for the purposes of carrying on the business of such corporation: *Provided*, That their real estate shall not exceed three thousand acres.

SEC. 16. The stock of every such corporation shall be deemed personal property, and shall be transferred only on the books of such company in such form as the directors shall prescribe; and such corporation shall at all times have a lien upon the stock or property of its members, invested therein, for all the debts due from them to such corporation, which may be enforced by advertisement and sale, in the manner herein provided for selling delinquent stock; and all purchasers at such sale shall be entitled to the rights of stockholders.

SEC. 17. The stockholders of all corporations founded upon this act, shall be individually liable for all labor performed for such corporation or associations, which said liability may be enforced against any stockholders founded on this statute at any time after an execution shall be returned not satisfied against said company, *Provided always*, That if any stockholder shall be compelled by any such action to pay the debts of any creditor, or any part thereof, he shall have the right to call upon all the stockholders to contribute their part of the sum so paid by him as aforesaid, and may sue them jointly or severally, or any number of them, and recover in such action the ratable amount due from the person or persons so sued.

SEC. 18. Every such corporation formed for mining purposes, shall annually, in the month of July in each year, make a report, which shall state the amount of copper, iron, or other mineral which such company may have mined within the year past, which report shall be signed by the president and a majority of the directors, and shall be verified by the oath of the secretary or other officer making the same, and be filed in the office of the clerk of the county in which the business of any such corporation is carried on, and a duplicate thereof in the office of the Auditor General,

SEC. 19. Every corporation formed under the provisions of this act, for the purposes of carrying on manufacturing business, shall annually in the month of July, in each year, make a report, which shall state the amount of capital actually paid in, and the amount borrowed by such company and remaining unpaid in whole or in part; which report shall be signed by a majority of the directors, and verified by the oath of the secretary or other officers making the same, and be filed in the office of the clerk of the county in which the business of any such corporation is carried on, and a duplicate thereof in the office of the Auditor General.

SEC. 20. All corporations formed under the provisions of this act for the purpose of mining, shall pay into the State treasury specific taxes, as follows, that is to say: every such corporation engaged in copper mining, shall pay a tax of one dollar for each ton of copper of mineral obtained, every such corporation engaged in iron mining, shall pay a tax of ten cents for each ton of iron obtained, and every such corporation engaged in coal mining, shall pay a tax of one-half cent for each ton of coal obtained by such corporation in such mining business; which taxes shall be paid annually, in the month of July, at the office of the State Treasurer, or such place in the city of Detroit as he may designate; and the same shall be in lieu of all State taxes to be paid by such corporations respectively: *Provided*, Nothing herein shall exempt from State taxation, any property of said corporation not invested in the said mining or manufacturing business, contemplated in this act.

SEC. 21. All corporations formed under the provisions of this act for manufacturing purposes, shall pay to the State a specific tax of one-half of one per cent on the amount of their capital stock paid in, and also money borrowed, which for this purpose shall be considered as capital stock of such corporations. The said tax shall be paid on the first day of September, at the office of the State Treasurer, or such place in the city of Detroit as he may designate, and the same shall be in lieu of all State taxes to be paid by such corporations respectively.

SEC. 22. Service of any legal process against any corporation formed under this act, may be made on the president, secretary, or agent, or if neither of them can be found in the county in which by their articles of association they are to do their business, then such service may be made by posting a true copy thereof on some conspicuous place at the business office of the company in said county.

SEC. 23. If the directors of any such company shall intentionally neglect or refuse to comply with the provisions and to perform the duties required of them by sections three, five, eighteen, and nineteen of this act, they shall be jointly and severally liable in an action founded on this statute for all the debts of such corporation contracted during the period of such neglect or refusal; and such of them as were present and acting as such directors at any time during such neglect or refusal, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and may, on conviction thereof, be fined a sum not exceeding five thousand dollars, or imprisonment for a term not exceeding two years, or both, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 24. If any such corporation, organized and established under this act, shall wilfully violate any of its provisions, and shall thereby become insolvent, the directors ordering or assenting to such violation shall jointly and severally be liable in an action founded on this statute for all debts contracted after such violation.

SEC. 25. The Legislature may at any time, for just cause, rescind the powers of any corporation created pursuant to the provisions of this act, and prescribe such mode as may be necessary or expedient for the settlement of its affairs. The Legislature may repeal, alter, or amend this act.

SEC. 26. That this act shall be subject to the provisions of chapter fifty five, title ten, of the revised statutes of 1846, so far as applicable to companies formed under this act.

SEC. 27. This act shall take effect immediately.

Approved February 5, 1853.

COTTON AND OTHER MANUFACTURES OF PRUSSIA.

From a statistical return, just published by the Prussian Government, it appears, that there now exist in that country, 2,207 spinning mills; 5,188 manufactories, dye-works, and cotton printing establishments; 39,253 mills of different kinds; 12,960 large metal works; 17,165 breweries; and 4,535 other manufactories of different kinds; making a total of 81,308 establishments, occupying 515,551 workmen.

FRENCH GELATINE.

How to get a pennyworth of beauty out of old bones and bits of skin, says Dickens, in his *Household Words*, is a problem which the French gelatine-makers have solved very prettily. Does the reader remember some gorgeous sheets of colored gelatine in the French department of the Great Exhibition? We owed them to the slaughter-houses of Paris. Those establishments are so well organized and conducted, that all the refuse is carefully preserved, to be applied to any purposes for which it may be deemed fitting. Very pure gelatine is made from the waste fragments of skin, bone, tendon, ligature, and gelatinous tissue of the animals slaughtered in the Parisian abattoirs; and thin sheets of this gelatine are made to receive very rich and beautiful colors. As a gelatinous liquid, when melted, it is used in the dressing of woven stuffs, and in the clarification of wine; and, as a solid, it is cut into threads for the ornamental uses of the confectioner, or made into thin, white, and transparent sheets of *papier glace* for copying drawings, or applied in the making of artificial flowers, or used as a substitute for paper on which gold printing may be executed. In good sooth, when an ox has given us our beef, and our leather, and our tallow, his career of usefulness is by no means ended: we can get a penny out of him as long as there is a scrap of his substance above ground.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

THE CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The *Washington Union* says that this work is being rapidly printed. That it will be a volume similar to those of the Congressional Globe, but of about 1,600 pages. The type, paper, binding, etc., are superior, and the volume very convenient for reference and for the shelves of the library, in this respect differing from previous census reports.

