

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME XXIX.

OCTOBER, 1853.

NUMBER IV.

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HUNT'S
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

OCTOBER, 1853.

Art. I.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.*

NUMBER I.

ORIGINAL DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT FROM ASIA—THEORIES—PARALLELISM—PRIMITIVE TIDE OF EMIGRATION FROM WEST TO EAST, ACROSS ASIA, THE PACIFIC, AND AMERICA—REPUTATION OF THE COMMON OR BEHRING THEORY—JEWS NOT AN OBSTACLE, BUT AN AID TO HUMAN MOVEMENT—MAN A NAVIGATING ANIMAL—POLYNESIAN THEORY—BARBAROUS POPULATION OF AMERICA—SUCCEEDING MOVE OF COMMERCE AND CIVILIZATION BY THE PACIFIC—COTEMPORARY EVENTS IN THE OLD WORLD—HEBREW THEORY REPUTED—PHENICIANS—BOLDNESS AND SECURITY OF ANCIENT, AS COMPARED WITH MODERN NAVIGATION—ANTAGONISM OF MOVEMENT OF THE TWO GREAT WAVES OF AMERICAN POPULATION.

WHAT was the *time* and *cause* of the primitive knowledge and occupation of AMERICA?

One *fact* in regard thereto seems established: that the original population of the continent was derived—and, at least, so far as concerns the intervention of any other Grand Section of the earth, directly—from ASIA. The personnel—the whole material and moral development of Red-America—are, unmistakably and uneradically, Oriental.

This one fact is a solitary island, from which the archeological navigators have started forth, on every side, upon the huge ocean of speculation, in search of new lands, but the most without meeting so much as a rock, or coming even within soundings. Bold coasts have been laid out upon lines where there was found to be *no bottom*; plausible continents, when reached, have proved to be fog-banks; and fine harbors, almost attained,

* The present article is the first of a series, on the *Commerce of the United States*, prepared by Mr. ENOCH HALE, an occasional contributor to the *Merchants' Magazine*, and well known to its readers as the author of the elaborate and valuable series of papers published therein, on the *Fisheries of the United States*, and the *Statistics of the City of New York*. Besides these, he has furnished to vols. xxvi., xxvii., and xxviii., many detached articles of very high interest, attracting much notice here and abroad for their depth of research, thoroughness of discussion, and vigor of style. We are certain, from reference to Mr. HALE'S notes, that the present will be a most inter-

have turned out to be only fading isles-of-beauty. All the delightful *winds* that wafted the daring adventurers onward, have expended their energy in vain, leaving the hapless navigators becalmed in mid-ocean, or, blowing in a circle, have forced them round and round upon a big circuit of extravagance and impossibility, with the lone fact forever in its center. Balked not even thus, lands might have been *made* that could not be *found*; and the fine ingenuity that traverses this sea, would have built up an ancient America as modern Hollands are constructed, but that no spiles of the requisite length could be obtained for depths so profound. Floating regions *have* been fabricated, but how could they be moored on such an ocean? The currents and winds have swept them along with their projectors and co-wanderers, or, sharing the fate of Plato's Atlantis, the hungry sea has itself opened upon them its terrible jaws.

To bring the theories *ashore*—where, consistently with the figure, as will appear, their framers have been quite too much inclined to keep them, and to which bias some, at least, of their error is due—one hypothesis, and that which has the most numerous supporters, for the reason that those who have been most among and written most concerning the Indians, were themselves priests or attaches of missions, ascribes to a *religious* agency the discovery and first settlement of America. Thus, they make the coincidence of one cause furnishing America with her two populations; and trace a migration of eastern Puritans escaping from the persecution of established religions and the political power allied with them, to enjoy a free thought and a free worship in the wilderness, ages before the two ships sailed from Delfthaven. This theory does not want reason. Asia has ever been the hotbed of creeds and controversies, and it would not seem at all strange that an offshoot from some old form should, where primaries and heresies are all so fecund, be crowded out of so broad a region as Asia; or that even an entire new idea should be corporately expelled by that dominant ecclesiastic, the sword. Even the Christian faith was obliged to seek a more genial soil. But our theorists are not mere generalizers—they select the particular religion and the particular people, which were the Roundheads and the Puritanism of the east. These were Jacob and Judaism. Nine tribes and a half tribe of Israel, were, at some time, lost. It is assumed that they left Asia, and went *somewhere*; and that unknown region, the known America reveals. The lost are here found—not just as they left Palestine, of course: vastly changed, but yet with remains of their old na-

esting and instructive series, and that in the commercial aspect of the general history of the United States, and of events therewith connected, in the affairs of other countries, these matters will be presented in quite a new light. Much of the deficiencies, misconceptions, and inaccuracies of our histories, will be made evident to all who will follow the series in connection with these works. It is not until quite recently that the world has become practically sensible of the multitude of aspects, or, to use a phrase common with the reformers, of the stand-points from which events are to be viewed, and of the narrow spirit of the old histories, possessing but a single point of observation. History has been hitherto what is called, but falsely called, the *political* view of events—for a true political view embraces the range of *all* great national interests. One great object of the *Merchants' Magazine* has been, from the outset, to correct this error—to induce our historians, as well as statesmen and people, to take an enlarged view of matters—to learn to analyze the different elements which enter into the direction of affairs—and to set forth in the general exhibit, their several proportionate magnitudes and influences. We have endeavored, with some success, to establish a Commercial Literature—one legitimate branch of that aim is, to *commercialize* history, at least so far as that it may add or enlarge a proper constituent, without which its narration is one-sided and its philosophy shriveled.—*Editor Merchants' Magazine.*

tionalism—with ceremonies, customs, laws, and general institutions, with lingual features and marks physical and mental, which establish their identity. They had returned to a far longer wandering than that which their fathers made in the wilderness of Zion. Here they came, unwittingly to the world, to free themselves of the hated presence of the Philistines—whom some will have it, they met even here—of the Moabites, Ammonites, Midianites, Assyrians, and other enemies. Hither they fled from the Pharaohs, the Jabins, the Nebuchadnezzars, and the Hamans, their malicious prime ministers, who had so long oppressed and plotted against them. Here, too, they might be out of the presence of those false gods, who had so miserably fulfilled the intrusted guardianship of Hebrew interests.

Others attribute all to *Political* causes, a triple-headed agent, for America may owe herself to—

1. *Political Ambition*—The desire of a people, or rather of a chief, to build up a great kingdom; or the higher purpose of populating a continent, and being immortalized in its books. This latter half of the design unrealized.

2. *Political Convenience*—Or the desire of such chief and people to escape domestic servitude, or to throw off a foreign yoke; to breathe a free air and be freemen; to establish good constitutions, and live in ignorance of taxes and taskmasters.

3. *Political Necessity*—As through forcible expulsion from former homes, a redundant population, &c.

In all which there is more or less identity with the causes which effected the second population of America.

To reduce other theories, of single or compound motive, that have been, or may be elaborated, to their briefest expression—the first human America was the result of a conquering mania, the insane energy of which man's history is the continuous record, searching food for ravage and murder.

Or it was the product of philanthropy, an eastern Penn—to pursue the line of coincidences—sought to provide here a paradise for the laboring poor; or an Oglethorpe led hither a colony of famishing debtors from the prisons of Asia, and made an asylum for worn-out soldiers and other unfortunates.

Or America was made a penal colony, perhaps, of the Kamtchatdales, or some other people, and a valley of rogues in general.

Or the general passion for wealth was the prime influence. Golden rumors came of an East beyond the existing East—California, Peru, El Dorado, the glittering, were wonderingly heard of. Wild and sober men alike were lured away from their homes by tales from the arroyas and gulches, and left everything behind for the sake of the bauble-treasure.

Or it was the achievement of wandering barbarians, actuated only by a roving instinct, an impulse similar to that which affects birds of passage, and to whom the most difficult question that could be asked would have been *why* they came.

Commerce and its allied influences have been alluded to but very faintly, and by most have been positively ignored. We might make out a fine commercial theory of the discovery and population of America, basing it upon the search for and endeavor to build up new markets, the want of particular foreign commodities, or the desire to escape from tariffs and commercial restrictive systems, and all the artificial developments of a nursing government. But though this theory would be as plausible as the rest, we are

not eager to press it. Commerce is sufficiently concerned in the growth of America, to stand in no need of what may even *seem* a fictitious interest.

The usual methods employed by these theorists to identify the Indian with the assumed progenitor (always some known existing nation) is, as embodied in the papers read before Historic Societies, and published in literary magazines, by tracing the resemblances between the American and the assumed father-people. These are most fanciful speculations, worth very little serious attention, learned as they may be. We pass them by, remarking that the general collapse of these theories of Aboriginism is not from any real lack of resemblances between the different people arranged in juxtaposition, but the trouble is rather that likenesses are *too* easily found. The greater part of those hitherto made the bases of theory, are discoverable in so many other comparisons that may be instituted, that the object of the specific parallel is defeated. Apart from a few accidental correspondences, they are in almost all cases, the evidences simply of a common human nature. Archeological students are too apt to forget that Man is everywhere the same creature; that the prevailing rule is everywhere that of resemblances; and that differences are the difficult product of causes which, strong as they may seem, are able only after long continued operation to modify a few of the less obstinate features of the general conformation. If we could assemble, in methodical series, all the existing or dead systems of religion, government, manners, customs, dress, and even of what is considered the best of these standards of comparison, language, we should find that what is common to any one of the series, inherited by all its members from the common original of all, would form an astonishingly large element in the universal composition. As to physical characteristics, that is perhaps, ordinarily, the worst of all possible grounds of comparison, all order being here so confounded, that in classifying men by their family features, nations descending almost unmixed from one of the primary races, would often be assigned a place under another of the radical types. Where no particular ingenuity is exercised to trace out parallels in lines of *very* marked cuneiformity, even a near *relationship* between nations may be susceptible of proof. But how is the *degree* of kindred to be thus determined? When national affinity has been followed in the direction of the source to the utmost attainable point, what is to decide whether one people holds the parental relation toward another, or whether they are but sister-nations, owing their common characteristics to another nation yet—to one unnoticed in the research, perhaps one unknown to history?

If anything is to be proved from these comparisons—and we think they *are* decidedly suggestive in this direction—it is that the progenitors of the Indians, being Asiatics, left that quarter of the earth and reached America long before any of the present natives of Asia had birth, or perhaps even before the existence there of any nation with the character and actions of which history is at all familiar. The fact that the semblances of language especially are so very few, and mostly fanciful, when all the vast number of languages in both continents are brought together, we regard as positive proof of the extreme antiquity of American population. Again, the very number and diversity of the languages in America, together with the established fact that the Indians are all of a common origin, furnish most indubitable evidence on this point. The Indians, omitting the Esquimaux, preserve a common physical character throughout America. It would be difficult to find any moderately sized nation of Europe having throughout

its limits a population so uniform in this respect as this Indian race throughout both half continents of America. Humboldt says; "The Indians of New Spain [Mexico] have a close resemblance to those who inhabit Canada, Florida, Peru, and Brazil. Over 1,500,000 square leagues, from Cape Horn to the St. Lawrence and Behring's Straits, we are struck, at the first glance, with the general resemblance in the features of the inhabitants. We think we perceive them all to be descended of the same stock, notwithstanding the prodigious diversity of the language." Mr. E. G. Squier, who, while in Central America, united the most active discharge of official duties, as the representative of his government, with untiring antiquarian investigations, traces this unity through the religions and the artificial remains of the whole continent; while Dr. Norton, from a very extensive examination of aboriginal skulls, comes to the conclusion that the Indians, "of all epochs, have belonged to a single homogeneous race," admitting that there may have been "colonial or accidental admixtures in California and elsewhere, but they have been too inconsiderable to affect any other than very local variations from the primitive type." These resemblances are of a very different quality from those we have before alluded to. Their evidence is positive and incontrovertible. They show the Indians to be all of one stock, and of a stock different from any nation now existing out of America, or that has existed for thousands of years. Now, conjoin with this fact, the great numbers to which the Indians had attained at the European discovery, their being spread over and apparently long occupying the whole surface of the continent, every part having its remote traditions, while yet the Indians were a people of very slow propagation; like all savage races, that they were engaged perpetually in war; and that America is, of all the quarters of the earth, the least favorable to rapid multiplication,—and we see that the first settlement of America must have been far more ancient than the generality of theories assume. The view of the languages of America fully confirms this conclusion. Originally but one language was spoken in America. From that single tongue we have now knowledge of the existence of distinct languages, and above 2,000 dialects. For such a diversity to grow up from one root, we can hardly imagine a period short of that of the confusion of Babel itself. Has it ever been determined how long a time is required for the dialects of a single language to disjoin so far from the original as to become, of themselves, radical forms?

Another fact to the point is, that the nations of Asia whom the Indians are said to especially resemble, have all the *use of iron*, which the Indians never had knowledge of. Those nations also, all eat wheat bread, which was a food unknown to the Indians. They also, all—some being pastoral nations—made use of the milk of animals, which was nowhere in America used by the Indians. Yet, in all parts of America nearly, iron was abundant, the wheat grain plentiful, and no scarcity of the mammiferous animals, which the Indians esteemed only for their flesh, hides, horns, and sinews.

The original emigrants to America were not a civilized people: they were at least as barbarous as their descendants, when Columbus arrived. Had the Indians ever been a civilized people, traces of their former condition would have remained among them; for a people once civilized, can never obliterate all the evidences of their having been so. Traditions, too, in fact, the bulk of their traditional matters, must have referred to that state. We do not hear that any of the American savage tribes have ever mentioned

any such traditions. Beside this, both of the partially civilized nations of Indians, the Mexicans, and Peruvians, were, by their own accounts, roving savages in America for ages before they were civilized. America derived her population from a barbarous race, sharing probably the condition of the entire stock from which it was disjointed. Asia, at the time of the first migration to America, was either wholly savage, or had but a very faint and contracted illumination around the central point of human origin.

The plan of nature, it would seem, was to populate the world first, and to civilize it afterwards, and by slow degrees. Man was *created* in a rude condition, and hence, everywhere, has to wait for his civilization. While population pushed outward rapidly, improvement has always followed at a very leisure step. In the early ages, the disproportion between the progress of numbers and of intelligence was far greater than it is now. The engines of improvement were then few and weak, while the procreative energy was never so active. The physical man of that day was far superior to the earthy tabernacle of the present. The race at that time might be likened to the boy whom nature undertakes to expand bodily before she develops his mind, and who has double the weight of his father without a tenth of his brains. The race, in regard to all its development, is in nothing different from the individual. If the spirit is now mightier, it is beyond dispute that the improved essence dwells in a deteriorated tenement. The race is typified by the precocious youth who has made his attainments the wonder of his relations, at the expense of his health.

To fulfil the great design of giving a population to the whole earth, the *propensity to wander* was implanted in man. The evidence of its purpose and of its superior age to civilization, is seen in the fact that savage tribes everywhere possess it. It was intended to bring the different branches of the family to their assigned locations, and there to leave them to develop the peculiar condition of which the elements were primarily incorporated in their several natures. Beside the superior rapidity of multiplication in Asia, population was ever there more readily incited to migration than in the other great Quarters, from the great temptations which nature held out on every side. Thus did each grand section of the earth, as comported with its own dignity, receive a head or source of population—a populative power, an immediate branch of the great first stock, sharing all its original vigor and purity—and destined to evolve each its own peculiar cast of human feature—its own group of nationalisms—its own family of individualities.

Thus we see it was a motive far superior and antecedent to any possible purpose of religion, politics, or trade, which induced the first movement of population to America—a prime, original instinct in man—a propensity planted deep in his nature, and, according to God's purpose, one of the first to be developed.

Now, by what means did this American branch reach its destination?

Here we come to a point too much overlooked by our theorists, viz. : the *connection of this emigration with the migratory movements occurring within Asia itself*. The passage to America has been generally considered as simply an exodus *from* Asia, without reference to its antecedent course *inwardly* of that quarter of the earth, as a movement by which certain people departed the limits of the eastern hemisphere, without questioning how they *reached* the confines left behind. The wave which flowed upon America was the *continuation* of the same tide which had passed over the whole width of Asia, from near its western extreme. The first great current of

population was in the opposite direction to that which we behold in the course of present progress—that is, it was from *West to East*. Progressing in this direction, a strong body of population reached soon the Pacific and the Indian shores of Asia.

Without seeming to perceive that *these* have any destiny, beyond what they have accomplished, our theorists generally select an avenue to America, which peoples that continent through some insignificant lateral offshoot from the general stream, as none other would take that route. Assuming the ocean to be an insuperable obstacle, they pitch upon a route leading through the north-eastern extreme of Asia, the main argument for which is the propinquity of the two continents at that point—that is, of their *extremes*—and the consequent facility of crossing by the narrow water-passage known as Behring's Straits. Even those so strongly disposed toward the religious coincidence do not dream of an Asiatic Mayflower. The fact of this route having been used, is assumed as scarcely wanting proof. They dispose much *too* easily of the question. The mode of this passage—the route and agencies of transmigration, is the most practical portion of the whole subject. Here we have relations and conditions brought into view, physical and moral, of most potent weight, and which are now largely, almost entirely, the same now as thousands of years ago—the same as they have ever been, and will always be, affecting all journeyists in a like manner.

The first part of the Behring theory assumes, that it was by the natural and gradual progression of population toward the north that America was reached. But little argument will suffice to show that the few miserable beings, at any time resident in the high latitude of the Straits, directly upon the Arctic circle—the most degraded and unadventurous of the human race—could never become fathers to the millions of a continent. At every step in this direction from the center of Asia population became, in every sense, weaker; and it is not in the line of diminishing powers that we are to expect the impulse necessary to a grand effect, like the peopling of America, to be transmitted. A few of the benumbed beings at the north-eastern point of Asia undoubtedly have, from hunger, or other like stimulus, been urged to the almost impossible excitement of crossing the Straits. Arrived there, they would stop, certainly, being unequal to the farther adventure of a journey back. Instead of populating the whole continent, however, the great struggle with these people, as in all corresponding latitudes, has been ever to keep from utter extinction, a fate from which those in America may now, through the intermixture of Cossack energy, be happily saved.

But America was no more likely to receive a population through this route as a means of *passage* only, as the second part of the theory assumes. All our knowledge of the most northern considerable tribes of Asia, of all inhabiting regions admitting of any reasonable degree of activity, shows their migrations to have been ever *to the southward*, being a return upon the line of their first movement. This direction, too, corresponds exactly with the observed progress of the races in the cold latitudes of Europe,—the Gepidæ, the Goths, Lombards, Hendi, Vandals, and their different branches, all moving toward the south, and never again returning to the frosty homes left behind them at the north. But, if this northern emigration ever occurred in upper Asia, why was it not continued? How is it that while so frequent tides have flown from Siberia and Tartary upon central Asia, since the discovery of America, not so much as a solitary wave

has within that time arrived thence upon this continent? Is not this a sufficient evidence of the *whole* tendency of Siberian emigration, for all time *before* America was discovered, to Europe? Even had they been inclined to migrate in the assumed direction, how should these nomad tribes find means, either in regard to food or clothing, to withstand the terrible cold of that long journey—an attempt formidable enough when supported with all the means and appliances at the command of the most civilized? Who would consider the Indians of Oregon capable of the counter-journey into Asia?

The third part of the theory refers to a people from a yet more southern, or the civilized region of Asia—particularizing usually the Israelites. But civilized nations would be even less likely to perform this exploit than the barbarians. They are at all times little inclined to leave their homes, in a body, as is alleged of these; and, if forced to do so, would contract their wanderings as much as possible. For such a people to set out upon such a journey as that in question, leaving a delightful climate and an unbounded exuberance of natural riches, to plunge into the depths of endless hyperborean realms, even for the object of passage only, would be an anomaly in the history of human migration. At least ten thousand miles were to be traversed before they could attain a place at all tolerable for their occupation. The Arctic regions of *two* continents were to be explored, an undertaking exceeding all the exploits of the most daring polar adventurers of our day. Land-journeying, at all times tedious to large bodies, becomes, with a degree of cold quite moderate, as compared with the severity of this route, entirely impossible to an emigrating party. Even could they brave the cold, they could not triumph over the fearful lack of subsistence. And even had they heard of America, what could they know to tempt such an effort? Who had penetrated to the far Beyond, and dared the journey back, to bring to temperate Asia the intelligence of a temperate America? Before such a discoverer, the achievement of Columbus was insignificant.

We might, indeed, quite as well suppose this emigration to have followed a meridian of longitude, crossing the middle of the Arctic ocean upon the ice, and arriving at Mackenzie's river *via* the North Pole, as to have effected the passage by Behring's Straits. This fiction of Siberia is not outraged by the company of a tale told of the same region, by Herodotus, to the effect that it was peopled by inhabitants having but one eye, and who had abundance of gold, which they took by violence from Griffins, who were also common about there.

Some reasons, which have hitherto led to the very common acceptance of the Behring theory, have been drawn from very light evidence in regard, first, to the nature of the aboriginal remains in the United States; and, secondly, from the error of a supposed analogy, which assumes that as in Europe and Asia sundry tribes, issuing from the north wandered to the south, the same rule must have governed American population. The theory here turns upon itself, as a universal progression from north to south would render impossible the assumed march from south to north, through Asia, on the way to America. But the true analogy would show us, that the general movement of population has been in no quarter of the earth in the line of north and south, but always in that of *east and west*. A minor flow, or a simple widening of the general tide, has occurred toward the north and south, and the efflux from these quarters upon the center, is always but the return of this lateral wave. It is only the great stream, flowing east and

west, that ever peopled a continent, or even gave existence to a great nation. Within America itself we see this eastern stream, reaching her from Asia, preserve the same general course as within the other continent. Only a limited belt within America was at all thickly occupied, and that space corresponding exactly with the region of dense population, and enlarged movement in the old hemisphere. Probably nine-tenths of the Indian population was comprised within the parallels of 20° south and 30° north. If the Behring theory were true, population in America should have had its nucleus in the high latitudes, and should have become more and more sparse in the progress toward the south. Instead of this, the center of population was near the territorial center, and the declension was rapid toward the upper region, through the United States and the British and Russian domains.

The causes which induce this great movement of men to the east and west are evident. The lines which divide the different climates and soils of the earth run in that direction; the great body of men, seeking the mild and warm climates, and the fruitful soils, move along the belt within which they are to be found. Of those small branches which diverge toward the cold latitudes, the few who reach the points of intense cold sink into a sluggish life, from which it seems impossible for them ever to rise. Those who halt in the space between these and the upper limits of the temperate zones maintain a half-inert, or roving state, and return again to the general stream when the pressure of their numbers becomes too heavy upon the scanty means of subsistence.

In regard to the remains found in the United States, supposed to belong to another race than the Indians in their neighborhood,—a race, it is assumed, that passed to the south, and founded Mexico and other kingdoms—the opinion has been by late more full investigations conclusively refuted. The works in question are none of them beyond the skill of the tribes found within the United States. Apart from all this, it is in violation of all probabilities to suppose that a people so inferior, not merely in civilization, but in numbers, with no better arms, and no advantage in point of courage over the people who founded Mexico, should be the victor in any such contest. Had the populous and warlike nations of Mexico and Central America ever inhabited the United States, the tribes there found would have been entirely impotent assailants of them; or even had they driven them from the field, could never have made the least impression upon their cities, protected with massive walls and strong forts of stone. Such a race would drive none before them but savages like themselves.

We have seen, that in attempting to avoid the *difficulties of the sea*, the theorists have driven the Indian forefathers upon a worse obstacle. It appears that the very *continuity of land*, which they consider the grand advantage of the Behring route, is really its most formidable difficulty. The attempt to avoid the sea is needless, arising from a broad misconception—their idea of the sea is indeed the most notable error of the whole investigation. The truth is, that the presence of great seas was never that obstruction to the movements of men which so many writers always regard it. It was necessary from the outset, not only to answer the end of his existence, but even to secure his comfort, that man should familiarly use the seas as a means of locomotion. Indeed as an agency of way, and to answer all the thousand objects dependent upon communication, the contiguity to human settlement of rivers, bays, and oceans, is nearly as necessary as the

presence of land itself. Voyaging, especially where the distance is long, and the objects of transport heavy, is far easier and less expensive than journeying. For all purposes of exploration, also, the sea has an infinite advantage over the land. To accord with these natural relations of land and water, Man's Creator has given him a power, and implanted in him a disposition to *subdue* the seas. If man is not an aquatic, nor an amphibious animal, he has yet a natural love of water—an instinct, it is, and not a motive derived from his improvement, nor yet his reason—which prompts him to construct barks, and to trust himself, not to the "mercy of the waves," but to his own skill in guiding his vessel over them. He is a *navigating* animal, and the only one—and as such, his use of the water is entirely as natural and legitimate as is that of the fish. The most savage tribes have always preferred locomotion by water, wherever practicable, to that by land. We see men, everywhere, whether civilized or barbarous, in choosing their places of settlement, select the immediate neighborhood of rivers, bays, lakes, and oceans. In all ages, and in all countries, these have been the earliest points and the perpetual foci of population; and of all extended empires, we find that the shore regions, whether river or sea, are thoroughly known, long before the other parts have been examined—in fact, that the obscurity of the latter is always proportioned to the distance from navigable water bodies.

It is to the sea, only, that we can look for the first discovery and colonization of America. In regard to even the high latitudes mentioned, no one who reflects at all, can doubt that they are far more easily penetrable by water than by the *terra firma* route. Were about twenty degrees of latitude, or down to the fiftieth parallel cut off entirely, leaving Nootka Sound and Saghelien Island, the extreme upper points of the continents, would not the northern passage from center to center be far more feasible than now? And under that configuration,—supposing a few intermediate islands along the fiftieth parallel,—would there not have been, instead of this wild conjecture, an almost certainty of the colonization of America by this route, and of continued and easy communication since, between the continents?

But with the existing outlines of land and sea how much more easy has it ever been for any civilized nation of Asia to reach America by a coast navigation than by traversing the horrors of extreme Siberia. Even barbarous people, by the conjoined use of the sea and land, might be able to effect long journeys along those coasts; but their provisions against the natural rigor of these regions being so very slight, but very few of them could ever have made or attempted the passage in that direction, by any mode whatever.

We have then to look for another avenue, and none is left except a *direct passage across the Pacific ocean*. We return to the great stream of population left at the threshold of the Indian and Pacific oceans,—the great energy to which we would naturally look for everything, at that time, of effort, of adventure, and of achievement, in the direction of America. Did this great Eastern branch of the human family, arrived here in the riot of full strength, and provided with capacities equal to the prospect before it, ignobly sink down, and refuse to wet its feet in the Pacific? No—they saw in the ocean the means of going further onward, and more easily than they came to this place—the view of the sea enlarged their desires, aims, and enterprise. Beside, they could not stop, if they would; for the great power behind pushed them forward. The irrepressible energy quickly leaped from

the southern and eastern shores of Asia to those contiguous islands whose riches outvie even those of the main land. Leaping from island to island, as if sensible of the mighty destiny it had to perform, the resistless wave pushed through the immense archipelago, progressing ever to new groups, and to farther depths of the sea. The rude canoes, equal to those in which the still barbarous inhabitants of those islands pass from group to group, were amply sufficient for their progress.

In this eastern way, various causes beside the natural impetus of population contributed to its speed. These islands appear to have been forever engaged in wars among themselves—the conflicts being mostly between different islands. The sea was always to the Polynesian tribes the great war-ground which the broad expanse of the continent furnished to its own inhabitants. The canoe was their war-horse, and their numerous fleets rode over the yesty prairie, like an Indian cavalcade upon the savannas of the west. They sought their enemies on their fishing-grounds, or attacked their port itself. When the ships of Europeans came among them, they did not wait, like the Indians of the east coast of America, for their visitors to land, but came off, boldly surrounding with their thousands of canoes, and when they departed, accompanied them far out to sea. The parties vanquished in their wars had, of course, no alternative, but to die or to remove to other isles, far enough remote to be secure from their enemies; to drive before them here others in like manner, or to be forced again further onward in the sea themselves. When not engaged in war the fishery was their chief pursuit, and their love of the sea was no doubt gratified by some trading intercourse between the different islands. Their progress in the ocean, too, was certainly much accelerated by *accident*, to which maritime exploration has at all times been so deeply indebted.

Thus did the great eastern tide find the means of continuing its progress in the same line which it had followed, from its starting at the plains of Shinar. And is this a *speculation*? Is it not palpable that it was in this way alone that Oceanica was furnished its existing population? And to pass from the islands to America, was but the same as passing from Asia to the islands, or from group to group. At no point in the route would any considerable explorative effort be needed. It is another fatal objection to the Behring theory, that it ignores the existence of those islands.

Some writers, as provident as the Behringians, and more ingenious, would allow that America was peopled by the direct ocean route, but for the water. To avert the *obstacles of the sea*, they have formed the stupendous imagination of a vast continent, fitted in between Asia and America, of which the islands are now but the remains. Beside the inevitable derangement of the planet, and of all the physical phenomena attaching to it, this obviating theory, to our idea, interposes a far greater obstacle than it removes. Not to recount the thousand objections to it, we will simply express our opinion, —that, in the frequent alternations of land and water in this insular domain, the very best facility for the progress of population from Asia to America was afforded which it was in the power of Providence, under the real nature of men and matter, to provide.

The limits within which colonization by this route would naturally locate itself, and those best adapted also to any people coming by it, themselves inhabitants of warm latitudes, embrace the region extending from 20° or 30° south to the corresponding parallels of north latitude. The first arriving would, of course, settle on the coast. Those coming after, would also take

up coast positions to the north or south of the first party. The inhabitable or desirable parts of the coast being thus all occupied, no more could come, unless to drive some of their predecessors back into the continent. Unless so forced this small population would retain its position for ages, making very slow and reluctant progress toward the interior.

We have now to trace the progress of a second influence toward America—the civilizing energy—in which the usually assigned causes of first population may have had a share, and in which COMMERCE was, certainly, an element especially pre-eminent. Civilization and Commerce have always progressed together, one depending upon the other, and sustaining toward it, without paradox, the relation both of mother and child. It is, in truth, as Mac Gregor states, an “undeniable fact, that the history of Commerce is the history of civilization.”

The softening influences of the region in which men were first located, and its attractions of wealth, allured men, at length, to a settled life; and though they have been considered enervating principles, they were, at least, essential to the first advance of men toward enlightenment. Without a warm climate and a kindly soil, without the utmost of the favors which nature there bestows, men would never have taken a step forward. Had there been no Asia—had there been no tropical Asia, even—the human race must have remained forever without that civilization, which temperate regions, although they may nourish it into its most vigorous life, can never give birth to.

It was in the same track, followed by the great tide of population, that Commerce and civilization held their way, but proceeding, however, with a much slower pace. Arrived at the great seas, they found in them the means of giving their powers a fuller and bolder expression—of enlarging the field and multiplying the fruit of effort—of compressing the infeasibilities of land distance into the ordinary practicabilities of enterprise. But for the sea and its agencies, the fame of the ancient empires of India and China, and the island-kingdom of Japan, would have been nameless. It is useless to repeat the evidences of their early maritime power, and of the distances to which they navigated the ocean. Two thousand years ago their mariners were possessed of the compass, an instrument never essential to even extended navigation in the open sea, and less needed in the Pacific than in the Atlantic ocean, but illustrating the nautical advance of that period.

It is probable that Commerce and civilization first visited America by the coast route, as the shore adventures were early pushed to a great length. The Chinese historians inform us that their countrymen knew Kamtchatka between A. D. 600 and 700, and assert that a trade was carried on to the north-west coast of America, and even with what appears to be California. There is no reason to doubt the truth of the account. They had, certainly, made as long voyages in the other direction. The Japanese claim, also, to have adventured early and far in the northerly route. What should prevent the Malays, with their enormous fleets, and their nautical heroism, or even the Hindoos, from reaching America by the same channel? We believe that no writer on the antiquities of America has ventured to doubt that the exploration and trade of a civilized people did anciently, in some degree, follow this route. Even the stoutest of the Behring theorists have treated the idea very leniently.

But this, after all, could not have been the main route followed by civilized adventure. Its natural course was in the line of the population which

preceded it—treading in its foot-marks. The causes impelling it may have been religion, unsuccessful war, a purely commercial spirit, an explorative propensity, or may have been even the search for a new world, or the effort to reach the western shores of the old, supposing no word had been brought back from the barbarous discoverers of America. Why should there not have been an Eastern Columbus? The Hindoos were very anciently possessed of most of the knowledge and idea which impelled the Italian to the search for the eastern side of India. They knew that the earth was *round*; that by its motion on its axis day and night were occasioned; they calculated latitude and longitude upon its surface; and they knew enough of astronomy, beside, to measure the distance of the moon from the earth, and even, it is said, to calculate eclipses.

But from whatever cause, this adventure, reaching the region of America before designated, would select it at once for either trade or colonization, on account of its natural correspondence with the region of its own departure, but above all, for its abundance of the precious metals, so highly prized by all commercial people, and of so little account to others. Here, indeed, was found, in the united wealth of the soil and of the mines, the nutriment for great cities and mighty realms. And here, instead of at the north, as would have been the case by the Behring emigration, we find not only the great center of American population, but the foci of its civilization, wealth, and power.

The civilizers of America, coming by the same route, and from the same points, as the barbarous population, having gained their improvement after these left Asia, were, of course of the same particular family, and thus, supposing them to have come in any considerable numbers, the infusion would leave the original type unchanged. Visible evidences of their progress and of that of their predecessors, exist. It is known that, very anciently, the language and customs of Hindostan, and even Buddhism, its peculiar religion, prevailed generally, far out into the archipelago. Even now, the general features and characters of the Polynesians are unmistakably of the South-Asian cast. In America, too, not to insist too much on the likeness, the resemblance is decided to the Malayan and Indo-Chinese type; and Mr. Squier states, as the result of his investigations, that the temples and other antique structures of Central America and Mexico—and we suppose Peru might be added—were built in general conformity with the edifices designed for like uses in southern India, being indeed, “almost exact counterparts of them.” He discovers also, that the doctrines of the teachers of those people were essentially those of Buddhism.

Regarding the effect of the influences brought in the second of these adventures to America, and their connection with the population of the United States, we defer further consideration to the next number. The *time* of their advent is proximately ascertained from the traditional accounts given us by the Peruvians and the Mexicans. Atalmalpa, the reigning Inca of Peru, at the time of the Spanish conquest, about 1530, was the fourteenth of the civilized rulers of that nation. The Montezuma found by Cortez on the Mexican throne was the eleventh of the Aztec dynasty. Allowing to these monarchs an average reign equal to that of the kings of Europe, the era of Manco Capuc,* the civilizer of Peru, was no longer back than about

* It is our purpose, in the course of these articles, to give, principally in marginal notes, brief notices of events, statistics, &c., relating to some other parts of the world, and corresponding in time

the year 1200 of the Christian era, and that of the Mexican civilization not far distant.

A word further may be offered here in regard to the Israelitish theory, which disclaims all agency of Commerce in affecting the population, or influencing the condition of at least the aboriginal United States. We have alluded to the forced character of the resemblances traced between the Hebrews and the Indians, and the very little significance of even what is legitimate in the parallel. The explanations of the *motive* for this emigration are equally fallacious. It is said their object was to observe a form of religion, and to keep certain statutes, which in their own land they had utterly and persistently eschewed. It is by the preservation of these forms and ceremonies, through a long interval, that they are recognized in America, when it might have been difficult, from the same grounds, to identify them at two different periods while they were within the land of Canaan. If there was anything which peculiarly marked this people, it was a contempt for the religion imparted to them from heaven, and a relish for the idolatries of every other nation. At the time of their captivity scarcely a vestige (except some political element,) of their old Theocracy remained. They had

with those stated concerning the United States, as suggestive of causal connections, and of useful comparison, generally. At the time of this commencement of American civilization, it will be well to refer to the state in which the old world then stood.