The appendix includes brief and condensed notes necessary to the understanding or explanation of the text, or to account for any of its deficiencies; and the introductory chapter comprises the aggregate for the United States, their comparison with other census returns, and with the returns of foreign countries. Some remarks upon the plan of the census, in the preparation of which circulars have been freely sent out by Mr. De Bow to members of Congress and to others, to guard, as far as possible, against the chances of error, or to furnish, if possible, the means of its detection.

The arrangement of the census is such that the States and Territories can be detached, if desired, from the volume, their statistical results being developed in every instance separately, in the following tabular form:—

1. Population by counties, classification of ages, and color—aggregate.
2. Population by subdivisions of counties.
3. Nativities of the population.
4. Births, marriages, deaths, dwellings, and families.
5. Progress of population from 1790 to 1850.
6. Deaf and dumb, blind, idiotic, and insane.
7. Colleges, academies, schools, &c.
8. Attending school during the year, as returned by families.
9. Adults in the State who cannot read and write.
10. Professions, occupations, and trades, of the male population.
11. Agriculture, farms, and implements, stock, products, home manufactures, &c.
12. Newspapers and periodicals.
13. Libraries, other than private.
14. Churches, church property, &c.

THE PAUPER POPULATION OF IRELAND AND ENGLAND.

The following "facts and figures," which we find in the *London Examiner*, will be read with interest by political economists and philanthropists:—

The sixth annual report of the poor law commissioners for Ireland, informs us the persons now requiring out-door relief in Ireland—who were heretofore many hundred thousands—and whose sad condition erewhile excited universal commiseration, though it has now almost passed out of remembrance—does not exceed 4,000 weekly, including heads of families and their dependents. In one week only, during the 20 months that have "elapsed since September, 1851, has the number exceeded 4,000." At the same time, the number of able-bodied poor in the work-houses had decreased from 60,759 in May, 1852, to 43,626 in April 23, 1853; and the total number of persons in the work-houses had decreased from 186,879 to 146,141, or about 22 per cent in the year. The expenditure, too, had decreased from £1,141,647, in 1851, to £883,267 in 1852, or also at the rate of 22 per cent. The following are the figures in a tabular form:—

	IN WORKHOUSE.				Totals.
	Males.	Able-bodied. Females.	Total.	All other classes, including the sick.	
May 1, 1852.....	16,760	43,999	60,759	126,120	186,879
April 3, 1853.....	11,818	31,808	43,626	102,515	146,141
Decrease	4,942	12,191	17,133	23,605	40,738

	EXPENDITURE AND NUMBER RELIEVED IN YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 29.		
	Expenditure.	Number relieved.	
		In-door.	Out-door.
1851.....	£1,141,647	707,443	47,914
1852.....	883,267	508,864	14,911
Decrease	258,380	198,579	33,003

The reduction in 1853 is, therefore, a great reduction on a previously large reduction both of the number of paupers and of their cost; and we may suppose that the greatest change that has occurred in any population in modern times, accompanied by great misery and great loss of life, is now terminated, and that a new prosperity dawns on the Irish, both in their own country and abroad.

At present rather contrary to what happened in former years, when the greatest amount of destitution was experienced in the summer as the potatoes came to an end, the maximum of claimants for relief occurs in the early part of the year. The number, therefore, is now declining week after week, and has been since February; so that by October next it is probable the total number of persons receiving relief in Ireland will not exceed 80,000, or more than 1 in 80 of the population—a very small proportion compared to the pauperism of England, even in its present reduced state.

The gradual reduction in the number of the juvenile inmates of work-houses is the consequence of the young persons having the means of subsistence provided for them outside by their parents and friends, or the means being provided for the inmates to join their relations in America, or in England or Scotland. In the last year there was remitted £2,158 to enable 377 inmates of work-houses to join their friends in America, £136 to send 489 to England and Scotland, £221 to help 31 out to Australia. The remittances are increasing and are expected to increase. A sum of £14,041 also was applied by the poor law guardians to the same objects in the year ending September last; and from that time to March they have assisted 3,825 persons to emigrate. A more beneficial change than from the work-house to a brisk demand for labor and good wages, can scarcely be conceived; and it gives a true picture of the regeneration of the Irish from idleness, disease, and destitution, to industry, comfort, and independence.

The most effectual cause, however, for the depletion of the work-houses, is the growing demand for labor, while emigration has reduced the number of hands. As yet, the rate of wages has not risen much, and is only in a few cases higher in 1853 than in 1845; but there is more general and continuous employment for the people. They are able to earn more money, if the rate be not much advanced. Those who remain in Ireland are better off, as well as those who remove, and the improvement, as, perhaps, might be expected, is the greatest in the districts that were most necessitous. The actual reduction of pauperism in Connaught since 1851, say the commissioners, has been beyond all expectation. Since April, 1851, the inmates of the work-houses in that province have fallen off from 42,286 to 17,389, or 60 per cent,

the number of able-bodied females having declined from 12,267 to 3,587, or 70 per cent, and of children under 15, from 18,620 to 8,569, or 55 per cent. In particular unions distinguished for their poverty, the rate of reduction has been still greater: "In Belmullet, from 1,790 in 1851 to 387 in 1853, or 80 per cent; in Newport, from 1,644 to 320, or 75 per cent; in Clifden, from 2,771 to 557, or 80 per cent; and in Westport, from 2,757 to 539, or 80 per cent." That the young and the females escape from pauperism in the poorest districts, is an evidence that the evil is drying up at its source, and that pauperism will be even more diminished than the commissioners contemplate.