In Europe, the crusades were in the very height of their wildest delirium. Nearly all the Commerce of Europe was in the hands of the free cities of Italy and Constantinople. Venice was the leading commercial power, and was about at the height of her splendor. Assisted by the crusades, in 1204, they turned their arms against Constantinople—the lingering remnant of Roman power—and seated themselves comfortably therein for 57 years, when the Genoese expelled them, and took their turn. It was in these places, and in Asia, (of which latter very little was then known to Europe,) that the crusaders acquired that taste for the arts, for Commerce, and for the luxuries of the East, which was so effectively employed on their return, in advancing the improvement of their own several countries. Thus was Europe gathering from abroad and planting in her own soil, the seeds of her enlightenment and future power, at the same time that America was being first put under cultivation.

In all Europe, at this time, beyond the cities named, except to some extent in Flanders, there were no manufactures as a business. Most of the articles of a domestic nature used by the kings were made in their own houses. Money was very scarce even with the kings. There was no middle class—only the nobility and serfs. The feudal system was still universal, and the power of the kings very limited. In point of consolidation, the governments of France, England, and Germany, were far behind that of Mexico, although the latter country had its nobility.

The Northmen (Danes, Norwegians, &c.) were still pirates, and boldly ravaged the seas and the coasts of England, France, and the Baltic; piracy was encouraged by the King of Denmark. Many of the Baltic towns, since become opulent cities, were only assemblages for preying upon other people upon the Baltic coasts. Some trade, however, was beginning to grow up in the Baltic, and the Hanseatic league, formed for the purpose of protecting this trade against the pirates, was formed in 1169. This commercial association was one great engine in the suppression of both piracy and the feudal system. The practice of granting charters to boroughs and cities—the dawn of free government—was growing up in Europe; the charters being granted by the feudal superior, in consideration of a certain contribution to his treasury. In Italy, Germany, Flanders, and yet more in England, all the chief cities were under this system.

In England, there were yet scarcely any roads, and not a coach in the realm. The external Commerce was still in the hands of the German merchant of the Steel-yard. The internal trade was conducted by fairs, the sole privilege of which the king availed himself of, or granted to the nobles, as a means of raising revenue. The distinction of nationalities in English population was beginning to wear off, as the effects of the conquest diminished. 1215—Magna Charta was obtained. 1239—Coal began to be used as fuel. 1258—The first English House of Commons met.

About three hundred years before this time, the Northmen had discovered and colonized Iceland (871) and Greenland (891). About two hundred years before (1000 or 1001) they discovered and settled Vinland, supposed to be a part of the continent of America, of which all knowledge was lost about 1200. In 1150 the Saracens of Spain set out to discover the end of the world, sailing eleven days west; and in 1170, occurs the reputed voyage of Modoc, the Welsh prince, to America. About the year 1200 the mariner's compass was discovered. Thus, if America was unknown to Europe at this time, the agencies were preparing by which she was to be afterwards reached.

In Western Asia, the Mahometan nations, in their efforts to repel the crusaders, were wrought up to a frenzy not inferior to that of Europe itself. About the close of the crusades, the Tartars came to the West, and in 1253, took Bagdad, and ended the Saracen empire. Encroaching then on the frontiers of Europe, the Pope sent two embassies to the court of Ghengis Khan, the first of which failed, frightened by the long and tedious way; but the second, arriving, found at the Tartar's capital, ambassadors from India, and from the remote China also. The Chinese were then a highly commercial people; but they were almost totally unknown to Europe. And although the products of India had been known for ages, the region itself was a myth. The great Pacific Ocean, spreading over one-third of the earth's circumference, was to Europe a non-entity, until near a century later.

become inveterate sun-worshippers, star-worshippers, and image adorers, being entirely given up to all "the abominations of the heathen."

Then, as to flying into a wilderness for the sake of enjoying *any* particular religion, they were the very last people to do that. They loved the community of nations too well. There was never, in this sense, a people of more cosmopolite tendencies, in spite of all their egotism. Their first breath of nationality was drawn in the heart of another nation—there they passed their childhood. In Palestine, a small tract, in the midst of one of the densest regions of the earth, they were strangely combined with a medley of other nations and remnants of other nations, whom they "could not cast out." Alternately ruling and ruled by those—frequently subjugated by outward force—and removed again, finally, into the midst of a master-people—so perpetual was their association with other men, that they could never have chosen, were it possible, to live by themselves. How their peculiar existence affected them is seen by the facility with which they adopted the customs of both their subjects and their conquerors. Why should they go into a far country to enjoy a stated worship, whose religion was the fashion of the hour? Men so facile in point of faith, could never be at variance in doctrine with the religionists of any hue. Abroad, their devotion was paid to the object and accommodated to the manner dictated by policy. At home, fancy, sometimes fear, regulated all their piety; if they had ill-fortune under one deity, they dethroned him, and installed another better willing or able apparently to serve his devotees. If the Philistines prospered to-day, then to-day Dagon was the god of Israel; if the fortune of the Syrians preponderated to-morrow, then the brazen or stone divinity of Syria was sole patron of the Ten Tribes. If fortunes were conflicting and dubious among nations, Israel prepared for the event by inaugurating a multitude of gods. Such were the people supposed to have performed a Puritan pilgrimage to America.

If the Israelites *did* come to America to preserve their old institutions, they failed entirely of accomplishing that result. Indeed, instead of any degree to which they seem preserved, being a ground of identifying them, the *extent of the failure* is too great to be admitted within the limit of a possibility. If America was peopled by the Ten Tribes, the process of obliteration with regard to their religion, laws, customs, and civilization, and national character, proceeded with extraordinary rapidity. Not only did they become idolators without the knowledge of the true God, but in Mexico, whither they are traced as well as to the United States, they offered human sacrifices. As to the language, instead of a few resemblances, picked out of such a field, we are to wonder how the impossibility was performed, of converting the single Hebrew language in any time the Israelites could have been in America, into 438 radical roots and over 2,000 dialects. If they had lost the use of iron, once known, could they forget the knowledge of wheat as an article of food, and if so, how could they, while becoming more and more a simple people, yet cease to know the nutritive properties of milk, so much in use among barbarous nations? By what principles could the change be wrought in the people themselves, that gave them a general disposition so fixed, made them averse, and it would almost seem incapable, of sustaining contact with other people—the most wonderful change of all—for never was a people less disposed than the Indian to adopt the customs of others. Could a people, once civilized, and long in that condition, ever become so totally heathen? And would not a people so de-

votedly attached to tradition, and remembering so fondly, the land of Canaan, have retained recollections of their once living there. If, as Hebrews, the Indians knew of Noah and the flood, why, then, as Hebrews, should they forget David and Solomon? The time which the Israelites could have been in America, in fact, any, seems quite too short for all this change, if such change were possible. And, at all events, America had a far more remote antiquity, as all the evidences show, than the Lost Tribes could have furnished to her.

It does not appear at all to accord with the nature of the Hebrews,—scarcely with any human nature—to renounce forever the hope of country, as they would have done in this migration to America. Their attachment to Palestine was most fervent, and they always hoped for a return to it; nor, unreasonably, for what seemed more likely than to gain opportunity, amid the confusion of the violent and continual wars of that period? At no time, while they were even partially united, could that hope have been extinct.

Finally, how could the Hebrews escape from their bondage at any time, when the escape was not as practicable regarding their former home as America? What people of Asia would voluntarily give up their slaves? And if escaping, how were they furnished and provisioned for their long journey? Had they again the pillar of cloud and the manna from heaven? The consideration of the means is idle. Had they gained their liberty, either by revolt or free gift, neither their liberation or departure could have escaped the notice of history, since we have, for all the time in which these events could have occurred, full histories of their conqueror nations.

If it be asked, then, What became of the Ten Tribes—we answer, that their quiet disappearance under the stream of events attests, most positively, to the fortune that befel them. The nation perished by *dispersal*—the identical fate which had been predicted for them,—that they should be “scattered among all the nations.” Had they kept in any considerable degree embodied, even in slavery, they would not have sunk out of sight of men. The master-nations did, as all prudent slaveholding governments ever have done; it has ever been considered madness to allow a strange people to remain consolidated in the heart of a realm, where they may revive the recollections of their country, and plan rebellion, or at least weaken, by dividing the state. They perished as many another nation, and thousands of tribes did before them, and as many have since.

Claims have been set up for another people, resident partly within and near the land of Canaan, entitled to more consideration than those of the Hebrews. These refer to the Phenicians and their colonies, and imply an exclusive commercial agency in the discovery and settlement of America. A more adventurous people never sought their fortunes upon the great waters. Distance was no obstacle to them, where there was a hope of a market for their goods, or of material valuable for their own manufactures, or that might be profitably sold elsewhere. They were in the Atlantic, passing through the Straits of Gibraltar, 1000 B. C., and by 600 B. C. had established Commerce with the rude tribes of Britain. It has been assumed that Ophir and Tarshish were countries on the west side of America. But the immense voyage of 30,000 or 40,000 miles around Asia is improbable, and was utterly needless, as gold and silver, the only articles then to be obtained there, which would pay the expense of the voyage, were exceedingly abundant in Spain, one of their colonies, and in other much nearer regions

visited by them. The length of time occupied in the voyage to and from Tarshish is easily accounted for, from the fact that the Commerce of the Phenicians consisted, in a very great degree, of a carrying-trade between other nations, many long voyages being often made between outward ports before the vessel returned home with her profits. Had the Phenicians ever crossed the Atlantic, they would certainly not have neglected the eastern coast of America. But a sufficiently comprehensive argument is the fact, that the Phenicians, as a people, were extinct long before America had a civilization. Most of our theorists consider, only, that America had some civilized people, without seeming to be at all aware that any date for that civilization is known, or that it was later at all than the first immigration.

Before concluding, we have one remark to offer, in connection of a very prevalent error in regard to the maritime courage and abilities of the ancients. Even the savages wandered to long distances in their canoes; and nothing in modern navigation exceeds the boldness with which those who were civilized adventured upon unknown seas. As to their means, if their ships were generally small, they were not for that reason ill-adapted to long voyages. Commerce was then mainly confined to articles of small bulk, but of very disproportioned value, as compared with the staple of modern trade. If their size may seem to have rendered them less equal than modern vessels to the dangers of the seas, it must be remembered it allowed their more easy management. As regards safety, they were in some respects much superior to the vessels of our day. If they had not the unrivaled power of steam, they had yet means of propulsion and of protection which all modern vessels, with the exception of the steam-marine, lack. Our vessels, trusting entirely to sails, are placed, emphatically, at the mercy of wind and tide. While the ancients had the same advantage which we derive from sails, they made effective use also of OARS. The lever was the first great propulsive principle employed in navigation, and its efficiency has never yet been, and can never be equaled. Steam-sailing is but the application of another than hand-power to the same agency, being, if stronger, more exposed to accident. Ancient vessels had usually several banks of oars, some of them as many as five. By these, if becalmed, they were enabled to push their way with much speed, without lying to to wait for wind. Or, they could force a passage against even adverse winds and tides—escape from the dangers of a lee shore, or make a difficult port in a storm, in cases where a modern sailing vessel would have had no chance of safety. Thus was their whole marine provided, in a great measure, with the same efficiency united in a modern steam-and-sail ship. Considering the size of the vessels, it is probable, indeed, that the ancient ship was provided with means of progress and of protection against the general dangers of the sea, better than are combined in the average of steam-vessels. Shipwrecks were certainly far less common in proportion to the number of vessels, anciently, than in our times. Their fighting-ships, in action, always trusted entirely to the oars for their management, and used with great effect, a tactic regarded as rather malicious than honorable in the naval chivalry of modern times, the practice of *running down* their antagonists.

Thus we have endeavored to show how America became known to Asia—in what manner she derived her red population—and how far Commerce and commercial influences were involved in these matters. In the development of this aboriginal America, a significant, but antagonist parallel is afforded to the progress of that Young America, of the parentage of Europe.

Long before Columbus crossed the Atlantic, the navigators of that very East which he sought to reach, had started on their explorations of the Farther-East; with prows reversed to his direction, they had crossed the Pacific, and attained the opposite coast of the continent found by him, and given a new world to Asia—a far-eastern India to the eastern. If the Genoese discovery gave rise to great nations on one side of America, so did the Asian revelation to empires on the other shore. In their opposite directions, the population-tides pushed onward to the great interior. Long before the white pioneer from the Atlantic had arrived at the hither bank of the Mississippi, the *avant-courier* of the red men, from the Pacific, had scared the calm of its thither bank with the wild whoop. If the Indian was, there, a complete barbarian, the white man was, at that point, at first, a half savage. The Missouri was the Ohio artery of the former population—the Ohio became their remote Missouri. But their Missouri was followed by the untired red energy to its source. And then, the tide of the copper-empire, ascended its Rocky Mountains at the Alleghanies, and descending their eastward slope, passed the trans-montane region to a new ocean—the great Pacific of the First America—the limit to its explorations and its amplitude—the point where grand Eastern, primeval wave of Human Population, beheld the throne of Terminus, and sat down to await the arrival of the mighty Western impulse before which it should shrink back, and retrace its steps to the other ocean. The ships of the antagonist discovery and emigration were, at length, seen—and COLUMBUS gave to the New Land the name of WEST INDIES,—a designation which, although seemingly forever invalidated on the discovery of the Pacific from the mountains of Panama, a better research may again induce the world to recognize.

Art. II.—DOMINION OF THE SEAS AND THE FISHERIES.

PART II.

In our first paper we sketched briefly the history of the Dominion of the Sea, as claimed by many nations, and in connection with that subject, we gave also the opinions of the ablest juriconsults, that such claims were contrary to the law of nature and nations, and set at defiance the clearest principles of justice and right. We then spoke briefly of the right of fishing in God's expansive seas and oceans, and, agreeable to the intentions there expressed, and which prompted us to pen the article, we propose to devote this paper to the subject of the Fisheries, not limiting it merely to our own fisheries, but briefly noticing those of every nation of whom we have any knowledge, as regards this important branch of Commerce. Though, in point of interest our own may seem to demand the first notice, yet we deem it necessary to a thorough understanding of them, that we speak first of those earliest planted, so that we may compare their fruit with that which has been borne by those that were later sown. Though the Norwegians very early in their history commenced the whale fishery, still the Biscayans of France were the first people that pursued it systematically, prosecuting it with great vigor during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.

Year.	NORTHERN WHALE FISHERY.				
	Ships at sea.	Tons.	Year.	Ships at sea.	Tons.
1680.....	140	1829.....	89
1701.....	207	1839.....	41
1789.....	161	46,599	1843.....	24
1799.....	67	19,366	1844.....	32
1819.....	159	45,093	1845.....	34

The whale fishery of France is too insignificant to notice, and England, as compared with the United States, shows the following result:—England, in 1775, 109 ships; in 1845, 78 ships. United States, in 1775, 304 ships, 27,840 tons; in 1845, 691 ships, 191,902 tons.

Of the 78 ships thus credited to England, 21 are from Australia, 6 from St. John, and 1 from Halifax, thus, in reality, leaving England but 50 ships, though, to sustain this fishery she has, since 1750, paid bounties to the amount of £2,500,000 or \$12,400,000.

With these statistics of the whale fishery of other countries, (choosing to speak of the American whale fishery in connection with its other fisheries,) we will take our leave of them, and next examine for a moment their cod fisheries, briefly remarking, in regard to their origin, that upon the discovery of Newfoundland in 1497, the immense quantities of fish there soon attracted the attention of all maritime powers; and as early as 1517 mention is made of two English ships visiting these grounds for the purpose of fishing. In 1556 the French were extensively engaged in this trade; Spain had 100 ships, Portugal 50, and England only 15. In 1615 England had 250, and the French, Biscayans, and Portuguese, 400.* In 1626 the French possessed themselves of the fishing ground, and England found it necessary to send out her fishermen under convoy, and some of the fishing vessels themselves carried 20 guns and 100 men. In the various wars that afterward took place between England and France, the fisheries were regarded as of the first importance; and when France ceded her American colonies she retained her privilege of fishing, which was guaranteed by all her treaties with England from 1748 to 1814, so that to-day she possesses the isles of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and can, if she chooses, command the entrance of the St. Lawrence.

Below we give the statistics of France and England's cod fisheries, including those of their colonies. For the purpose of comparison we again anticipate our notice of the United States cod fishery.

Year.	France.			England. Ships.	U. States. Tons.
	Ships.	Tons.	Quintals.		
1517.....	1
1578.....	100	15
1615.....	200	250
1735.....	400
1744.....	564
1765.....	317	488,790	397	25,000
1774.....	262	364,405	403
1789.....	72	53,800	204,950	402
1823.....	184	16,258
1827.....	387	44,868
1831.....	302	35,180	60,977
1842.....	483	60,964
1843.....	523	64,334
1844.....	453	56,902
1845.....	455	58,441
1846.....	472	61,986
1852.....	450	59,000	102,659

* See Parkhurst's Letter to Hakluyt in 1587, Am. State Papers, and Pitkin.

In 1763 Spain ceded to Britain the right to fish at Newfoundland.

We have made no mention of the herring fisheries of France, England, and Holland, owing to lack of any recent information. (See, on this point, McCulloch's Com. Dict. and Statistics de la France, (1804,) vol. i. pp. 332-82.)

We have based our last data as to France's cod fishery on the report of the Minister of Commerce, as given by Hunt's Merchants' Magazine; and in concluding this notice of her fisheries we would remark, that they are sustained by government grants, and not by their own remunerative profit. We will now look at the North American fisheries of Great Britain.

NEWFOUNDLAND (ALL FISHERIES.)

Year.	Ships.	Quintals.	Value.	Year.	Ships.	Quintals.	Value.
1626.....	250	£135,000	1832.....	£516,476
1721.....	121	1838.....	...	724,515	788,584
1760.....	...	300,000	329,460	1843.....	...	936,262	839,260
1775.....	500,000	1851.....	...	1,175,167	600,000
1814.....	...	759,887				

NOVA SCOTIA.

Year.	Quintals. Dry fish.	Barrels. Pickled.	Boxes.	Value.
1805.....	81,191	43,299	11,612
1817.....	152,698	40,205	6,000
1833.....	160,640	37,154	3,641	£127,455
1836.....	262,245	47,517	186,968
1837.....	427,140	64,803	181,961
1838.....	434,309	94,855
1839.....	233,075
1840*.....	327,026	100,000	27,755	500,000
1851†.....	196,434	161,000	364,000

NEW BRUNSWICK.

1832.	1833.	1834.	1837.	1842.
£83,291	£31,283	£51,165	£65,327	£90,000

LABRADOR.

1814.	1832.
£45,000	£302,000

Some writers estimate the value of England's N. A. colonies fisheries at £2,000,000 per annum.

In closing this notice of the fisheries of Great Britain and France, we deem it proper to remark that Norway,† also, has a fishery second to none in amount; and that in 1844 it yielded 500,000 tons of cod, halibut, &c., and 20,000 barrels of oil. The wealth of Finmark depends entirely upon these fisheries, and never fails, the revenue exceeding the expenditure by \$2,000,000. Russia is supplied with fish mostly by this nation, while England sends most of hers to Portugal and Spain; and France, to Sardinia and her own colonial dependencies.

The connection of the New England colonies with these fisheries dates from the earliest period of their settlement; and, in fact, as early as 1606,

* Official. Ships, 812; tonnage, 43,333; men, 8,773; value of fish, (except dry and salmon,) £235,024.

† Merchants' Magazine.

‡ Com. Tariff and Reg. of the States of Europe, laid before Parliament 1844, (Part 12.)

Sir John Popham was encouraged to attempt a settlement, by the abundance of fish upon our shores.* Popham's intentions so encouraged those to whom he made them known, that in 1614 an expedition was fitted out from London for the purpose of fishing; and in 1616, 4 ships sailed from Plymouth, and 2 from London, to engage in this trade. Immediately upon the settlement of our forefathers at Plymouth they began this hardy occupation. And Holmes, in his *Annals of New England*, tells us that in 1621 we had 10 ships; 1622, 35; 1623, 40; and in 1624, 50 ships in this one branch of trade. In "A Brief Relation of the Discovery of New England," (London, 1622,) we learn that thus early ships were dispatched for the fishery; and in Mount's Relation, (1622,) we learn that the colonists then had 30 sail engaged in fishing and trade.† In describing to their friends in England the delight of the country, they say: "And, therefore, as touching the third happiness, the sea, there needs no other or greater commendation than the benefit of fishing, assured unto us by common experience."

They thus early looked upon the fisheries as of the greatest value. And, in a final description of their situation, they say: "We are settled for the fishing business and other trade." In E. Winslow's Relation, (1624,) the fisheries still constituted the charm of the colony, and from this date they became the object of the most tender care and solicitude. In the charter of 1628 the liberty of fishing was guaranteed to the colonies; and, for its farther encouragement, it was enacted, in 1639, that all vessels and their tackle, engaged in this trade, should be exempt from taxation for seven years.‡ So important was it deemed that the quality of the fish should not bring dishonor on the colony, that the colonial legislature, in 1646, appointed inspectors; and to insure the undiminished supply of the finny tribe, it was enacted, in 1660, that no fish should be taken during spawning time, and that every barrel of mackerel put up in the month of July should be liable to a fine of 10s. A little later, it was discovered that the salt used in packing destroyed the merchantable character of the fish, and in 1668 the colony decreed: "Whereas, by the blessing of God, the trade of fishing hath been advantageous to this country, which is like to be much impaired by the use of Tortugas salt, which leaves spots upon the fish, no fish salted with it shall be called merchantable fish."§

This care and jealousy of its honor is marked by many other enactments, regarding inspection, season of catching, &c.; and its value to the colonies can be judged of, only by their tenacity in insisting upon, in every charter, the regranting of the fisheries. In the charter of William and Mary, granted in 1691, it is thus expressed: "And, farther, our express will and pleasure is, and we do by these presents for us, our heirs, and successors, ordain and appoint that these, our letters patent, shall not in any manner enure, or be taken to abridge, bar, or hinder any of our loving subjects whatsoever to use and exercise the trade of fishing upon the coast of New England, but that they and every of them shall have full power and liberty to continue and use their said trade of fishing upon the said coast, and in any of the seas thereunto adjoining, or any arms of the said seas or salt-water river where they have been wont to fish, &c.¶ Under such grants as

* Chalmer.

† See Mass. Hist. Col., vol. vii., 2d series, 20, 62, 101, 102.

‡ Ancient Charter, Colony, and Province Laws, 718.

§ General Laws and Liberties of the Mass. Colony, 53, 54.

¶ Charter of William and Mary to the inhabitants of the Province of Massachusetts, N. E. Benj. Harris, Printer, Boston, 1692.

these the colonies pursued their fisheries, and in 1698 we find them petitioning parliament against the money bill of William and Mary, because it continued the duty on colonial fish in order to protect those of the mother country.* This petition was of course rejected, for even at that early day England had had forebodings that American enterprise and perseverance would drive her (as it has done) from the fisheries.

Of what intervened between this period and the Revolution little need be said, as the following estimate of the value and quantity of fish taken by Massachusetts alone, in 1765, will tell its own story:—Vessels engaged in the cod fishery, 300; whale, 180; mackerel, 90. Value of cod fishery, \$366,796; mackerel, \$310,893; total of all, including whale fishery, \$1,214,830. In 1775, parliament passed the famous act driving us from the fisheries, where we had plied our labors, and in which, at this time, we had engaged in the cod fishery 665 vessels, taking 350 quintals of fish, valued at \$1,071,000.† It was on the passage of this bill that Burke uttered that glowing eulogy upon American fishermen, that will live so long as a single tongue can speak the language, and which, after the lapse of 78 years, possesses power enough to strengthen every American heart in defense of them and their rights: "As to the wealth which the colonies have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter rehearsed at your bar. No sea (continued he) but what is vexed by their fisheries. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of the French, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of the English enterprise, ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent which it had been carried by this recent people."‡

In the course of the passage of this bill the following occurrences seem worthy of note. February 28, 1775, a petition from Deal, (from which place and Portsmouth there sailed 400 vessels for Newfoundland, the tonnage of which amounted to 30,000, beside 20,000 in shallops, and employing 20,000 men, raising 3,000 fresh seamen every year, and catching fish to the value of £500,000,) that the bill prohibiting fishing might pass, and stating that the value of the fishery carried on by residents in the mother country amounted to the sum given above. The Quakers opposed it, and cited Nantucket, as containing 5,000 inhabitants, nine-tenths Quakers, and engaged entirely in the fishery. David Barclay hoped the clause as to the fisheries would be stricken out, as, if it was not, the colonies could not pay their debts. Burke spoke in behalf of the colonies, while Lord Clare quoted from a writer (approvingly) the remark, that, "restrain their trade, and take away their fisheries, and you will soon bring them to their senses." Seth Jenkins gave his evidence that Nantucket had 140 vessels, and of this number 132 were engaged in the fisheries, producing £330,000. Others remarked, that New England fisheries increased and the mother country's decreased, and hence desired this bill to pass, to crush them if possible, alleging, also, that by the fisheries they carried on an illegal trade with the French.§ Suffice it to say, that the petitioners for the bill succeeded in their purpose, and the colonists were driven from the fisheries, that for near a century and a half had enriched their state and given employment to thousands of its citizens.

* Chalmer's Revolt of the Colonies, 229.

† American State Papers, vol. vii., p. 15.

‡ Burke's Works, vol. ii., 45, 46.

§ Parliamentary History, vol. xviii., 1774-1777.

Though the fisheries were, as a matter of course, destroyed by the war, still, as early as May, 1778, Congress, through the importunity of the eastern members, took up the consideration of the question, whether the right of fishing should be an ultimatum in the treaty of peace that might be made with the mother country. Without tiring the reader with a repetition of motions, made for the purpose of preserving the fisheries, even at the risk of continuing the war, and counter motions, making their possession depend on accident and contingencies, we will at once remark, that their positive concession from the mother country, as an ultimatum of peace, was not effected till October, 1789.* The thought may have suggested itself to the reader, as to the cause of this delay and long-continued debate, as regarded the necessity of their preservation, and we intend to give the reason, at the risk of introducing what some may consider a controversial question. Preferring the language of the men of those days to that of our own, we shall quote from the Virginia Debate, upon the adoption of the Constitution in 1789. Mr. Monroe, in the course of these debates, said: "The northern States were willing to yield up the Mississippi to Spain, in order to prevent an augmentation of Southern power and influence. Mr. Grayson said, "It is well known that the Newfoundland Fisheries and the Mississippi are balances for one another, that the possession of one tends to the preservation of the other. This accounts for Eastern policy. They thought, that if the Mississippi was given up, the Southern States would give up the right of the fisheries, on which their very existence depended, and that while their preservation depended on the success of the war, they were for keeping the navigation of the Mississippi." Mr. Madison remarked, "I do suppose that the fisheries had its influence on those States. No doubt it was the case. For that and other reasons they still continue against the alienation, for it might lessen the security of retaining the fisheries." Patrick Henry remarked, "that after obtaining the fisheries we were willing to cede the Mississippi to Spain."

By these quotations the reader can see that the South would not consent to make the fisheries an ultimatum, unless the North would give them the opportunity of extension, by demanding of Spain the navigation of the Mississippi, and to this the North conceded, and thus escaped one danger that threatened the fisheries. But another was still in store for them; for France, like England, had suffered by our competition with her in this branch of trade, and desired to drive us from them, and the intercepted letter of Marabois† plainly showed that our ally was endeavoring to deprive us of them, and was encouraged in this purpose by his minister here.

We might, very properly, introduce here a part of Marabois' letter, but will only remark, that in it he tells the king that Samuel Adams is stirring up the Eastern States to continue the war unless the fisheries are ceded, and says that the prevailing toast in Massachusetts was, "No peace without the fisheries." He advises the king to express his surprise that we should lay any claim to them, and to promise us some other fishery in case we would relinquish our claim on those of Newfoundland. This letter produced great indignation; but, after all, the States were more to blame than the envoy, for, upon every occasion of addressing the king, they had expatiated largely on the value of the fisheries; and in their instructions to Franklin, and their

* The Secret Journal of Foreign Affairs, 1776-1781.

† See Pitkin's Civil Hist. U. S. App.

plan for the reduction of Canada, (No. 4,) the fisheries and their value were the great inducement held out to the king to embark with us in a war against England. But this danger we also escaped, and the next difficulty was to wring their concession from England. Of the eloquence of the elder Adams upon this occasion, all are too familiar for us to think of copying here his remarks, so we close this notice of the dangers that surround the fisheries by remarking, that the treaty of peace, in 1783, gave us the "right to fish on the Grand Banks and in the sea, and the liberty, on the shore, and in all bays, creeks, and harbors." This treaty has since been superseded by the convention of 1818, and before discussing the point, as to whether this grant was perpetual or temporary in its character, we propose to give certain statistics of all our fisheries, remarking, in this place, that our whale fisheries commenced from the shore in 1713, and soon extended to the sea, and that immediately on the close of the war, in 1783, 35 licenses were asked for by Nantucket for the purpose of prosecuting this trade, and its success from that date can be judged of by the statistics we give.

TONNAGE ENGAGED IN THE FISHERIES.

Year.	Whale. Tons.	Cod. Tons.	Mackerel. Tons.	Year.	Whale. Tons.	Cod. Tons.	Mackerel. Tons.
1731....	1,800	1837....	129,136	86,551	46,810
1776....	27,040	1838....	124,859	70,064	56,649
1793-99.	11,532	1839....	132,285	72,258	35,983
1799-1804	6,702	1840....	136,926	76,035	28,269
1804-9..	3,581	1841....	157,403	66,551	11,321
1809-14.	2,697	1842....	151,990	54,804	16,096
1814-19.	27,438	1843....	152,518	61,224	11,775
1819-24.	189,913	1844....	168,614	85,224	16,170
1824-29.	211,489	1845....	190,892	69,829	21,413
1829....	57,284	1846....	187,419	72,516	36,462
1830....	39,703	61,544	35,973	1847....	193,858	70,117	31,451
1831....	82,797	60,977	46,210	1848....	192,613	82,651	43,558
1832....	73,246	54,027	47,247	1849....	180,186	42,970	73,853
1833....	101,636	62,720	48,725	1850....	146,016	85,646	58,101
1834....	108,424	56,403	61,082	1851....	181,644	87,475	50,539
1835....	97,640	72,374	64,443	1852....	193,797	102,659	72,546
1836....	146,253	63,807	64,425				

TONNAGE ENGAGED IN THE COD FISHERY.

Year.	Enrolled.	Licensed.	Year.	Enrolled.	Licensed.
1765.....	25,000	1808-13.....	152,140	42,563
1793-8.....	148,101	37,256	1813-18.....	139,498	28,041
1798-1803.....	145,783	37,041	1818-23.....	204,196
1803-8.....	246,026	43,744	1823-30.....	540,820

VALUE OF FISH EXPORTED.

Year.	Dry fish.	Pickled.	Year.	Dry fish.	Pickled.
1790-1803....	\$14,500,000	1846.....	699,559	230,495
1803-13.....	14,135,000	\$3,261,000	1847.....	659,629	136,221
1813-23.....	8,341,508	2,672,108	1848.....	609,482	109,315
1823-33.....	7,326,437	2,506,172	1849.....	419,092	93,035
1833-43.....	6,539,674	1,953,145	1850.....	365,349	91,445
1843.....	381,175	116,042	1851.....	367,729	115,932
1844.....	699,836	197,179	1852.....	354,127	98,883
1845.....	803,353	208,614			

Exported to Hayti.....	\$162,073	Exported to Dutch Co. W. Indies	\$23,547
" Cuba.....	88,222	" West Indies.....	40,992

VALUE OF THE EXPORTS OF THE PRODUCE OF THE SEA.

Year.	Value.	Year.	Value.
1803-8.....	\$14,859,000	1841.....	\$2,846,851
1808-13.....	6,371,000	1842.....	2,823,010
1813-18.....	4,406,000	1843.....	2,112,548
1818-23.....	9,345,777	1844.....	3,350,501
1823-28.....	7,912,999	1845.....	4,507,124
1828-33.....	9,684,360	1846.....	3,456,398
1834.....	2,402,469	1847.....	3,466,803
1835.....	2,071,493	1848.....	1,980,963
1836.....	2,174,524	1849.....	2,547,654
1837.....	2,666,058	1850.....	2,824,818
1838.....	2,711,452	1851.....	3,294,691
1839.....	1,917,969	1852.....	2,282,342
1840.....	3,198,370		

PRODUCTION OF THE COD FISHERY.

Year.	Quintals.	Value.	Year.	Quintals.	Value.
1731.....	230,000	\$621,000	1799.....	354,276	\$865,207
1765.....	350,000	1,301,000	1840.....	773,949	2,321,847
1775.....	350,000	1,071,000	1850*.....	1,100,000	3,300,000

CAPITAL INVESTED IN THE FISHERIES IN 1840.

Maine.....	\$546,967	Connecticut.....	\$1,301,640
New Hampshire.....	59,680	New York.....	949,000
Massachusetts.....	11,725,840		
Rhode Island.....	1,077,157	Total capital of States..	\$16,429,620

Capital invested in 1852, estimated by increase of tonnage, viz.:—Tonnage engaged in all fisheries in 1840, 240,526; 1852, 369,012; increase, 128,486. Total value, \$24,000,000.

TONNAGE OF THE DIFFERENT STATES EMPLOYED IN THE FISHERIES IN 1852.

	Whale.	Cod.	Mackerel.
Maine.....	44,070	15,678
New Hampshire.....	1,428	855
Massachusetts.....	153,258	50,366	55,550
Rhode Island.....	7,470	327	489
Connecticut.....	25,991	6,635	1,425
New York.....	1,251	7,075

These statistics exhibit some facts worthy of notice, and especially that one that exhibits such an increase in tonnage as compared with 1840. By observation it will be seen that the tonnage engaged in mackereling has doubled since 1830, that of the whale fishery increased fivefold, and that of the cod fishery more than half. Or, compared with 1840 it exhibits an aggregate increase as follows. The tonnage employed in the fisheries in 1840 was 240,526 tons, and in 1852 it was 369,012 tons, being an increase of more than half, or 128,485 tons.

Our exports of dry and pickled fish have largely decreased, but this results from increased home consumption, but on the other hand, our exports of the produce of the sea are as high as they were in 1833, and the aggregate produce of which for the last twelve years has been \$35,489,952.

With these remarks upon the statistical tables we have given, we proceed to discuss, what ought to be to every American citizen an all-important question, viz.; by what title do we hold our right to the fisheries.

To discuss this point understandingly it will be necessary to examine the

* Estimated in proportion to the increase of tonnage since 1840.

two treaties of 1783 and 1818, and as the negotiators of 1818 have been severely censured for the conventions then made, we propose to discuss first the character of the treaty of 1783. In the first place, by the treaty of 1783 we obtained the "right" to take fish on the Grand Bank, and on all other banks of Newfoundland, also in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and at all other places in the sea where the inhabitants of both countries used at any time heretofore to fish, and then it gives them the "liberty" to take fish on such part of the coast of Newfoundland as British fishermen shall use, but not to cure or dry the same on the island, and also on the coasts, bays, and creeks, of all other of his Britannic majesty's possessions in America. Such is the general language of the treaty, and the question arises, whether it contained a sure and fixed guaranty of our right to fisheries, or whether, in case of war or mutual misunderstanding, the stipulation or concession, might not be withdrawn. Men of the ablest character have argued at great length this very important question, and while it has never been our good fortune to see the arguments of those who contend the arrangement was temporary, still we have read very carefully the opinions of those who contend it was a right in perpetuity and not in limitation. Though John Quincy Adams, in his letters upon the "Mississippi and the Fisheries," brought to bear upon this subject that depth of learning and instructive wisdom which were so characteristic of him, still we cannot yield to his opinion that this third article was perpetual in its character and irrevocable in its grant, but on the contrary we do believe that this treaty and that article carried within themselves the seeds of their own destruction and the elements of a premature decay. Our reasons for this opinion are these. The reader will notice that the word "right" is used in this treaty when speaking of our taking fish on the banks and in the sea, while when speaking of our fishing in the bay, creeks, and harbors, the word "*liberty*" is substituted for "right." Adams asserted, when contending for the indestructibility of this article, that "liberty" is synonymous with "right," and to support his assertion, quotes from Crabbe's English Synonymes, where that erudite scholar speaks of natural liberty as the same as an inalienable right. But this same author, when speaking of "liberty," as regards a concession, defines it to be a "a leave, a license, and permission," and on the other hand he declares "right" to be a thing independent of human laws and regulations, or, to use the language of Rutherford, that quality in a person or nation that makes it just to do an action. Webster also makes the same distinction between "right" and "liberty," defining the first to be a claim, a just demand and liberty, a license, and permission. Of this last character is the permission given to our fishermen by the treaty of 1783, for from the very nature of the grant, we could not have demanded as a right the privilege of the shore fishery, when every writer on international law expressly asserts that every nation has sole and exclusive possession a marine league from the shore, especially as regards the fisheries. Therefore, as this treaty guaranteed only the fisheries of the open seas as a "right," those that were merely permissive in their character, were destroyed by the war of 1812.