The public may rejoice at that; for, with the strictest care, work-house life is fatal alike to moral and physical health. The sad picture we borrowed a fortnight ago from Dr. Forbes' work on Ireland, of the prevalence of ophthalmia in the work-houses, is proved by the Commissioners' report not to be too highly colored. The following is their statement of ophthalmia in the work-houses:—

	Cases admitted.	Lost both eyes.	Lost one eye.	Sight inj'd
1851.....	42,067	263	656	754
1852.....	28,765	137	298	476

Soldiers in barracks, to whom the greatest attention is paid, as well as the inmates of workhouses, are a prey to disease and a high rate of mortality; and it may be suspected that all such close and artificial packing of large numbers of persons is inimical to health. It is a satisfaction, therefore, to think that work-houses are likely in a great measure to be emptied. At present they assume the character of hospitals for the reception of the destitute sick, and the Commissioners, it may be hoped, will be spared the trouble of devising plans for educating and employing a "large number of children deserted or made orphans by famine." They seem, indeed, inclined to agree with those who deprecate the introduction of arrangements tending to retain paupers in the workhouse, and of making pauperism, as it were, an institution of the State, by providing for it and making it self-supporting. With such a small proportion of the people reduced to pauperism, as seems likely hereafter to be the case in Ireland, the object should be to distribute the few paupers as much as possible throughout society, and not congregate them into diseased and festering masses.

We regret to see that England is not doing as well with regard to pauperism as Ireland. A return issued on Thursday of the amount of money expended for in-maintenance and for out-door relief in 608 unions and parishes in England and Wales, during the half-years ending Lady-day 1852 and 1853 respectively, shows an increase in the last half-year of £23,478. No doubt this increase is amply accounted for by the rise in the price of all the necessaries of life; but we hoped, from the isolated cases of diminution published, that the decrease in the number of paupers would compensate for the rise in the price of their maintenance, and rather lessen than increase the expenditure. The winter has been unusually protracted, and a great diminution has probably ensued of field labor. At the same time hands have been scarce. We have heard of great diminutions of pauperism at Birmingham, for example, at the same time the increase of expense in Warwick is 5.3 per cent. The agricultural population, therefore, rather than the town population, swell the expenditure for pauperism.

The deep-seated and long continued pauperism of England seems not susceptible of decrease from the generous motives which are clearing out the Irish work-houses; and the generations habituated here, through a long period of unwise restrictions and paternal care, to be fed by poor rates, must die out before the pauperized people of England can recover their independence.

POPULATION OF CALIFORNIA.

The following is a synopsis of the official returns as far as received of the State census recently taken:—

	Inhabitants.	Whites.	Indians.	Foreign.
Santa Clara County.....	6,664	6,158	900	1,335
Mariposa County.....	8,968	4,353	4,533	1,571
Yuba County.....	22,005	17,545	120	4,915
San Joaquin County.....	5,029	4,669	369	861
Nevada County.....	20,364	12,727	3,266	4,669
Shasta County.....	3,833	3,700	73	825
Total.....	66,863	49,152	9,261	13,356

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

QUARANTINE REGULATIONS OF TURKEY.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, July 23, 1853.

Information has been received at this Department from the United States Consul at Smyrna, that the quarantine regulations of Turkey require that every vessel leaving a port of the United States, bound to Smyrna, should be provided with a bill of health from the proper authorities, in which the exact number of persons on board must appear; and in case the vessel on her voyage out should put into an intermediate port, any alteration that may take place in the number of the crew or passengers by death, accident, &c., must be noted in a bill of health given by the health officer of such port, or by a consul of the United States; in default of which the vessel is obliged to perform ten days' quarantine. Should the intermediate port be one of Greece, the bill of health from the health office is not sufficient, but it must be certified by an American Consul, or by the Consul of some other power at peace with the United States; otherwise the vessel is required to perform a quarantine of twenty-one days. When a vessel is bound from one Turkish port to another, the bill of health must be taken from the Turkish health office of the port of her departure.

AUSTRALIA, BASS'S STRAIT.

REVOLVING LIGHT ON CAPE OTWAY.

TRINITY-HOUSE, LONDON, July 20th, 1853.

The following particulars respecting the revolving light at Cape Otway, (the first exhibition of which in August, 1848, was notified from this House, on the 11th April, 1849,) having been communicated to this corporation by direction of her majesty's secretary of state for the colonies, are hereby made public for the general information of mariners, viz:—

The light-house on Cape Otway in Bass's Straits, is situate in latitude $38^{\circ} 51'$ south, and in longitude $143^{\circ} 29'$ east. The light revolves, showing a bright flash once in every minute, and burns at the height of 300 feet above the level of high water, and may be seen, by estimation, at the distance of eight leagues.

Mariners are requested to observe that the reef off Cape Otway, lies about one-half or three quarter's of a mile therefrom, in a S. E. to S. S. W. direction, and extends $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the westward. By order,

J. HERBERT, Secretary.

LIGHT ON SORELLO POINT,

NEAR CAPE GRANITOLA, ON THE SOUTH COAST OF SICILY.

HYDROGRAPHIC-OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, June 9, 1853.

Her majesty's government has been officially informed that a Fixed Light, but varied by a flash every three minutes, was to be established on the 20th of this month on Sorello Point or South Eastern Point of Cape Granitola, in $37^{\circ} 33' 50''$ N., $12^{\circ} 37' 36''$ East of Greenwich, on the South Coast of Sicily.

The Light will appear at an elevation of 87 feet above the level of the sea, and will be visible, in clear weather, at the distance of 14 miles from the deck of a moderate sized vessel.

QUARANTINE REGULATIONS AT PUERTO RICO.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, July 23, 1853.

Information has been received from the United States Consul at St. John's, Puerto Rico, that the government of the island has determined to enforce strictly the quarantine laws of the island, whereby all vessels coming to the different ports in Puerto Rico are required to produce bills of health, with the certificates of the Spanish Consul attached, if there is one at the port of departure; otherwise they will be subjected to a rigorous quarantine, and incur heavy expenses.