In further support of the correctness of our opinion we here state three reasons for supposing that the grant was temporary, not perpetual. And, first, because it conceded to us the use of territory to which we had no claim, and was only obtained by a combination of circumstances against Great Britain, such as she never before saw. Second, it opened the way for contraband trade, which in the then growing state of the colonies, must

have been very injurious to England's trade, and could only have been granted as a temporary privilege, and not as an enduring right. Third, it warded with the dearest interest of the remaining colonies and transported foreign competitors to their own soil to undermine their prosperity and their trade, and lastly it gave to us the means of fomenting discord in her remaining colonial settlements, and of stirring them up to the same resistance that had resulted in making us independent States.

To suppose that any government would ever have conceded such privileges as these as a right, seems to us an absurdity, and we cannot see how any one can for a moment suppose that we had any right whatever to fish from and on the shores of a neighboring nation. No writer upon the subject of international law ever asserted such a principle, and we dare to assert, that no government possesses the right to concede such a privilege, only as a temporary expedient in a perilous time. From the word itself, and from the very nature of the grant, it must have been only a temporary concession. And the last clause of the treaty justifies this opinion, for it expressly says, that so soon as certain places become settled, it shall not be lawful for us to cure fish on the shore, unless we made a previous agreement with the inhabitants thereof. Here is a plain limitation, not of a "right," but of a "liberty," dependent only on the will of a handful of people, or only a single person, for the treaty says, "proprietors" or "possessors" of the ground shall be consulted in regard to the continuance of this liberty.

To conclude this point as regards the treaty of 1783, we may observe that, like all treaties, the imperfect rights they guaranty become extinct, when the circumstances that superinduced them no longer exist, while the natural and inalienable rights remain, independent of any treaty or convention whatsoever. Thus the natural right of self-government and the fisheries in the open sea existed after the war of 1812, while the imperfect or permissive right of the shore fishery and small bays and harbors became, from necessity, on the occurrence of war, a subject for further or renewed negotiation. Had it not been for the war of 1812, we doubt not but Great Britain would have insisted on a new treaty, for she possessed three ways of procuring one. First, by centralized colonization in such places as were most frequented by our fishermen, thus annulling the privilege of drying and curing, etc. Second, the allowing the contraband trade, till it had reached such an extent as to demand some new stipulation as to the access of our fishermen to the creeks, bays, and shores, and lastly, the secret fomenting of troubles between the colonists and our citizens, so that by this means she could assert her inability to maintain the treaty of 1783, as regarded the shore fishery, and thus demand a new convention, to remedy the difficulties she herself had created.

That these opinions as regards the treaty of 1783 are correct, the address of the merchants of St. John, presented to Admiral Keats in 1813, amply prove, for they expressly specify and complain of the insolence of our fishermen, their contraband trade, and the injury they did to their Commerce. While we thus frankly express our opinion of this treaty, let no one suppose that we are not conscious of what we gained by it, for, as an American citizen, we honor and revere those men who wrung from the mistress of the seas the admission of our *right* to fish in those seas, which she once claimed as property, and from which she had attempted to drive us by parliamentary enactments, and we say, all honor to them, for the "liberty to fish in the harbors and bays, and on the shores, for in the exercise of that freedom, we

laid the foundation of a naval power that was sufficiently strong to combat successfully the very power that granted the concession.

With these remarks upon the treaty of 1783, we come to that of 1818, which gives to us the liberty to take fish of every kind on that part of the southern coast of Newfoundland, which extends from Cape Ray to the Rameau Island, on the western and northern coast of Newfoundland from the said Cape Ray to the Quirpon Island, and also on the coast, bays, harbors, and creeks, from Mount Jolly, on the southern coast of Labrador, to and through the Straits of Bellisle, and thence northward, indefinitely, along the coast, without infringing on the rights of the Hudson's Bay Company. It thus gives us the liberty to cure and dry fish in any of the bays, harbors, and creeks, above described, but in case it becomes settled, we are to make a previous arrangement with the proprietors of the soil. Thus far the stipulations are plain and indisputable, but the two following clauses are subject of dispute: "And the United States hereby renounce forever any liberty heretofore enjoyed or claimed by the inhabitants thereof, to take, dry, or cure fish, on or within three marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, creeks, or harbors, of his Britannic majesty's dominions in America, not included in the above mentioned limits; provided, however, that the American fishermen shall be allowed to enter such bays or harbors, for the purpose of shelter, and of repairing damages therein, of purchasing wood and obtaining water, and for no other purpose whatsoever."

Upon this last clause of the treaty two constructions are put, and in view of it the question arises, Which interpretation shall prevail?—for upon this point depends the right of American citizens to fish in the bays of Chaleur and Fundy. Though but some thirty years have elapsed since the treaty was executed, still it is so curiously worded as to make it as difficult of solution, i. e., taking the words merely, as though it had stood for centuries; and in consideration of this fact, we will look first at the rule by which such, and all treaties, are to be interpreted.

According to Vattel, (book ii., cap. 17,) a treaty is to be construed as follows: 1. The terms are to be explained according to common usage; we are to reject everything that leads to an absurdity, and interpret it from the connection and relation of the things themselves, and the reasons of the deed, (mark that!) and, lastly, we are to consider what were the ideas of those who drew up the treaty, and interpret it accordingly.

Let us now apply these tests to this convention of 1818, and see which government is right. In the first place, the causes that produced the convention of 1818 are familiar to almost every American citizen. By the singular and extensive grants made to us by the mother country at the close of the revolutionary war—which, as we before observed, exceeded what we had a right to demand by the law of nature and nations—we enjoyed a liberty in all her bays, creeks, and harbors, and on all her shores, the same as when we were her colonial dependencies. In the exercise of this liberty we had driven England from the fisheries, taken the lead of her remaining colonies, and, in addition to all, we had made the privilege she had conceded to us a means of carrying on an extensive and very lucrative contraband trade.

The extent of this trade is briefly alluded to by Lloyd, in a letter addressed to J. Q. Adams, (then Commissioner at Ghent,) in answer to certain inquiries which Adams had propounded to him; while the places in which it was carried on are strongly set forth in a memorial addressed to Admiral

Keats by the merchants of St. John, on the eve of his departure for England in 1813. That it was to us a profitable trade, all admitted; and no doubt we supplied the colonies, to a great extent, with most of their articles of trade.

These three causes combined, viz., annihilation of England's cod fishery, decline of her colonial, and the contraband trade, induced Great Britain, towards the close of the last war, to give notice that she considered the stipulations of 1783 at an end, and should so regard it when dealing with our fishermen. But the positive instructions to our Commissioner at Ghent not to touch the fisheries, precluded them from attempting a settlement of the question; but the decided tone of the British government, finally brought about the convention which produced the treaty of 1818. The object of the convention was threefold. 1. To draw the dividing line between what we had a claim to by the law of nature and nations and by the treaty of 1783. 2. The permanent security of this branch of Commerce to both the British colonies and the United States. And, lastly, its adjustment upon such principles as would secure the rights of both nations without detriment to either, and destroy forever the contraband trade. Proceeding upon these three propositions, the American Commissioners made the following concession, viz., the right of the shore fishery in the bays, creeks, and harbors, renouncing their liberty a league from the shore, and also from the mouths of the creeks, harbors, and bays: and upon this word "bay" lies the whole question in dispute, and to it we must apply the rule of interpretation as laid down by Vattel.

This word "bay" is exceedingly indefinite when standing by itself, in any place, being often applied to large bodies of water, which are, in fact, inland seas—the same as the word "gulf" is applied to bodies of water, the Adriatic Sea being called the "Gulf of Venice." We must, therefore, look for its definition in what precedes or follows it, and then we can easily determine to what bodies of water it was meant to apply. And again, as in the language of Vattel, the treaty must be interpreted so as not to end in an absurdity, but be taken in connection with and in relation to the things themselves, the reasons of the deed, and the ideas of those who penned the article.

We will first notice the effect of the British construction of this article as regards the word "bay." In the first place, it would exclude our fishermen from the bays of Chaleur, Mechelmac, and Fundy; from which bays we catch 140,000 barrels of mackerel, employing 500 vessels and 5,000 men, thus destroying, at one sweep, the very foundation of our mercantile marine. Second, it would give to us a right of entering, for certain purposes, bays—where there is an anchorage ground—harbors, and creeks, from which she could not drive us or deny us, without violating the law of nations, even though we had no treaty with her; for by that law alone and independent of any power, any vessel in distress has a *right* to take shelter and repairs in any nation's ports.

Now, we appeal to every candid reader if it is not an *absurdity*, that three enlightened American Commissioners ever made such a treaty as that? and does not such an interpretation give the lie to a *deed* that was meant to confirm and ratify a right, and not undermine and destroy it?

The American interpretation produces the following results: 1. Removes us a league from the shore and all inland anchorage, bays, creeks, and harbors, only in certain specified cases; 2. it strikes a death-blow at the con-

traband trade, by removing us from the ground where we carried it on; and, lastly, it leaves us, as before, the competitors of the British colonies in the open bays or seas, giving them the advantage of that shore fishery, which to them is more profitable than all others beside. In support of the American interpretation, we give the following facts; and first, the only points ever raised by the British colonists, prior to the convention of 1818, was our right to fish from their shores, and in their bays that were anchorage grounds. In proof of this position, we have the address of the merchants of St. John, before alluded to, who say that we carried on the contraband trade from anchorage ground; next, the letter of Asheran, British agent for New Brunswick at London, who, writing from London in 1817, says: "The Americans are excluded (referring to the draught of a treaty prepared by the British government) from the shore fishery and fishing in our harbors as formerly." Admiral Milner, in his instructions given to the vessels under him in 1817, orders the seizure of such vessels only as are found anchored and fishing in the bays, or within three marine miles of the shore. The circular of the Governor of New Brunswick, dated June 17, 1817, allows only the seizure of foreign vessels at anchor in their bays, creeks, and harbors, unless by stress of weather. An English judge, in a decision delivered in the Court of Admiralty, said he did not feel willing to extend the right of seizing foreign fishing vessels, only in the creeks, bays, and harbors, where they were at anchor. Lastly, neither Lord Bathurst nor the British Commissioners ever raised the question of our right to enter the large bays or open seas, and for thirty years the right remained unquestioned, thus virtually admitting the correctness of the claim.

Our second proof of the justness of our explanation of this article is, that as before remarked, by the law of nations, any vessel in distress has a right to enter any country's ports for necessary assistance and repairs, and that, too, without any treaty stipulation whatever. But though such be the law, still in this treaty we see it provided that we shall have the liberty of entering any creek, bay, or harbor, for the purpose of shelter, repairs, watering, and provisioning. Now, why did we stipulate for this privilege, to which we had a perfect right by the law of nature and nations? Solely and alone because we had formerly exercised and claimed the right to fish in such bays, creeks, and harbors, and in so doing, carried on a contraband trade with the inhabitants of the land. But to quiet the discontent of the British colonies, to show that our government did not connive at smuggling into the British provinces, we relinquished all right whatever to enter such places; but, lest an accident might result in a seizure, we designated the precise reasons for which we might enter those places, to which we had relinquished our early claim and right.

Now, what were the bays to which we relinquished all claim and right? Simply those that, in the language of the "proviso" of the treaty, could give us anchorage ground, shelter, repairs, water, and provisions. Could the open bays of Chaleur, Fundy, or even the Gulf of St. Lawrence, do this? No one will assert it; but it must be evident to every candid mind, that it was bays leading from these great bodies of water to which we relinquished our right, and which were capable, from their land-locked position, shallowness, and having villages on their shores, to afford shelter, anchorage, repairs, water, and provisions.

And, lastly, the colonial government of the colonies themselves have relinquished their interpretation of the word "bay," and asserted the right of

the mother country to prohibit us from fishing within a league of a line drawn from headland to headland forming such bay. For our own part, we would ask no stronger proof of the correctness of the American interpretation of this convention of 1818, than this last evasion of the colonists; and with it, we close our remarks on the treaty, and proceed to examine this claim, to which we alluded in our first paper.

The colonists, when speaking of this claim, say that it has existed from time immemorial; that all nations have admitted it; and, lastly, they even asserted that the very words were in the treaty itself. Unhappily, however, for them, the words are not there, and the institution of the "King's Chambers" extends only from 1604. At that time, King James ordered a survey of such places in his kingdom, and he decreed that in them no belligerents should engage in battle. But we learn from Sir Lionel Jenkins, that this decree was not even insisted on; but, on the contrary, so often was it violated, that he refused to condemn a belligerent ship taken in a "King's Chamber." Thus it will be seen, that even in the first period of its existence, no nation admitted the immunity of them; and, more than all, neither Grotius, Vattel, or Brynkenback, admits the sanctity of any nation's territory farther than cannon shot from the shore. Therefore, the claim is of itself an arrogant assumption, and is based upon the right of a nation to make property out of the sea. It is, as we remarked in the beginning, the revival of England's old claim to the dominion of the sea—a claim that sets at defiance every law of nature and nations, and wars against the common rights of mankind. Thus, in both cases of "bays" and "headlands," justice and truth defend the cause of the American fisherman, and forbid the concession of even the shadow of a right.

Having looked at the stipulations of the convention of 1818, and the various interpretations put upon it, we come to the point as to the cause of all our difficulty on the fishery question. Two reasons have been assigned in explanation of it—one is, that it results from confiscating the property of the Tories of the revolution; the other, that it flows from the jealousy of the sister colonies. That both of these causes have entered largely into the question, we would not deny; but, at the same time, we assert, that in every period of her history, Great Britain has attempted, by threats or force, to destroy the fisheries of every nation whose maritime prosperity she envied, and whose mercantile trade she wished to destroy. Let us cite a few examples:—Holland, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, possessed—according to Sir William Petty—more than one-half of the tonnage of the world, and the foundation of this vast mercantile greatness was a herring fishery, employing 3,000 ships and 50,000 men. England attempted to destroy this fishery by demanding a license; but not succeeding in this, she (in 1636) attacked by force her fishing busses, and wrung from the owners of them £30,000. In 1665, she demanded of Holland a tribute for the right of fishing in the British channel and on the coast of Scotland, both of which demands Holland refused to accede to, saying she preferred no fishery at all to paying a tribute.

Spain was the next power to whom she turned her attention, hoping, and finally succeeding in destroying, Spain's fishery. By her treaties with this power in 1667-70, she procured the relinquishment of her right to the fisheries of Newfoundland; and yet the relinquishment was not so clearly expressed but that Spain denied it, and so late as 1712, some Spanish fishermen visited those waters, and the Marquis de Mantélon presented to the

British court a memorial setting forth the claims of the inhabitants of Guy-puscoa to fish in those seas. The Board of Trade, in a letter addressed to Lord Dartmouth, denied such a right, and gave orders to the British cruisers to drive them from the ground. To make this prohibition still stronger, and to finally settle the claim of Spain, an article was inserted in the treaty of 1760 by which Spain, in direct terms, conceded every right she had in the fisheries of Newfoundland.

The case of France we have before spoken of, and nothing thus far but the mighty power of that nation and its hatred of England, has preserved those fisheries, which they deem of inestimable value.

We now come to her conduct towards the colonies, before colonial jealousy or Tory confiscation had induced her to turn her attention towards us, for the purpose of depriving us of our fisheries. Although as early as 1635, the government refused to declare in favor of a free fishery, still the act of 1651 was the first severe blow to the colonies, especially as it regarded the article of fish, for by it no colonial fish could be exported from the mother country, nor could the colonies legally export it from their own ports. Yet in defiance of this act, we still continued our trade; and though it was re-enacted in 1680, still we set at defiance its provisions, as we have before shown by the extract from "*Jocelyn's Voyage*," who says, that in 1660, we had considerable Commerce with Lisbon, Marseilles, and many other parts in southern Europe. In addition to the restrictions of this bill, a duty was levied on all colonial fish sent to England; and in 1705, an act was passed excluding us from the Newfoundland fisheries. And thus, down to the act of 1775, which annihilated all Commerce and trade with the mother country, and which ordered the seizure of our fishing vessels, it will be seen she endeavored to suppress and destroy them, for by their success, her own citizens were alarmed for the continuance of the fisheries of England; and, more than all, she saw in them the foundation of a mighty maritime power, that some day might become, as it has, the rival of the mistress of the seas.

And this fact leads us to the consideration of the value of the fisheries—not as a capital, not as a source of profit, but as the foundation of a nation's mercantile trade; and, though we are confident that we cannot present any new fact as regards this important branch of trade, still the reiteration of its value cannot be amiss, especially when our fisheries are in danger. From the time when Holland ordered public prayers for her "great and small fisheries," and Raleigh sought to awaken the jealousy of England in regard to them; from the time when Sir William Petty defined one of the three sources of a nation's greatness to be its fisheries, and Postlethwaite asserted that by them France had risen to be a naval power sufficiently strong to set at defiance the navies of England and Holland; from the time when Hamilton urged their value as an incentive to forming the American Union,—we say, from these earlier and later times, every writer and every statesman has expatiated on the value of all fisheries as a means of enlarging and extending a nation's mercantile and naval marine. The novelty of the pursuit, the variation of the duty, the nearness to our shore—all render it more inviting to the landsman than any other branch of Commerce. From this pursuit, after they have become inured to the sea and its dangers, they enter the more extended and difficult branch of the coasting or foreign trade; and from this shipping engaged in the fishery, come our ablest seamen and most enlightened masters and mates.