LIGHTS AT THE ENTRANCE OF MANILLA BAY, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

HYDROGRAPHIC-OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, JUNE 28, 1853.

Her majesty's government has been officially informed of the establishment, on the first day of February last, of two lights in the Entrance of Manilla Bay.

The first is a Revolving Light, eclipsed every minute, in $14^{\circ} 23' 5''$ N., and $120^{\circ} 33' 56''$ east of Greenwich: it stands on the summit of Corregidor Island, at an elevation of 648 feet above the level of the sea, and the Spanish account adds, that it is visible at the distance of 40 miles.

It bears from the Monja Rock North 86° East.

The second is a Fixed Light, and placed on the small steep Island of Caballo, at an elevation of 417 feet above the sea, about two miles to the eastward of Corregidor. This Light can be seen but nine miles, and only when it bears to the northward of East or West; so that a vessel having entered the Bay will lose sight of it as soon as she has passed Caballo Island, and will have to rely on the great Light of Corregidor to guide her to the anchorage off Manilla.

Fraila Island is $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Caballo, the Light on which is useful in dark nights to ships passing between them; but none of these islands should be approached within half a mile, as the current is strong.

SAND CAY LIGHT, FLORIDA REEF.

HYDROGRAPHIC-OFFICE, May 28, 1853.

Her Majesty's Government has received information that the Lighthouse on Sand Cay, which was destroyed by a hurricane in 1846, has been rebuilt, and that the light will reappear in the course of next month.

The Light-tower is cylindric, but stands on a square base supported by 17 iron piles, and the whole structure rises 121 feet above low water, and is all painted black, except the lantern, which is white.

The light is fixed, but varied by flashes; for one minute showing a steady light, and in the next minute a flash of ten seconds duration, preceded and followed by eclipses of 25 seconds.

It stands in $24^{\circ} 27' 9''$ N., and $81^{\circ} 52' 43''$ W. of Greenwich, and being about 100 feet above the high-water level of the sea, may be seen in clear weather at the distance of 16 miles by an eye 15 feet above the water.

ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH, SOUTH FORELAND TO BELGIUM.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

TRINITY-HOUSE, LONDON, June 28th, 1853.

Notice is hereby given, that the Sub-marine Cable, extending from the South Foreland to Belgium, lies in an E. by S. direction, (by compass,) with the South Foreland Lighthouses in line, bearing W. by N., until without the stream of the Goodwin Sand, passing about one mile to the southward of the South Sand Head Light Vessel, after which it takes a general E. S. E. direction across to the Flemish Banks.

Mariners are requested to observe, that it is desirable that vessels should not anchor with this mark or bearing on, lest, by so doing, they damage the Electric Cable, or lose their own anchors.

By order,

J. HERBERT, Secretary.

OXO FIXED LIGHT, ENTRANCE TO CHRISTIANA, NORWAY.

HYDROGRAPHIC-OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, July 10, 1853.

The following is an extract from a notice issued by this office on the 25th February last:—

Oxo, name of Light; $8^{\circ} 6' 35''$, Lon. E. from Greenwich; $58^{\circ} 3' 25''$, N. Lat.; existing light—Fixed Light, with a flash every 4th minute; to be altered into—One Fixed Light, 2d order; high above the level of the sea, 135 feet; visible at the distance of 18 sea miles.

Her Majesty's Government has now been officially informed, that the above-mentioned alteration has been carried into effect, and that the light of Oxo will reappear on the 16th of the present month.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE GREAT HEAT IN THE MONTH OF AUGUST, 1853.

To FREEMAN HUNT, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine* :—

SIR :—One of the most extraordinary terms of hot weather ever experienced in this latitude was felt here on the 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th of August instant. On Monday, the 8th of August, a fearful thunder-storm passed this meridian about 10 P. M., and commenced the heated term; and the day following, the 9th, the temperature rose to 85 degrees, and continued rising every day until the 13th, when it reached 95 degrees: on the 14th it fell to 93 degrees, when another thunder-storm, still more fearful and appalling, terminated the heated term.

The following statement of temperature (in the shade) we copy from our thermometrical record :—

Tuesday, August	9—80 to 85 degrees, for nine consecutive hours.			
Wednesday,	10—80 to 90	“	fifteen	“
Thursday,	11—80 to 92	“	“	“
Friday,	12—80 to 93	“	seventeen	“
Saturday,	13—80 to 95	“	“	“
Sunday,	14—80 to 93	“	fifteen	“

The changes during each of the six days named were as follows :—

Tuesday, August	9—Change in the 24 hours,	19 degrees.
Wednesday,	10	“ 18 “
Thursday,	11	“ 18 “
Friday,	12	“ 19 “
Saturday,	13	“ 19 “
Sunday,	14	“ 17 “

It will be seen by this brief statement, that the changes each day differed but two degrees from each other.

The heated air possessed peculiar properties, and was very destructive to human life. It is supposed that at least three hundred persons died from the effect of heat, during the 12th, 13th, and 14th, in the cities of New York and Brooklyn; and its effects were not confined alone to animal life—the potatoes, still in the ground, in the immediate vicinity were seized suddenly with the disease, and in three days the crops in very many places became putrid.

On Wednesday evening, and again on Saturday evening, during this heated term, thunder-storms prevailed at a distance, but the distant lightning was visible here.

We have kept an hourly thermometrical record, now covering eight consecutive years, which shows but three days in August, during that time, in which the temperature has reached 90 degrees. The first of these occurred on the 5th of August, 1846, when it rose to 90½, and the next day, the 6th, rose to 92 degrees. These two days belonged to a warm term which commenced on the 27th of July, and continued till the 10th of August—duration, fifteen consecutive days—during which the highest temperature of the atmosphere was from 80 to 92. The other was on the 6th of August, 1850, when the temperature rose to 91 degrees. This belonged to a warm term which commenced on the 28th of July, and continued till the 16th of August, during which the highest temperature was from 80 to 90 degrees, for twenty consecutive days.

We have a thermometrical record extending from 1803 to 1853, in which the temperature was noted three times each day, and this does not show any such tempera-

ture, either in intensity, duration, or the disastrous effects on human life, as that of the six days we have here named.

We have a correspondent, who has been staying at the Summit House, Mount Washington, since the 7th of June last; he has furnished us with a copy of the record of his thermometrical observations made there, at an altitude of 6,265 feet above the sea, by which it appears that at no time during this heated term did the temperature there rise above 62 degrees. The difference between the temperature on Mount Washington and that on Long Island, during the six heated days, was as follows:—

Tuesday, August	9—33	degrees.
Wednesday,	10—31	"
Thursday,	11—29	"
Friday,	12—33	"
Saturday,	13—35	"
Sunday,	14—33	"

On Mount Washington a fearful thunder-storm, accompanied by hail, was experienced at 4 p. m., on Monday, the 8th, and there was lightning in the evening at a distance; and on Sunday, the 14th, a thunder and lightning storm, still more fearful and appalling, passed that mountain-top at 2 p. m. It will be seen, by a comparison of the two accounts, that the lightning-storms of the 8th and 14th passed Mount Washington several hours before they reached here.

The pinnacle of Mount Washington is within less than four thousand feet of that portion of the atmosphere where the frost is perpetual. Beneath this frigid canopy, which extends over the whole earth, is the dwelling-place of the human race.

BROOKLYN HEIGHTS, August 22d, 1853.

E. MERIAM.

FRANKENSTEIN'S PANORAMA OF NIAGARA.

We noticed this beautiful work of art in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine*. We were present on the opening night, on the 18th July, in Hope Chapel, Broadway, New York, and notwithstanding we saw parts of the work while in progress, which was calculated in some measure to deprive it of its novelty to our eye, we entered heartily into the applause of the large and intelligent audience on that occasion. In naturalness and truth it possesses greater merit than any thing of the kind we have ever seen. The closeness with which the representation often approximates nature, absolutely identifies it with it, and deceives the sense. No one can look upon Frankenstein's Niagara without being impressed with the emotion of sublime awe that is felt by all who go to and remain at Niagara any length of time. In the Panorama all the most picturesque, beautiful, sublime, and grand scenes, which abound as profusely at Niagara as vast ideas in a great brain, are presented vividly, life-like, real.

THE FAST MAN OF BUSINESS.

Closely upon the heels of the gambler came the "fast" man of business—in haste to be rich, impatient of labor, and, by his expenses, proving that if he did not make his own fortune, he understood as well how to spend another man's fortune as if he learned the art in our Common Council. Life to such a man was very like a Mississippi voyage to those on the lookout for a race, consoling themselves with the reflection that the chances of their rival's boiler bursting and blowing them to atoms would be as great as their own. The "fast man" thought the locomotive but a "slow coach," and that the telegraph "did very well for a beginning." The "fast man" of business also looked forward with confident expectation for the arrival of the period when all days of receipt would be brought very near, and all days of payment indefinitely postponed.—*Rev. Samuel Osgood.*

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Mississippi and Ohio Rivers: containing plans for the protection of the Delta from inundation, and investigations of the practicability and cost of improving the navigation of the Ohio and other rivers by means of Reservoirs, with an appendix on the bars at the mouth of the Mississippi.* By CHARLES ELLET, Jr., Civil Engineer. 8vo., pp. 367. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

Mr. Ellet has furnished a fund of knowledge and information in this work, which must command the attention of professional and scientific readers. The importance of the subject attracted the notice of Congress, and resulted in directing the Secretary of War to institute the necessary surveys and investigations for the prevention of the overflow of the Delta, and increasing the depths of water on the bars at the mouth of the Mississippi. In making these surveys, Mr. Ellet has introduced a new system of civil engineering, which must increase in interest as it becomes more fully developed. His views are supported by irresistible arguments and clear reasoning. His calculations are made with great care, and the diagrams illustrate his subject perfectly. He attributes the greater frequency, and the more alarming character of the floods of the Mississippi, to the extension of cultivation along the valley of the Mississippi, by which evaporation is diminished and drainage obviously increased, and the floods hurried forward more rapidly into the country below. Another cause, he says, is the extension of the levees along the borders of the river, and its tributaries and outlets, by means of which the water that was formerly allowed to spread over many thousand square miles of low lands, is becoming more and more confined to the immediate channel of the river, and is therefore compelled to rise higher and flow faster, until, under the increased power of the current, it may have time to excavate a wider and deeper trench, to give vent to the increased volume which it conveys.

- 2.—*Scenes and Adventures in the Semi-Alpine Region of the Ozark Mountains of Missouri and Arkansas, which were first traversed by De Soto, in 1551.* By HENRY K. SCHOOLCRAFT. 8vo., pp. 256. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

Four and thirty years have passed away since the travels here brought to view were terminated. But time, it is believed, has not destroyed their value. They describe the first and only attempt to identify the famous De Soto's march west of the Mississippi, and they recall reminiscences of scenes and observations which belong to the history of the discovery and settlement of the country. The appendix, which is extensive, embraces a vast store of scientific facts and observations on the mines and mineralogy of Missouri, with full descriptions of the methods pursued at that period in the manufacture of lead ore. These have, to some extent, been published before.

- 3.—*The Pro-slavery Argument, as maintained by the most distinguished writers of the Southern States: containing the several Essays on the subject, of Chancellor Harper, Governor Hammond, Dr. Simms, and Professor Dew.* 12mo., pp. 490. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

This volume contains Harper's Memoir of Slavery, Gov. Hammond's Letters on Slavery; an Essay on the Morals of Slavery, by Wm. Gilmore Simms, and Professor Dew on Slavery. The whole subject is discussed with ability and learning; and we are glad to find embodied in one volume some of the ablest and best papers on the Southern side of the question of Slavery that have been produced. We commend the volume to all who would candidly examine the arguments in support of the "peculiar institution."