Thus, we see the fisheries of England in 1775, producing yearly 3,000 fresh sailors; and apply the same rule to ours, and it gives a nursery to draw from sufficiently fruitful to man yearly over 300 new ships, which add yearly to our tonnage to the amount of 366,000 tons. With this facility for supplying the increased demand for sailors, comes another advantage of great national importance. We mean the reserve it gives us for manning the navy in case of war. Of all classes that are affected by war, none feel it so quickly as the fishermen, and none are so interested in its successful operations and speedy termination. Deprived of their employment by war, they seek, by becoming participants in it, to hasten its close, and at the same time enrich themselves by it. The histories of our revolutionary and last war show the firm reliance we may place on them, and the glory they ever bring on the American name. Long may it be ere a single right of theirs shall be endangered or ceded to a foreign power.

From the very bosom of the fisheries have sprung up such republics as Genoa, Venice, Holland, and America; and no prouder compliment was ever paid to any people than that paid by Jocelyn, who said of the American fishermen in 1666, that they were great sticklers for liberties; and our early history shows that the first people who set at defiance the mother country, were the fishermen, who, in spite of "Navigation Acts," traded to Lisbon, Marseilles, and Bordeaux. The spirit that then animated them still exists, and there is scarcely a page in American history but that tells of the spot that is baptized with their blood; and no eulogy, however eloquent, can do justice to their bravery, honor, and self-sacrificing virtue. Shall they be sacrificed, and the mercantile power of our country, which is soon to outstrip that of the boasted "mistress of the seas," be crippled in its infancy and dishonored in its youth? We believe every American citizen will give an emphatic "no," and pronounce a doom on that administration that proposes to sacrifice even the shadow of their rights.

Spain with its poverty, Portugal with its degradation, and Holland with its weakness, stand as a warning to any temporizing policy, and cry out, in the language of our revolutionary fathers, "No truce without the fisheries!" Let us contend only for our natural rights, and never yield that liberty of fishing that gave to the colonists a thousand sail, and in our day to us 4,000,000 tonnage. We may deteriorate in virtue, lose our jealous watchfulness of liberty—but so long as we keep this nursery of seamen, this school of heroes, our great essential rights will be secure, for from them shall spring Commerce, with its unnumbered sails, and every canvas that shivers in the gale shall fan and quicken freedom's never-dying flame.

Art. III.—MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS.*

AMONG the many associative efforts abounding in our principal cities, MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS have come, within a few years, to occupy a very conspicuous position; and whether as regards their respectability of character, the objects of their foundation, or the sphere and degree of their influence, none have better title to such eminence. Certainly no social invention within the century, the object of which has been the improvement of Young Men, has been attended with results more auspicious; and, perhaps no class-institution has ever been established in the country, the good influences of which were so generally diffused throughout the whole community. It is not merely capable and intelligent *merchants* that they have assisted to produce; for, beside being mercantile seminaries, they have proven excellent schools for the formation of general character. They have done much to produce wise and good men—to enlarge the general conceptions and strengthen the general understanding of the young—to foster practical talent, and facilitate the progress of enterprise, irrespective of their particular direction. They have tended, even, to develop well-proportioned characters in professions regarded, usually, as completely dis severed from either mercantile pursuit or study—such as politics and literature. Even religion is not without indebtedness to them, apart from their conservative influence upon the morals of society. Nor are they singular in this respect; for the very process of enlarging the mind, although the means by which it is effected may aim at some peculiar development, may yet elicit a disposition toward some other very different product. Such is the frequent result observed in other educative institutions.

It would seem that the principle of association among young men, for the purposes of mutual improvement, ought to have been carried to a much further degree than has ever been attained. Perhaps, from the erroneous idea of the superior dignity of the field, an ambition to figure upon the noblest theater, and an egotism entirely fatal to the true inspiration of teacher and benefactor, an undue proportion, as it seems to us, of the energy that seeks to reform and improve, has ever been lavished upon the comparatively barren soil of prime manhood. How many have expended whole life-times in hopelessly declaiming against errors and faults so firmly grained into the gnarled tree as to be past eradication. To attempt any radical reform in full-grown men is one of the least promising tasks that can be essayed; mere improvement can be but slowly effected, and to a degree very limited; and it is, indeed, a labor of itself, even to arrest and combine their attention. But youth is quite another material. The attention of the young is easily drawn, and so active is then the social principle, that association with them is spontaneous. They have a perpetual tendency to collective action—to illustrate which, suppose a meeting upon any ordinary subject to be called. The same stimuli of glaring advertisements and flaming posters, the same activity of drummers and committee-men, the same square yards

* Thirty-second Annual Report of the Board of Direction of the Mercantile Library Association, in the City of New York, January, 1853.

Thirty-third Annual Report of the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, 1853.

Eighteenth Annual Report of the Board of Directors of the Young Men's Mercantile Library Association of Cincinnati, Jan. 4, 1853.

Sixth Annual Report of the Board of Directors of the Mercantile Library Association of St. Louis, January, 1852.

of banner and pints of oil, which would drag out any given number of men of above thirty-five years of age, would assemble twice that number of twenty-five, and three times as many of eighteen years, and this relatively, too, to the numbers of each age addressed. Understanding so well these facts, how is it that the philanthropists of capital and the philanthropists of action, have always, to such a degree, preferred the desert to the region so susceptible under cultivative care?

What makes this neglect more singular is the fact, that of the evils resulting from association, nine-tenths of their whole influence is exercised directly upon the class in question. If vice and error had their work upon the young to accomplish by perpetually renewed effort through the whole individual series, or if they found them in a state as disjoined as that in which they are met by the influences of truth and morality, their success would be so contemptible that the young might be almost left to themselves. But these agents always avail themselves of the associative propensity to achieve the purpose that would be else hopeless. They concentrate their own power in order that the pernicious emanation may affect numbers at a single exercise. The hilarious squad,—the associations formed for public benefit and private pleasure and pride,—the fun-loving audience, seeking the real tragedy of the murder of time—it is upon these, especially, that vice, error, and frivolity, make their blandishments felt. It is not that their presence is so seductive that they have so much opportunity with the young, but that companionship is more so. The dangers which in this way assail young men, at every point, have not been unseen nor unopposed. Volume upon volume of virtuous diatribe has been published—countless essays upon the comparative fruits of truth and error, of virtue and vice, of wisdom and folly, of sobriety and intemperance, of industry and idleness, of reason and of vanity, have been scattered about as free as the air—tracts full of burning appeals, written as with the pen of Isaiah, or with a tenderness of advice as amiable as the spirit of Fenelon, have been showered upon the winds as thick as the autumnal leaves upon the brooks of Vallambrosa. And why has the result of these efforts been so much as if addressed to those winds, instead of to human understanding? Because they have sought isolated influence—have endeavored to expel from the grain the effect received in the mass—have even sought the desired cure by the violence to nature of endeavoring to restrict the associative principle,—to divide young-manhood into a series of disconnected individualities, lodged like prisoners to the state, in their appropriate series of cells. They say to the young man, fly from the gilded saloon, avoid the haunt of pleasure, go not to the ball-room, abandon the noxious atmosphere and the lewd exhibitions of the theater. But where do they tell the young man to go. They talk to him of the comforts to be found at home—that is, in a city like this, they consign him to the fascinations of a boarding-house—they expatiate on the pleasures of reading, which raises in his mind the enticing idea of an entire solitude, between the end of a day's work and bed-time, spent in a close chamber, with a single chair, a dim lamp, on a small table, and a Pilgrim's Progress, or a Commentary on the Acts of the Apostles. They extol the advantages and delights of reflection, and he wonders why another color than blue cannot be equally friendly to human well-being. Then these benevolent gentlemen fall into a despair at the failure of their efforts, the half of which is wounded pride at beholding the impotency of their finished rhetoric, and talk of the total depravity of human nature, visible so

fearfully in life so early. Why, do they not see that to counteract evils which are nourished in association, associative good should be cultivated? That to the full degree in which men gather to meet evil influences, should be established congeries for the action of the opposing principle? Were the agencies for promoting virtue among the young as numerous as those devoted to vice, and provided with counter-seductions as wide and varied as the allurements of the latter, their influence would be irresistible. Most people, either young or old, do *not* love folly of any sort, for itself, and would never resort to it, were they furnished with other means to avoid *ennui*.

No institutional ideas having the benefit of mankind in view have met with less objection, or are in themselves really more free of objectionable trait, than those designed for the moral and intellectual improvement of the young. The projectors of philanthropic schemes having reference to general society, have been often virulently assailed and their efforts doggedly resisted; but the founders of institutions devoted to the wants of youth, have almost always enjoyed a happy exemption from all such attacks. So much are the young the objects of solicitude to the parent generation, that all forbear to assail efforts well intended for their benefit, lest in so doing they should be the means of depriving youth of a possible good they might attain. In nothing are the professions of men so generally and easily credited as in their plans for the good of the young. It seems to be understood that all have one feeling in this matter—that all are here honest,—that no man could be governed by base or unworthy motives in his actions within this sphere. The only men we know of who might object to Young Men's Improvement Associations, are some persons who regard the cohesive tendency in modern society as far too predominant; who are in fear, perhaps, for the integrity of their own self-isms, and who are alarmed at the anticipation that there will be no more marked individualisms standing out above the level of the race; that there will be no more heroes, no more geniuses, no more man-divinities; nothing in the whole waste of human form to worship; that the race will sink to a Procrustean conglomeration, moved by the monotonous force of a stupid practicalism, and utterly without the magnetism to impinge its shadow upon the page of history. But we see no hope for these other than to nourish tenderly their own individuality, and await, as patiently as they may, the general result.

There are now existing in the United States, *Mercantile Library Associations*, formed on a nearly similar plan, in the cities of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, S. C., Cincinnati, and St. Louis; beside, institutions in other places, having some of the general features of these, and as nearly resembling them as the character of the places in which they exist would permit. That of Boston is the oldest, having been incorporated March 11, 1820. The idea was at that time quite novel, and of course, the beginning and the progress for a considerable period were very moderate. The clerks were then regarded as, above most classes, thoughtless, improvident, and careless of any solid attainments. How they would use the funds intrusted to them, and how far the result would do credit to the sagacity of the merchant-founders, were, certainly, serious questions at that time. But no city of the United States was so well adapted as Boston, where general education is so well attended to, and where the clerks are, or were then, so much more than in other great cities, under the control of parents, guardians, and employers, to make the first experiment. It

was only a few months later, however, November 9, 1820, that the second institution of the kind in the United States, at first, an exclusive *Mercantile Library Association*, was formed. It numbered, in 1820-21, 204 members, had 1,000 volumes, and its receipts were \$900, of which \$600 were from donations. Having succeeded in building up the Library, the members and friends of the Association were encouraged to undertake the erection of an edifice suitable to their wants, embracing an extension of the original design. Their appeal to the merchants of New York, in behalf of this project, in 1828, was nobly responded to,—the building was erected, and to insure the proper management of the valuable property placed in the hands of the society, the Clinton Hall Association was organized as a guardian institution, the former being assured full and perpetual ownership of the building, and of the books, cabinet, &c., purchased with the Society's income, so long as properly managed, but in case of any abuse of the trust, the whole to revert to the other Association. Under this agreement, they took possession of the space allotted them in Clinton Hall, for a library and reading-room, a lecture-hall, class-rooms, &c., November 2, 1830, having at that time about 1,200 members, and 6,000 volumes. Since that time, under the continued good management of the affairs of the Association, it has risen to a place "in the foremost rank among the institutions of the country," having at the present time about 4,000 members, 37,000 volumes, and an annual revenue of \$10,000. Their prosperity is based upon a sure foundation, and it is now for the members and friends only to regard the upward limits to which the institution shall hereafter attain.

The other Mercantile Library Associations have followed these two, at different periods. That of Cincinnati was organized in 1835, and that of St. Louis, so late as 1846.

It will be of interest here, to those not connected with such institutions, to give a general idea of their nature and management.

As their name indicates, they are established chiefly for the benefit, immediately and in the future of the different branches of the mercantile profession, the latter aspect being that which is mainly regarded. It is their primary object to prepare those in the rising generation, who are to be the future merchants of the city, to assume that position with credit to themselves, and honor to the city and country. Depending, originally, upon the munificence of wealthy merchants for their establishment, they owe their success, in a great degree, to the continued interest maintained by their founders, who are ever ready with their counsel and means to help them through any difficulty, and to keep them in a state of continued progression.

The basis of them all—the great nucleus around which all else concentrates, and to which all is subsidiary, is the LIBRARY. This is the grand object of continual care and expenditure. It is to be not only made large, but to be kept ever growing, and to enlarge not merely in bulk, but in the variety and general utility of its contents. Whatever else suffers, the Library must never be neglected; and its growth is the best and readiest material indication which can be afforded of the condition of the Society. Such being the case, an especial concern is always felt by the members and patrons of the institution in regard to the management of this department.

The books are mostly purchased from the society funds, but the number of donations is also very large. In regard to additions, so far as their ability goes—and the chief associations are little limited in this respect—the de-

sign is, to "include all the new publications of merit both in Europe and America, in the various departments of history, biography, voyages and travels, elegant fiction, jurisprudence, classics, philosophy, architecture, agriculture, theology, political economy, sciences, &c. Libraries so formed, are, of course, adapted to the uses of all classes and professions, as well as merchants, and all are therefore admitted to them under regulations something different from those applying to regular members. Thus is a great outside aid secured. At the same time, the range afforded for study and miscellaneous reading is none too wide for the uses of the merchant. The idea once entertained, that people engaged in the mercantile pursuits should concern themselves about nothing but what relates immediately to their business, has been long exploded. The more general information the merchant possesses, the better merchant he is therefor; and, apart from this, it is now necessary that he shall possess more than this one isolated character. He now understands the importance of his character as a *man*, and realizes the fact, that his being a good trader is no sufficient reason why he should be an indifferent man. And this necessity is becoming stronger and stronger as the country develops, and society attains toward that more perfect arrangement, which it was impossible in the earlier periods of the nation to attain.

Works of fiction and light literature, generally, although never allowed to form a main element in the character of the libraries, are yet assigned a prominent position. The New York Association have even thought it advisable to purchase duplicate copies of a number of the most popular novels, &c. The purchases of last year amounted to 4,346 volumes, of which 1,656 volumes were works of fiction, being considerably more than were added to any other department. This course is decidedly judicious. A not unimportant number of the clerks, themselves, are allured to join the Association from the facility of gratifying here their taste for light literature, and the same influence must operate to a large extent upon those obtained from other professions. Nor is the result at variance with the primary objects of the institution. The great design is to effect the *circulation* of books; upon that everything depends. The decrease of many libraries intended for popular use is occasioned by such selection of books or such general management as rendered such circulation impossible. Yet the same general character designed for these libraries might be maintained, and even the reading of the very books sought to be effected, might be induced through another policy. If people can be brought to read the books of any character belonging to the library, the institution itself need not die. Readers become, invariably, attached to the source when either their instruction or amusement is derived, and acquire ever an eager interest in its welfare. That is one great point achieved, and that result attained, the interest excited may be measurably led beyond its own particular object to the support of other features of the institution, to which there is no objection to contribute, as a recompense for its own accommodation. But apart from this, as the report of the New York Association states, the taste of the readers get gradually *educated*, so that a better order of books come in demand. New members begin with novels and light literature, and proceed to essays, travels, history, and the works of the highest order of merit. This result has been remarked elsewhere. It shows that, after all, man's real attention is principally drawn to the true and the practical, and that these alone have the power of per-

manently engaging the human mind. That which is merely imaginative, however brilliant, soon cloy the healthy appetite.

The total number of volumes which have been purchased and contributed to the New York Association is 46,187, of which there remains 37,486 volumes, the total loss by wear, &c., being 8,701 volumes, which is not a large percentage, perhaps, for a library of this sort. The depreciation and loss of books is one of the heaviest taxes which circulating libraries have always to encounter, and with many this is one principal cause of their ruin. We have known a circulating library in another place to suffer in this way, in the course of some half dozen years, to the extent of losing entirely about thirty per cent of its books, and depreciating to about one half its former value. The books intended mainly for works of reference, in the library of the New York Association, are not allowed to be taken from the library rooms, unless by special permission of a member of the Board of Direction. This is a good provision. It tends to confine the loss and injury to works of the least permanent value, and heightens the general advantages furnished by the library to the large class of supporters whose connection with it is chiefly on account of its convenience as a source of reference.

In regard to size, this library is now the second in New York city, (the Astor Library only exceeding it,) and is the fifth in the United States, being exceeded only by the libraries of Harvard College, the Boston Athenæum, the Philadelphia Library Company, and the Astor Library. The Boston Mercantile Library Association have about 14,000 volumes, to which they are adding at the rate of 2,000 yearly. The Cincinnati Association has about 13,000, and that of St. Louis, 7,000 volumes.

As a portion of the Library, the READING-ROOM is considered an essential by all. Nothing tends more to bring men together than a facility of obtaining the news. A great number pay their yearly subscription for no other purpose than to obtain the advantages of the Reading-room, but, as remarked of the readers of light literature, they cannot frequent the precincts without imbibing an interest in the institution itself. There is, *beside* the merchants and business men, whose chief attention is absorbed in this department, a class in the community more distinct even than the novel-readers from the lovers of the historical and statistical shelves, to whom the facilities here afforded are very grateful. These are the people of periodical sympathies and genius—men who never read books, despising heartily those relics of the age of slow coaches, and the antique intellects which conceive them. Everything in cloth and sheepskin smells musty to them. With one part of this class the newspaper, the daily newspaper, the newspaper of three editions daily, is the object of unbounded love and admiration. How eagerly they seize the steaming sheet, and imbibe the delicious freshness. Within it they find all of fact, all of figures, all of thought, all of history, biography, of literature and poetry, of Commerce, of science and the arts, all, indeed, that types can communicate, which they care about knowing. Others of the class, of a milder type, freely tolerate the hebdomadal; and another considerable part, of a yet more moderate stamp, manifest a great affection, almost a reverence, for the monthlies. These are the connecting link between the newspaper devourer and the old-fashioned plodder in the "fat folio."