- 4.—*The Sword and the Distaff: or, "Fair, Fat, and Forty."* A story of the South, at the close of the Revolution. By the author of "The Partisan," "Mellichampe," "Katharine Walton," &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 591. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

This work is doubly interesting from the circumstance of its being drawn from real life. It is well written, and embraces a period of our country's history which is rendered peculiarly attractive to the reader, as furnishing so many thrilling and exciting incidents, which wear more the semblance of fiction than truth.

5.—*Juvenile Books.* New York: Published by Robert Carter & Brothers.

Great progress has been made since the writer was a boy, in books for the young, not only in their character, but in the style in which they were produced. The "Mother Goose Melodies," and other senseless nonsense of the past, is replaced by works that are at once interesting and instructive, without being dull and prosy. The fact is, writers, men and women of genius, especially the latter, have applied themselves to the task of teaching the young idea how and what to read. As an illustration of the above remarks we refer to the twelve volumes now before us, which in every respect reflect credit upon the taste and judgment of the publishers, and upon the progressive spirit of the times. "Clever Stories," Little Lessons for Little Learners, "A Call to the Lambs," "Jamie Gordon, or the Orphan," "Three months under the Snow," "Frank Harrison," "Collier's Tale," "The Swamp and the Lantern," "Clara Stanley," "Sequel to Mamma's Bible Stories," "A Hundred Short Stories," "Child's own Story Book," "Rhymes for the Nursery," etc., the titles of the Brothers Carter's books, are volumes that may be put into the hands of little folks, with the assurance that they will neither corrupt the taste, nor the manners. They are printed on a fine white paper, the engravings are pretty, and the binding neat and attractive; and on the whole, they form a series of juveniles that are worthy of a place in every family, certainly every Sunday School library in the country.

6.—*The Slave Trade, Domestic and Foreign: Why it Exists, and How it may be Extinguished.* By H. C. CAREY. Author of the "Principles of Political Economy," "The Past, The Present, and The Future," etc., etc. 12mo., pp. 426. Philadelphia: A. Hart, late Carey & Hart.

Among the thousand and one means devised to extinguish slavery, the author has suggested one which has been in successful operation coexistent with the Colonization Society, and the founding of the Republic of Liberia is one of the evidences of the success of that admirably organized society. Mr. Carey says we have only to raise the value of man in Africa to terminate the African Slave Trade. Surely the Colonization Society is gradually, but surely, answering that demand. The unguarded expression which he makes that "there exists a 'higher law'—a great law of the Creator—that will effectually extinguish the trade whenever it shall be permitted to come into activity," presents a short method of doing the work, but his volume contains much valuable information on the introduction of slavery, and its progress and growth in the different countries of Europe as well as the United States, West India Islands, and South America.

7.—*Poetry of the Vegetable World; a popular Exposition of the Science of Botany, and its relations to Man.* By M. J. SCHLEIDEN, M. D., Professor of Botany in the University of Genoa. Illustrated with engravings. Edited by ALPHONZO WOOD, M. A., author of the "CLASS BOOK OF BOTANY," &c. 12mo., pp. 360. Cincinnati: Moore, Anderson, Welstach & Keys. New York: Newman & Ivison.

This is the first American edition, reprinted from that of Henfrey. Schleiden, the author, is one of the most distinguished and most accomplished botanists of the present day. The exhaustless beauties of the vegetable world—its spiritual aspect lies beyond the reach of mere science. Herein lies the charm of this work. While its author has everywhere exhibited the principles of science in the most attractive and perspicuous style, he has also contrived to blend with them the imaginative and the spiritual, and thus to render his work the exponent of the relations of the plant to the human soul. He has shown that the multiform vegetables of the material world are all ministering spirits. In a word, science and poetry are beautifully and harmoniously blended together.

8.—*Summer Stories of the South* By T. ADDISON RICHARDS. 12mo., pp. 255. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

This volume contains six tales, written in a graceful and pleasant style, and with sufficient pathos and humor to be read without wearing out the reader's patience in warm summer days.

9.—*A Budget of Stories from Chambers' "Papers for the People."* Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

This neat paper pamphlet of 168 pages, contains four choice tales, selected from "Chambers' Papers for the People," viz.: "The Helf-Castle," "The Lost Laird," "The Queen of Spades," and "The Last of the Ruthvens."

- 10.—*The Quadrupeds of North America*. By JOHN JAMES AUDUBON, F. R. S., &c., &c., and the Rev. JOHN BACHMAN, D. D. Royal 8vo., vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 40. New York: V. G. Audubon.

The first number of this great work is before us. From the prospectus of Mr. V. G. Audubon, (a son of the eminent naturalist,) we learn that the present will be a miniature copy of the large edition with figures and descriptions of the quadrupeds of the United States, (including Texas, California, and Oregon,) part of Mexico, the British possessions, and Arctic regions of our continent. The number before us contains five plates, colored engravings. The illustrations are not only scientifically correct, but interesting to all, from the varied occupations, expressions, and attitudes given to the different species, together with the appropriate accessories, such as trees, plants, landscapes, &c., with which the figures of the landscape are relieved. The engravings in the present number are—the common American Wild Cat, the Maryland Marmot, Woodchuck, Ground Hog (old and young,) Townsend's Rocky Mountain Hare (male and female,) Flanders Rat (male and female, and young of different ages,) and Richardson's Columbia Squirrel (male and female.) Each number is to contain five engravings, and the work completed in thirty numbers, and delivered to subscribers at intervals of not less than one month. Price of the work one dollar per number, to be paid on delivery.

- 11.—*The Boyhood of Great Men. Intended as an Example to Youth*. With Illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The object of this little work is to place before the "rising generation" brief sketches of the early career of those who have fought their way to eminence and distinction in the various walks of life, and thus develop in the mind of youth noble tastes and high principles, as well as to encourage, stimulate, and sustain that spirit of industry which is essential to the attainment of any position worth striving for. It furnishes sketches of poets, historians, critics, statesmen, lawyers, philanthropists, astronomers, natural philosophers, mathematicians, chemists, sailors, soldiers, musicians, painters, sculptors, scholars, divines, surgeons, and naturalists; and gives some account of the boyhood of two or more individuals in this classification, who, in after-life, secured fame, and left behind them a name more durable than marble.

- 12.—*The Cold Grapery, from American Practice: being a concise and detailed treatise on the cultivation of the exotic grape-vine, under glass, without artificial heat*. By WM. CHOUTON. 12mo., pp. 94. New York: J. C. Riker.

This volume makes a timely appearance. The method of raising exotic grapes, under glass, without artificial heat, has begun to attract considerable attention; and a work of experience in this country, and suited to our climate, can hardly fail to be extensively useful. The author has been prosecuting this branch of industry as a gardener, on Staten Island, for a considerable period, and has become quite successful in the production of these choice exotics. With much simplicity of design, he has collected within a small compass the fruits of his experience, hoping that it might be of use in assisting both the amateur and the inexperienced.

- 13.—*Home-Life in Germany*. By CHARLES LORING BRUCE. 12mo., pp. 448. New York: Charles Scribner.

This is one of the best books of travel we have met with, for it tells us just what we want to know about a foreign country—that is, what people eat and drink, how they amuse themselves, what their habits are at home, how their houses look, and, above all, what the usual talk and tone of thought is among the great middle classes of Germany. It is, in short, a sort of home history—a social life of the people. In the appendix, we have an interesting account of the German tariff revenues, a feature that will interest the commercial reader.

- 14.—*The Young Lady's Guide to the Harmonious Development of Christian Character*. By HERVEY NEWCOMB. 18mo., pp. 330. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This is a very neat little volume and should be found in every young lady's library, instead of those works of fiction which produce such a morbid appetite for excitement. Habitual writing is highly recommended to young ladies, and nothing is better calculated to call out the resources of the mind than its practice; our thoughts become more methodical, and all the intellectual faculties are strengthened and improved by exertion.

- 15.—*Narrative of a Journey Round the World; Comprising a Winter Passage across the Andes to Chili; with a Visit to the Gold Regions of California and Australia, the South Sea Islands, Java, &c.* By F. GERSLAECKER. 12mo., pp. 624. New York: Harper & Brothers.

In his voyage "around the world," the author visited various parts of South America, California, the South Sea Islands, Australia, and the Island of Java, and gives us a very readable narrative of the incidents of his journey, with much interesting information relating to the manners and customs of the people; besides many statements touching the condition and resources of the several places visited. It appears to be a reliable narrative, written by a nice observer, and in a clear and direct style.

- 16.—*The British Cabinet in 1853.* 18mo., pp. 345. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

The present volume contains sketches of the political and personal history of the several members of the remarkable coalition ministry now in power in Great Britain. The establishment of this ministry may, we think, be regarded as marking an epoch in the political history of England, in which the old barriers of class and party rivalry are seen to have given way to something more in keeping with an age of progress. The work has evidently been prepared with care, and will be found to contain an accurate and competent sketch of all the members of the present British administration.

- 17.—*Lives of the Brothers Humboldt.* Alexander and William. Translated and Arranged from the German of KLENCKE & SCHLESIER. By JULIETTE BAUER. With Portraits. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The works of these remarkable men for so many years connected with the progress of science, are well known to the class of readers who will mainly desire to learn their personal history. The translator, we have no doubt, has done justice to the original German; at all events it furnishes a fine specimen of biographical writing, and is withal quite an attractive and readable book.

- 18.—*The Old and the New; or, Changes of Thirty Years in the East: with some allusions to Oriental Customs, as Elucidating Scripture.* By WM. GOODELL, Missionary in Constantinople of American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. With an Introduction by Rev. Wm. Adams, D. D. 12mo., pp. 239. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The facilities of the author for obtaining correct information were such as have enabled him to furnish an interesting work, and one that will command the attention of all who take an interest in missions, and it will repay the perusal of those who read for general information. The colored illustrations add much to the generally attractive character of the work.

- 19.—*Harry Coverdale's Courtship, and what came of it.* By the author of "Frank Fairleigh," "Lewis Arundel," &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 341. New York: H. Long & Brother.

This is an excellent work. The author lays siege to the reader's feelings, and does not remit his assault from the time when Coverdale's first symptoms of courtship begin to appear on his horizon, to the last page of the work.

- 20.—*Martin's Equation Tables for Averaging Accounts.* Imperial 8vo., pp. 83. Rochester: Erastus Darrow. New York: for sale by O. A. Roorback.

This is a very valuable work, furnishing to merchants, bookkeepers, accountants, manufacturers, and other business men, a complete and accurate set of calculations for averaging accounts. The work is got up with great care, and is calculated to render every facility to the accountant in the science of equations. The examples accompanying the tables are lucid and explanatory, and every counting-room should be furnished with a copy.

- 21.—*The British Colonies; their History, Condition, Extent, and Resources.* By R. M. MARTIN. Part 42. New York: J. Tallis & Co.

Sierra Leone, its early history, population, commerce, productions, &c., with the history of the British possessions in Western Africa, are the subjects of the present number of this valuable work. It is accompanied with an elegant map of the Islands of the Atlantic, and many fine engravings of places of note in them.

- 22.—*Life of Thomas Chalmers, D. D., LL. D.* Edited by Rev. JAMES C. MOFFAT, M. A., Professor of Latin and Lecturer on History in the College of New Jersey. 12mo., pp. 455. Cincinnati: Moore, Anderson, Wilstach & Keys. New York: Newman & Ivison.

This is an abstract of Dr. Hanna's elaborate work, designed for those who wish to know the outline of Dr. Chalmers' career, but who cannot either afford to purchase, or have not the leisure nor the taste to peruse, many volumes on the subject. It embraces the principal part of these volumes briefly and consecutively; retaining the words of Dr. Hanna in all cases where consistent with the desired brevity. Professor Moffat appears to have performed the labor of compiler with marked ability, and has contrived to produce a faithful, and, at the same time, comprehensive memoir of the life and opinions of that eminent divine.