But to all classes the Reading room must furnish one of the most attractive features of these institutions. Here is to be found the latest news from all parts of the world. Here are spread out the stately speculations of the

London Times upon the affairs of Europe, here is the wit of Punch, here are the splendid illustrated journals, and here, in their own tongues, the political disquisitions of the leading French and German editors. Here is the spirit of the whole world concentrated—it is, indeed, a world by itself—a microcosm, displaying faithfully all the features of the great world without.

Of this branch of the library department of the New York Association the report says, that as a repository for periodical literature it is “unequaled by anything in the country.” The following are the statistics of journals and magazines at present regularly received:—

	American.	English.	French.	German.	Total.
Daily Journals.....	15	2	3	1	21
Weeklies.....	26	10	4	2	42
Monthlies.....	38	36	3	3	80
Quarterlies.....	22	22	0	1	45
Total.....	101	70	10	7	188

The Boston Association have 22 daily, 6 semi-weekly, 1 tri-weekly, and 88 weekly newspapers, of which 5 only are foreign—in all, 117; with 33 American and foreign magazines. The Association of St. Louis has 59 magazines and other periodicals, apart from newspapers.

These periodicals, especially the newspapers, being, after their day has passed, bound up and preserved, in orderly files, come again in use, to answer the taste or wants of another class of people. They become the sources of reference for future historians, and many times may the future explorer of old annals preface his works with the expression of his deep obligation to Mercantile Library Associations.

Another feature tending to attract interest to these institutions, is their CABINETS, designed for the preservation of antique and other coins, and mineralogical, geological, conchological, and other interesting natural specimens, curiosities, &c. In time, these collections must become exceedingly interesting.

The New York Association have a geographical department, extended and valuable. Ample collections of maps, charts, and maritime surveys are here to be found, among them full sets of those published by Bache, Blunt, and Lieut. Maury. The same department is a repository, also, for topographical and astronomical information.

In the New York and Boston institutions, CLASSES are formed, with able teachers at their head, for instruction in various branches of knowledge. In the former the subjects embrace Bookkeeping, Penmanship, and Navigation, Elocution, Phonography, Spanish, and French. To these, in the latter, are added German and Vocal Music. A riding-school and a gymnasium have also connection with the latter, beside a bathing establishment. The institution in New York has also at its disposal two scholarships in Columbia College and two in the University of New York. Classes in chemistry and other branches were designed many years ago, but deferred for want of room. In Boston, the members have weekly exercises in Declamation, Debate, and Composition. The classes and exercises in both places are well attended, the tuition being cheaper than could be obtained elsewhere.

Next to the library, the chief feature of these institutions is the course of LECTURES held by each yearly; and this is one of the principal causes of their success. The lecture-course appeals more directly and efficiently to the public on behalf of the society than would even the library itself alone,

for, without other appliances, the silence of the library would forever cause its merit to be hidden to great numbers of people who are now among the foremost to acknowledge its merit. The oral mode of instruction has a charm for men which cannot be found in books. Many are allured to the lecture-hall, who would but for its attractions never pay a farthing to the support of the institution. The lectures incite to reading and thought; from the lecture-hall they pass to the library, and perhaps to the classes, becoming efficient members. As good results may follow in regard to some of those who attend the lectures, simply because they are carried that way by the tide of fashion on which they float. *Some* fashions undoubtedly may be followed to advantage.

One of the points most needing judicious management, and yet most difficult to manage, is the lecture course. The shrewdest men of the society should constitute the lecture committee. The general management, however, of those which have come under our notice seems to have been very good. One of the great difficulties is to obtain proper men for lecturers. It is indispensable that men should be employed from other parts, even though no better qualified than many at home. In some cases foreign gentlemen have been secured; and the ability of the New York Mercantile Library Association was fully exhibited in its late engagement of Mr. Thackeray at a very heavy expense, although still remunerative to the society. But it is often very difficult to effect engagements with desired individuals, and this is a difficulty which the Mercantile Libraries of Cincinnati and St. Louis, as well as all the Lyceums of that region, find peculiarly onerous. The cultivated taste of most of the clerks, and of the great majority of those who attend the lectures, demand a high order of intellectual repast. It is due also to the exalted reputation of the associations, and of their leading friends, that nothing of an inferior cast should be presented to their auditories. But with the multitude of lyceums, all in full blast at the time of the lecture season—which is one throughout the country—a brisk competition arises for the service of those most desirable to be secured; and the consequence is, that sometimes, even the Mercantile Library Associations may have to endure the infliction of an indifferent lecturer.

These lectures are of so much utility to the societies, that they ought to be maintained, even if their net result should be an outlay. But that is seldom the case, at least of late. The lectures are very popular. The profits of the New York and Boston societies from their courses of the last year, were each above \$1,500. The latter had two courses, which is regarded as having now become its settled policy.

Through the combined agencies named, it will be seen these institutions answer all the purposes of a High School, and a most excellent one, too; a school in which, for all the advantages furnished, few academies could offer a rivalry. Even the attainments acquired in the store, the practical lessons in mercantile pursuits, may be regarded as in a degree belonging to the education furnished by these institutions.

For associations so large, having so many objects, and so permanent, it was ever desirable that instead of occupying hired rooms, perhaps disconnected—one here for a library, and another there for a lecture-room, and liable to disappointments and other inconveniences—that they should have a place of their own; an edifice fully capable of answering all their wants in regard to room, well located, creditable to themselves, and ornamental to their cities. Such an edifice is in itself, on account of its elegance, its com-

fort, and its value, a further active allurements to the clerks, to the public, and to strangers. We are glad to say that in this great object, the four associations we have referred to, have all met with the best success, having now, or being in course of providing, buildings every way worthy of their occupation.

The management of the Mercantile Library Associations is, like that of other associations, formed for corresponding purposes. In that of New York, the direction is entirely in the hands of the clerks, and they are about withdrawing entirely from the guardianship of the Clinton Hall Association, which seems no longer needed. We know no association composed of older men that is more creditably managed; their patrons seem to have the fullest confidence in their ability and discretion. The funds are well administered, and all their financial and other transactions are yearly exhibited in a printed report of much interest, and drawn up in a business-like manner. The reports are closely scanned by the members, and if any fault, real or supposed, is detected, the government speedily is made aware of the state of opinion thereto relating. We regret that the failure to receive the reports of the Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Charleston Mercantile Library Associations, prevents us from giving several particulars in regard to those institutions.

The management of the society's affairs by the clerks is a means of teaching them order, dignity, self-respect, business tact, and some aptitude even for political or other office. The disputes and collisions which sometimes occur, are not, if kept within limits, altogether undesirable. The exercise is much better calculated than the twaddling debates of the academy to sharpen the faculties. It has life, energy, and reality, where they have none. The contests for officers, so lively at least in the New York society, are not a fault, if the excitement is not allowed to run to an unreasonable extent. The control of revenues and property so considerable, gives a sense of responsibility, one of those things which it is most essential should be contracted, if it is to be had at all, while young. Caution is nourished, and the ambition of acting so as to gain the approbation of their benefactors and friends, is stimulated. The encouragement of these high motives and propensities is far better than any plan of securing the benefits of the superior wisdom of older councils; and the guardianship, therefore, which was well enough when the project was more doubtful, should now be, as far as possible, removed. In many places, however, where these institutions may be essayed, perhaps in most, it may be impracticable to conduct them at all, without giving to the merchants interested in them an active membership, as well as the clerks.

The terms of admission to the Mercantile Library Associations, are such as to place their advantages within the reach of the humblest clerk. To that of New York the initiation fee is One Dollar, and the same amount for the first six months; afterwards, fifty cents quarterly, in advance. Any member commencing business on his own account, may continue his membership by paying One Dollar semi-annually, in advance. Merchants may obtain a partial membership, having no votes, and being ineligible to office, by paying Five Dollars annually. Others may be admitted to the Library and Reading-room on the same terms. To the Boston Mercantile Library Association, full membership may be acquired by any person in mercantile pursuits, on payment of Two Dollars annually. In that of St. Louis, any person in mercantile pursuits may become a member, clerks paying Two

Dollars initiation fee, and seventy-five cents quarterly, in advance, and proprietors, Five Dollars for initiation, and Two Dollars and fifty cents semi-annually, in advance: these may vote and become officers also. Others, by paying Two Dollars and fifty cents semi-annually, in advance, become beneficiary members, having no vote and being ineligible to office. About one-third the members are merchant-proprietors, and nearly two-thirds are proprietors and beneficiaries.

All the reports represent the condition of the institutions respectively as exceedingly flattering, although there have been hard struggles on the part of some in times past. All are now established fixtures of their several cities—a part, as it were, of the municipal corporeity. For the past year their success has been more than ordinary. The number of members belonging to each of them; the total number added, and the net increase of the last year; the amount expended for books last year; the number of books added, and the total number of volumes belonging to the libraries; the receipts in net from lectures; and the total receipts and expenditure of the year,—were as given below:

	Increase of Members.	Net In- crease.	Total Mem- bers.	Total Expended for Books.	No. of Books Added.	Total Vol- umes.	Net Repts. of Lectures.	Total Reve- nue.	Total Expense.
New York....	1,293	397	4,194	\$4,786	4,346	37,000	\$1,593	\$11,524	\$10,035
Boston.....	2,215	1,934	2,175	13,626	1,585	7,559	5,806
Cincinnati....	577	277	2,300	872	13,000	581	15,741	15,570
St. Louis.....	248	46	704	1,468	2,000	7,000	470	6,225	6,066

According to the financial statements given, they are all clear of debt, making it a principle to *pay as they go*, and have balances of greater or less amount in the treasury.

The New York Association invested \$1,500 from the proceeds of the last course of lectures; that of Boston, invested \$1,650 from the same source, which increased their former amount of \$17,600, invested in Railroad and Bank Stocks, to \$19,250. The total property of the St. Louis Association is stated at \$14,621 25, of which \$11,270 22 is the value of the library.

But the most remarkable evidence of their increased prosperity, utility, and future prospects, is found in the general movement among them regarding new buildings. Inconvenience from the want of room is mentioned in all these reports as a very serious evil at present existing, or as having been just remedied.

The New York report complains of their present Lecture, Library, and Class rooms at Clinton Hall, as altogether inefficient for the purpose. Over \$10,000 was paid by them for the use of larger halls last year, for the lectures. In the Library, order cannot be maintained in the arrangement of the books, and enough for a library by themselves are stowed away in the garret. The Reading-room suffers in like degree, and in the geographical department there is no room to display the maps, charts, &c. Feeling that the time has come for a new arrangement, the Mercantile Library Association have resolved to dispense with their connection with the guardian society, assume an independent position, and take a location up town, to which quarter they are impelled by the same movement of population which is carrying so many other institutions and organized bodies of different kinds in that direction. For this purpose they have purchased the Astor Place Opera House, where they will find room abundant for all their uses for

some years to come. Under these advantages, the expansion, which has been necessarily contracted in many respects by the existing evils of compression, which have been felt in some degree ever since 1840, will attain its full development, and we may expect hereafter a rapidity of growth and improvement hitherto entirely unapproached.

The Boston Association have found their present rooms entirely inadequate; every department feels the restriction. But they will not be behind in providing for future accommodation. They are about to erect an edifice for their own exclusive use, located in a central part of the city, and to cost \$50,000 or \$60,000. Before commencing the project they thought it advisable to raise the small sum of \$15,000 by subscription, of which amount, at the date of the report, \$9,000 had been contributed by the merchants of Boston. Of course, the erection of the building may be regarded as secured.

The Young Men's Mercantile Library Association of Cincinnati, through cash investments when the building was erected, is the owner of the entire front second floor of the Cincinnati College edifice, lease free of rent in perpetuity. They have therein a Library-room and Reading-room, each 45 by 60 feet, the library-room being shelved for 20,000 volumes, and accommodation capable of indefinite extension: The reading-room is shelved on one end for 1,500 volumes of bound newspapers, of which there are at present above 100 volumes. The arrangements are excellent and elegant. The present convenience has been attained by refitting and remodeling the rooms, in a series of improvements carried on during the last two years at an expense of \$8,680, the funds for which were furnished by the merchants of Cincinnati for life memberships of \$50 each.

The St. Louis Mercantile Library Association was started only six years ago with nothing, and was not incorporated until February, 1851; and before 1852, with 700 members and 7,000 volumes, it, with the rest, found its old rooms too contracted, although an enlargement had just been effected. In the same year, 1851, a start was made of the project for a new building belonging to the society itself. A capital stock of \$45,000 being subscribed, an eligible building site was purchased at a cost of \$25,500, to pay which 25 per cent of the subscription was called for. The building at that time designed to be erected, and probably now in progress, if not finished, was to be 105 by 127 feet, of four stories high, built of bricks, and in the Italian style. The united size of the Library and Reading rooms, in the second story, was to be 80 by 64 feet. There was to be a lecture-room in the second story, 80 by 44 feet, and a grand hall in the third story, 105 by 80 feet, the largest, and probably the finest hall in the whole West. In the fourth story were to be a gallery of arts, 53 by 67 feet, and rooms for other purposes. The cost of the building was estimated at \$70,000, or, with the ground, \$95,000. It was proposed, in order to complete the project, to enlarge the subscribed stock to \$100,000, and up to January, 1852, \$70,000 of the total amount had been subscribed, leaving the success of the plan quite beyond doubt. All the profits derived from the property above six per cent, (ten per cent is the estimated return,) are to inure to the use of the association. It is estimated that in twenty-five years' time, they will have repaid the whole capital stock, and will then come themselves into unincumbered possession of a real estate property to the value of \$100,000, and yielding an annual income of \$10,000, which, added to an estimated

receipt from membership of \$5,000, will afford an annual revenue of \$15,000. But this may be calculating rather too much in advance.

The progress of the Mercantile Library Association of St. Louis is certainly most remarkable. "What an illustrious consummation of a work begun only six years ago!" is the proper expression of the directors in their annual report. Truly, the West has a just estimate of the advantages of education and of literature, and they are somewhat ambitious withal. What if some of our Eastern cities, priding themselves so much upon their institutions, and so patronizing toward all self-improving efforts of the ruder West, should wake up some morning and find it recorded in *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*, that the Mercantile Library Association of St. Louis maintains the leading, or at least the second rank among all such institutions of the country?

We shall, at other times, take notice of the progress of the Mercantile Library Associations of the country, and so far as we have the power, advertise their benefits to the community at large, and especially to those to whose peculiar advantage they primarily refer. We wish to see their influence extended, until one leading idea in the plan of every young man coming from country to city in search of a clerkship, shall be before starting, to attach himself at once to a Mercantile Library Association. In doing this, he would provide himself with one of the most efficient preservatives against the many temptations to which the country youth is exposed in the city, and would afford to his friends at the old home, one of the best guaranties that could be given of his own prudent behavior, and of his eventual qualification to assume, in the new home, a position of usefulness, respectability, and honor.

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

CHAPTER IX.

THE PAST AND THE PRESENT.

IN reviewing the course of trade for the last five hundred years, one cannot but admire the spirit of liberality which has occasionally been shown towards the Merchant. One case in point occurs in England during the reign of Edward III., which has hardly been surpassed in our own progressive age. An old letter has been preserved by Hakluyt, which was given by the ministers of this venerable monarch, written in several languages, and addressed to "all kings, princes, and persons in authority." An extract of extraordinary interest is as follows: "If it be right and equity to show humanity to all men, doubtless the same ought chiefly to be showed to merchants, who, wandering about the world, search both the land and the sea, to carry such good and profitable things as are found in their countries, to remote regions and kingdoms, and again to bring from the same such things as they find there, commodities as their countries bring not forth to them, as also that they may be partakers of such things whereof they abound. For the God of heaven and earth, greatly providing for mankind, would not that all things should be found in one region, to the end that one should have need of another; that by this means friendship might be established among all men, and every one seek to gratify all."

The very quintessence of a Christian Commerce is contained in this brief extract. Had such a spirit been ever since enforced and perpetuated, the whole world would have been vastly more advanced in wealth and civilization.

But yet the contrast afforded by two hundred years is marvelous in the extreme. The merchant is no longer a wandering wayfarer, who must buy the favor of "all kings, princes, and persons in authority!" On the waters, every latitude from frozen north to the unknown regions of the south, and every longitude on the globe is whitened by the sails of ships that excel in fleetness the summer's cloud. Huge steamers, setting winds and waves at defiance, are rushing in all directions over the briny waters, and penetrating every river, bay, and inland lake. On the land, roads of iron are stretched across continents, spanning the rivers, tunneling the mountains, from sea to sea. Thereon, with a speed far more than fabulous, belching forth flames and smoke, "the horses of fire and chariots of fire" unite the scattered villages in an unbroken street, and make the great forests appear like the edges of paradisiacal gardens.

Shall the question now be asked: "Canst thou send the lightnings, that they may go and say unto thee, Here we are?" The lightnings are literally chained and at the service of man. It would now be no surprising feat to "girdle the earth in forty minutes'" time—really nothing extraordinary to girdle it in forty minutes less than no time. Cities in different climates, and with seas between, report each other's traffic at noon, and hearken to the murmur of each other's hourly moods and momentary impulses. The statesman rises to speak, and his eloquence, clear and strong, penetrates space with the rapidity of thought, and his words have gone to the ends of the earth as soon as they have fallen from his lips.

Does drouth parch the broad fields of a nation, and famine stalk forth to devour its people, a thousand ships laden with plenty speed their way on their errand of mercy, and the monster is kept at bay. Is a country stifled with population, and torn with Chartist riots, and perplexed with the problems of industry and poverty, broad Ophirs appear at the antipodes, and the transit to peace, plenty, and freedom, is rapid and relieving. The transmission of people, products, intelligence, customs, ideas, interests, is now the prevailing practice of the age. Civilization is everywhere seeking a common level. A place for the superfluous fruits, labor, leisure, and talent, is the demand.