- 23.—*The Wigwam and the Cabin; or, Tales of the South.* By W. GILMORE SIMMS. 12mo., pp. 471. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

The tales embraced in this volume, some thirteen in number, were written for annuals and other periodicals, where they met with much favor. They illustrate, in large degree, the border history of the South. The life of the planter, the squatter, the Indian, and the negro, the bold and hardy pioneer, and the vigorous yeoman,—these are the subjects of the author; and in their delineation he has drawn from living portraits, and, in many instances, from actual scenes and circumstances within the memories of men.

- 24.—*Marie De Banriere: A Tale of the Crescent City, &c.* 12mo., pp. 422. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

This volume, from the prolific pen of W. GILMORE SIMMS, contains three interesting but highly wrought tales, descriptive of real life, the first of which the title indicates, "The Maroon," and "Maize in Milk." "Guy Rivers," the last of Mr. Simms' productions, has been extensively read; and though less pleased with the work before us, we doubt not that it will meet with favor at the hands of the reading public. The interest in the several tales is well sustained.

- 25.—*The Way of Peace.* By HENRY A. ROWLAND, author of a work "On the Common Maxims of Infidelity," "The Path of Life," and "Light in a Dark Alley." 18mo., pp. 228. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The object of this work, inferred from the title, and stated in the preface, is "to direct the wandering and lost to Christ;" to show the seeker "how he may preserve his religious affections in their purity and strength," &c. It was written under an impression of the author that the works designed in this day for Christians "are not sufficiently experimental and practical to prove the most satisfactory."

- 26.—*Memoir of Mrs. Julia H. Scott; With her Poems, and other Selections from her Prose.* By MRS. C. M. SAWYER. 12mo., pp. 432. Boston: Abel Tompkins.

Besides the memoir, interspersed with extracts from her diary and private letters, the present volume contains a collection of her poems and prose writings. Mrs. Scott, it would seem from her writings, was animated with the overmastering desire to live the life of a Christian woman, and her example is worthy of all imitation. The editor has, in the preparation of the work, evinced a true womanly delicacy and taste, combined with a sound, discriminating judgment.

- 27.—*Norman Maurice; or, the Man of the People: an American Drama.* By W. GILMORE SIMMS, Esq., author of "The Tennessee," "Katharine Walton," &c. 12mo. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co.

Mr. Simms is a ready and vigorous writer, and the present drama, which has passed through three previous editions, evinces more than ordinary power in that department of literary effort. It has some fine passages, and the interest of dialogue is well sustained throughout.

- 28.—*Letters to Country Girls.* By JANE G. SWISSELM. 12mo., pp. 219. New York: John C. Riker.

Here is a volume which was written, as the authoress says, "to tell the girls some things I thought they did not know, or to remind them of duties they were likely to overlook."

- 29.—*A History of England.* By JOHN LINGARD, D. D. Vol. II. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

We have received from the publishers the second volume of this work. It commences with the settlement of the Normans in Gaul, A. D. 1060, and brings the history down to the death of Richard I., in 1195. It is, as we have before stated, regarded as a very impartial history, touching all questions bearing on the Catholic Church—a fact worthy of note, as the author, it is well known, was a distinguished member of that communion.

- 30.—*Rachel Kell.* By the Author of "Scenes and Characters in College," etc. 12mo., pp. 312. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This is an endeavor to portray the final triumph of virtue and piety over circumstances which tend to awaken in the minds of mankind, disrespect and often contempt for their innocent victim. Apart from this object, the influence of religion upon the character is well illustrated, and the story which serves as a basis for this moral is attractive and interesting.

- 31.—*Open Communion; or the Principles of Restricted Communion examined and proved to be unscriptural and False: in a Series of Letters to a Friend.* By S. W. WHITNEY, A. M., late Pastor of the Baptist Church, Westport, N. Y. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The object of the writer of these letters is to prove that close communion in the Baptist Church is false, and entirely at variance with the spirit of Christianity.

- 32.—*German Lyrics.* By CHARLES T. BROOKS. 12mo., pp. 237. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

The sweetness of German poetry has always been appreciated, and the public must feel indebted to Mr. Brooks for his translation of this beautiful selection from various German authors. Some of the productions of Anastasius Grun have already been favorably noticed and translated by Rev. Dr. Frothingham, of Boston.

- 33.—*The Bride of Omberg.* By EMILIE F. CARLEN. From the original Swedish by Professor Alex. L. and Elbert Perce. New York: Charles Scribner.

This appears to be an excellent translation of a Swedish tale of domestic life, and will, in our judgment, bear a favorable comparison with the best of those from the pen of the author's countrywoman, Miss Bremer.

- 34.—*Earl's Novel; or, Lights and Shadows of the Anglican Church.* A Tale for the Times. By CHARLOTTE AULEY, author of "Miriam," "Influence," &c. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

This, as will be inferred from the title, is a religious novel, and will, doubtless, find more readers than a treatise designed to inculcate similar religious views and sentiments.

- 35.—*Wild Jack: or the Stolen Child.* A Sketch from Life. Together with other Stories. Including the celebrated Magnolia Series. By CAROLINE LEE HENTZ. Authoress of "Rena," "Linda," "Marcus Warland," "Magnolia Vale," etc., etc. 12mo. (Paper Covers.) Philadelphia: A. Hart.

A collection of little stories of a highly interesting character.

- 36.—*Tallis's Illustrated Atlas and Modern History of the World.* Edited by R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN. Parts 53, 54. New York: John Tallis & Co.

These numbers contain further pages of the index, and a large and finely engraved map of the city of London, showing the streets, with their names, and the public places.

- 37.—*Behind the Curtain.* A tale of Elville. 12mo., pp. 442. Danville: J. K. Trembly. New York: G. P. Putnam.

These are pictures of social life which possess more than ordinary geniality of sentiment. They are well drawn, with a smoothness of diction and ease of style which adds much to their interest.

- 38.—*Poems.* By ALEXANDER SMITH. 12mo., pp. 192. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

This is genuine poetry; high-toned, spirit-stirring, with noble and manly thoughts, it flows with a smoothness of verse and energy of expression seldom combined in the same Muse. It will please all who have a taste for noble song.