The locomotive spirit of Commerce drives savage life away from its haunts, or absorbs it to usefulness and progress. Imbecility is prostrated and overrun. Action, intense action, teems in all the arteries of social life. Every grade and quality of genius is inspired to greater achievements. Servitude, unpaid, unwilling servitude, must disappear. A new heart is given to labor, and it lifts up the spirit and ennobles the man.

"Two men I honor, and no third. First, the toilworn craftsman, that with earth-made implement laboriously conquers the earth and makes her man's. Venerable to me is the hard hand; crooked, coarse; therein, notwithstanding, lies a cunning virtue, indefeasibly royal, as of the scepter of this planet. Venerable too is the rugged face, all weather-tanned, besoiled with its rude intelligence; for it is the face of a man living manlike. Oh, but the more venerable for thy rudeness, and even because we must pity as well as love thee! Hardly entreated brother! For us was thy back bent, or us were thy straight limbs and fingers so deformed. Thou went our

conscript, on when the lot fell, and fighting our battles wert so marred. For in thee too lay a God-created form, but it was not to be unfolded; encrusted must it stand with the thick adherings and defacements of labor; and thy body like thy soul was not to know freedom. Yet toil on, toil on, thou art in thy duty, be out of it who may; thou toilest for the altogether indispensable, for daily bread.

“A second man I honor, and still more highly; him who is seen toiling for the spiritually indispensable; not daily bread but the bread of life. Is not he too in his duty; endeavoring toward universal harmony; revealing this by act or by word, through all his outward endeavors, be they high or low? Highest of all when his outward and inward endeavor are one; when we can name him artist; not earthly craftsman only but inspired thinker, that with heaven-made implement conquers heaven for us! If the poor and humble toil that we have food, must not the high and glorious toil for him in return, that he have light and guidance, freedom, immortality! These two in all their degrees I honor; all else is chaff and dust, which let the world blow where it listeth.

“Unspeakably touching is it, however, when I find both dignities united; and he that must toil outwardly for the lowest of man's wants is also toiling inwardly for the highest. Sublimar in this world know I nothing, than a peasant saint, could such now anywhere be met with. Such a one will take thee back to Nazareth itself; thou wilt see the splendor of heaven spring forth from the humblest depths of earth like a light shining in great darkness.”*

Such is the lot and duty of man. Labor! Labor on in some shape for a life. Labor for thyself, thy household, thy country, the world. There is no respite. Onward, onward, drives the spirit of Commerce—and will elevate you, enrich, ennoble you. Clothe thyself gorgeously, fare sumptuously if you will, but extend the same luxuries of wealth to thy neighbor who possesses not the same means or ability to acquire. What is there now, or ever has been in the world, grand or glorious, that has not been the product of labor either of the body or the mind! The treasures of genius and art are its work; the cultivated fields are its toil; the busy marts, the rising cities, the rich empires of the world, are but the great treasuries of labor. The monuments, castles, towns, and temples, of Europe; the mounds and the buried cities of America, are but the gigantic achievements of labor. Take labor from the world and it leaves it a blank without a history. Labor on then, as the great movements of the world shall direct. If you have genius, develop it. If you have perseverance, prove it. Labor on without wealth if such is your lot. Labor on the more lustily with wealth, for it is a means by which all the world can be conquered from indolence and ignorance—from famine, starvation, and untimely death.

CHAPTER I.

THE TRUE END OF LIFE.

If the premises have been correct, and the argument therefrom thus far fair, it will be understood that the greatest blessings in the world for the benefit of mankind have ever been dependent upon trade. Trade promotes civilization and prepares the way for Christianity; trade develops and quick-

* Carlyle.

ens the capacity of agriculture and manufactures; trade induces skill, genius and enterprise; trade is the most prominent profession by which wealth can be acquired.

But let not the inference here be, that trade is the end of life—that mere money making is the purpose for which men were created. If any one lives under this delusion, he will ere long find the undisputed contradiction in his moral destruction. "You should be a happy man," said a gentleman to the proprietor of one of the largest mercantile establishments in the world, which he had created himself from nothing. "But I am not," was the brief reply; "I know not the meaning of the term." "How much compensation do you get for your services?" asked John Jacob Astor of an envious man. "Merely enough to board, clothe, and shelter me," was the reply. "Well," returned the millionaire, "that is the same compensation exactly, that I receive for taking care of so much property."

If the infatuated men who sought so perseveringly after the philosopher's stone had had a particle of philosophy in themselves they must have perceived that their success in making the discovery would have proved their greatest misfortune. The touch of this imaginary stone was to transmute all baser metals into substantial gold. The consequence of such a magical change would have been to make gold valueless. The benefits, however, of this wildest of the world's delusions, were incidentally appearing in the many useful discoveries made in the pursuit of this impracticable discovery.

The pioneers to California confidently expected upon their arrival at the golden gate, to feast their eyes upon glittering mountains of gold. But neither themselves nor the world were destined to such a dire misfortune. Had their deluded imaginations been realized, much better would it have been for them to have remained upon the rock-bound coasts of New-England, for gold dust would have been of no more value than the common sand of the sea shore. The chance for a small increased return for their labor and privations, was the greatest benefit they could receive.

These instances are expressively illustrative of the greatest good to be derived in the pursuit of trade. It is in the gradual development of the merchant's highest and noblest faculties. The small experiences of every-day life, the disappointments, the discouragements, it may be the ruin of his fortunes, are laden with the richest blessings—compared with which gold is dross. If he unfortunately become hastily rich, he must have otherwise had the required discipline, or his fate is to be deplored. The history of accidental or ill-gotten wealth has too often been but the portrayal of corruption, and the speedy downfall of individuals and nations. In Tyre and Sidon the wealth was quickly amassed. Babylon and Palmyra were corrupt with intemperate luxury. Rome, overladen with the spoils of the world, became overwhelmed by her own vices. These and many others are instances of the destructive tendencies of speedy and unnatural accumulation.

Of material wealth "we brought nothing into the world, and can carry nothing out of it." There is something, however, that will be carried out, that is, the character which has been forming in the pursuit of wealth.

The narrow, selfish, miserly spirit that grows on accumulation—the nervous, peevish, fretful temper, that can bear no opposition or disappointment—the inflated nothingness, which estimates all things by dollars and cents—these go with the soul of which they are a part, constitutionally and spiritually. As do also all the carefully acquired virtues that belong to the per-

fect man. To this end it is important that each day of life should be a day of improvement. Habits of thought and study are to be assiduously cultivated. Business itself may be conducted in such a manner as to invigorate, enlarge, and elevate the mind. A man's thoughts must travel beyond the counter and desk. The merchant, if he would be faithful to himself, like the lawyer, the physician, and the clergyman, must extend his researches beyond the province of his own profession, and bring the contributions of all regions of thought to build up himself in the strength of intellectual manhood.

If any one pursues business in the neglect of mental or moral culture, he sacrifices the great end of life to the comparatively worthless means. He may gain money and lose knowledge; he may gain the splendor of houses and equipage and lose the accomplishments of the gentleman; he may gain a material estate and lose a spiritual empire; he may "gain the whole world and lose his own soul."

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

ACTION FOR A TRESPASS, AND APPLICATION FOR AN INJUNCTION.

In a late number of the *St. Louis Intelligencer* we find the following report of a decision of the Cole County (Missouri) Circuit Court, on application for an injunction by a land-owner (Robert R. Jefferson) against (Thomas L. Price) one of the contractors on the Pacific Railroad.

The first point made by the plaintiff was, that the charter only permitted the company to take one hundred feet for roadway, and that while there was authority to go outside of this 100 feet and take from the adjoining land any earth, stone, gravel, dirt, timber, &c., necessary to construct the road, yet there was no authority to deposit dirt and rubbish on the adjoining land. To this was answered, that the charter authorized the company to take, in addition to the 100 feet, such other width of roadway, in cases of excavations and embankments, as might be necessary for the preservation of the road. And it was shown by the Chief Engineer that the excavation from the tunnel would require a width of road bed five hundred feet wide and eight hundred feet long, and that this extra width was necessary for the construction and preservation of the road—that he had given orders to have such extra width staked out, and land plots to be made and placed in the hands of the land agent of the company, that he might have the same condemned according to law. It was further shown that the width of the road bed differed according to the ground passed over. Where the country was level 100 feet was sufficient—where there was heavy cutting and filling, or tunneling, extra width was required.

It was, secondly, contended, that even admitting the company had a right to condemn this extra width, yet they had no right to enter on the plaintiff's land without first making compensation. To this it was answered that the company had a right to occupy the plaintiff's land as an incident proceeding to acquire the title—that there was no violation of any constitutional right of the plaintiff; for the word "taken" in the constitution had reference to the final appropriation of the title, and that the party's title was in no case affected, although the occupation of the contractor was absolute for the time—that the company was bound to proceed in a reasonable time to have the land appraised and make compensation; and that if they delayed an unreasonable length of time to do so, their occupation would be adjudged wrongful from the beginning, and the party could recover for all damages sustained by the previous occupation. It was shown, in

connection with this point, that the company had used every exertion to have not only this but all other lands condemned—that portions of the line had not been finally located yet, and on such portions where a final location was made, the engineers were engaged in finding the land lines and making the maps so as to furnish the land agent with proper descriptions.

Another point made by the plaintiff was, that the damage was irreparable, and an injunction was always grantable in such cases. It was shown by the company that money could compensate the plaintiff; that, moreover, the destruction of houses, orchards, graveyards, &c., which would be inhibited in cases between private persons because the injury would be deemed irreparable, had no application to railroad companies; that anything could be removed by a railroad company, because the necessities of the age required that these great works should be as straight as possible, and if the doctrine of "irreparable injury" applied, railroads would not be built. It was also contended that there was a manifest difference between waste and trespass; that injunctions were grantable freely in cases of waste, but not in trespass—and that this, upon the plaintiff's own assertions, was not waste. Many other points were discussed which it is not necessary now to mention.

Judge Miller listened to the argument with great patience—took a note of the authorities cited, and, after a full consideration, decided to refuse the injunction.

RIGHTS OF CONSIGNEES AND CREDITORS IN POSSESSION UNDER ATTACHMENT LAW OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

We lay before our readers, says the Charleston (S. C.) *Standard*, an abstract of the following case, which was elaborately argued at the late sitting of the Court of Appeals, and which is of great importance to the commercial community, on account of the principles it decides. As a solemn adjudication upon the rights of consignees and creditors in possession under our attachment law, it cannot fail to be interesting to commission merchants and to business-men generally:—

C. T. MITCHELL & Co., vs. A. E. BYRNE.—(Issue in Attachment.)

The plaintiffs had an order from Henry Gore Booth, of Liverpool, in the year 1850, to purchase on his account three thousand bales of cotton, and they completed the execution of the order by the purchase of 506 bales on the 29th August, which they shipped to Booth on the 3d of September. On the 4th, 7th, and 8th September, they drew bills on Booth, which were payable on the 25th November. These bills were accepted by Booth, but protested for non-payment, Booth having become bankrupt before the maturity of the bills. On the 27th and 28th November, Edward Moon, of Liverpool, stepped forward and paid these drafts for the honor of the plaintiffs, C. T. Mitchell & Co., charged them in account with the amount, and on the 29th November remitted the drafts to them and claimed reimbursement by remittance. Moon deposes that he looked to the plaintiffs solely for indemnity; and that he had been repaid and had never met with a prompter return.

The ship *Æolus* came consigned to the plaintiffs, with a cargo of salt, and arrived about the 25th November, 1850. They entered her at the Custom House and began the discharge of the cargo, which was nearly completed on the 5th of December. On that day the defendant, Byrne, levied an attachment on the ship and cargo, and served a copy on Mitchell & Co., who made a return as garnishees, claiming to hold as creditors in possession. Their declaration contained the common count for money paid, and a count on the bills of exchange. The outlay for the 506 bales of cotton, expenses, damages, and re-exchange, constituted their demand.

At the instance of the attorney of Byrne, an issue was ordered to try the question whether Mitchell & Co. were creditors in possession of the ship *Æolus* and other funds, the property of Henry Gore Booth, on the 5th December, 1850, or were entitled on that day to have their claim first allowed by virtue of any right or lien under the attachment law.

Upon this issue, the plaintiffs, under the charge of Judge Withers upon

the Circuit, had a verdict for \$23,784 50, with interest from the 5th December, 1850.

Upon the appeal, it was contended for the plaintiffs, that they had a right to retain the proceeds of sale of the ship and cargo, as creditors in possession under the attachment act, or by virtue of their lien as factors, for the general balance of their account against Henry Gore Booth.

This claim was resisted on the part of the defendant upon the grounds—first, that the plaintiffs were not creditors of Booth on the 5th of December, because on that day they had *no actionable debt* against him; and second, that the plaintiffs had not such *possession* of the ship and cargo as is required by the attachment act, to constitute them creditors in possession.

Judge Frost delivered the opinion of the Court, which established the following points:

1. That the plaintiffs had an actionable demand on the 5th December, and could maintain their count for money paid. That the drawing of the drafts was an extension of credit for the time they had to run, but that when they were protested for non-payment, (which was prior to the 5th of December,) the plaintiffs had a right to sue as upon an open account for the money laid out and expended for the cotton.

2. That the plaintiffs could also maintain their count upon the bills. That when Moon took up the bills for the honor of the plaintiffs, he held them as endorsee with all the rights of an endorsee, against all the parties to the instruments; but that when he charged the plaintiffs in account, and remitted the bills to them, and looked to them solely for indemnity, (which he did prior to the 5th December,) he relinquished to them all the holder's rights in the bills. And that it was not necessary that the plaintiffs should have the bills actually in their possession at the commencement of their suit, but it was sufficient if they produced them at the trial, having had title to them at the commencement of the action.

3. That under the attachment acts of 1744 and 1844, a garnishee may retain for his debt all moneys, goods, &c., which have been attached, or are liable to attachment; and that all moneys, goods, &c., are liable to attachment, which may be in his "hands, power, possession, or control."

4. That, touching the question of the possession of the ship and cargo, the case may be rested on the authority of *Schepler vs. Garriscan*, (2 Bay., 224.) in which it was decided that the consignee of a ship and cargo has a qualified property and constructive possession the moment she comes into port, so that the Sheriff shall not, under a writ of attachment, take the ship and cargo from the possession of the consignee, who claims to be a creditor in possession; and that such a consignee has a lien on them for the balance of his general account against the owner. That a ship consigned to a foreign agent for general freight, is in the "possession, power, or control" of the consignee, so that he can retain her for his debt.

5. That the plaintiffs and Byrne being both creditors of Booth, the contest between them was, which should apply the proceeds of the sale of the ship, in payment of their debt; that the attachment acts placed the garnishee upon the footing of an attaching creditor, and provided that upon his filing his declaration, &c., he should have his claim "first allowed;" and that it would operate great hardship upon creditors in possession, if the law were otherwise, inasmuch as they cannot have served upon themselves their own writ of attachment, and make themselves garnishees to their own action against the absent debtor.

6. That the right of the plaintiffs to retain as creditors in possession being affirmed, it was unnecessary to express any opinion upon their right to retain by virtue of their lien as factors for a general balance of account.

In this opinion, Justices O'Neill, Withers, and Whitner, concurred with Frost, J.

Justices Wardlaw and Glover dissented, on the ground that Mitchell & Co. had no such possession as entitled them to retain as creditors in possession.

Messrs. Brown & Porter, attorneys for plaintiffs.

Messrs. Walker & Memminger, for defendant.

NOTES AND DRAFTS GIVEN AS COLLATERAL SECURITY FOR A LOAN.

The legal reporter of the *Evening Post* says, in regard to the following case, which was tried in the Supreme Court, New York City—"The question is one which has as yet received no direct adjudication in this country or in England, and should the ruling of the court be sustained by the General Term, to which the case is soon to be carried, it will establish a point of the utmost importance to business men, as we understand it is the almost universal custom in this community to dispose of securities of the kind held in this case, in the same manner in which they were disposed of by the defendant in this action."

William A. Wheeler et al. *agt.* John A. Newbould. This action was brought for the recovery of \$2,614 73, being the amount of several notes and drafts given as collateral security for a loan of \$2,000 obtained by the plaintiffs through their broker, Jeremiah Hotchkiss, from the defendant, on the ground that the loan was usurious, and in case the loan should not be held to have been usurious, to recover \$614 73, being the excess of the collaterals over the amount loaned. At the trial, the plaintiffs abandoned the ground of usury, and claimed only the excess of the amount of the collaterals over the loan, (\$2,000, with interest.)

It appeared that on the 6th of November, 1848, the defendant lent to the plaintiffs, through Hotchkiss, \$2,000, and took the plaintiffs' check for that sum, dated Dec. 24th, 1848, and certain collaterals, as above stated.

The check not having been paid at maturity was protested, and the defendant, after demanding payment of the loan, and giving notice to the plaintiffs of his intention to do so, sold the collaterals at private sale, for \$2,020 the defendant insisting that that was the best price that he could obtain for them.

In a former report of this case it was erroneously stated that the plaintiff averred that an interview was purposely avoided by defendant. The allegation was that the interview was avoided by the broker.

The plaintiffs contended that this case should be governed by the well established principle, that upon a loan of money upon the pledge of goods and chattels, if the loan be not paid, the property taken as collateral security could only be sold at public auction, after giving the borrower notice of the time and place of sale.

The defendant contended that, by the universal custom and usage in this city, he had a right to sell the collaterals at private sale, after notice, and that a sale at auction of such securities would be destructive to the interests of all parties.

The court, however, (Judge Oakley,) held, for the purposes of the trial, that a loan upon the pledge of commercial paper did not give the lender the right to sell the paper at all. That if the loan was not paid at the time agreed upon, the lender might hold the paper until maturity, and collect and apply the money to payment of the loan, and upon that ground directed the jury to find a verdict for the plaintiffs for the excess of the collaterals over the amount of the loan and interest.

But the judge stated that, as the point was new, and of great practical importance in this city, he should direct the judgment to be suspended until a case is made to be heard at the General Term, in the first instance, before a full bench.

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT.

In the United States District Court, (Louisiana.) *Curtis et al. vs. Victor Feste.*

This case came up on Wednesday, May 18th, 1853, and motion was made to discharge defendant from arrest, who was taken by process issued from this Court, in accordance with the 10th and 13th sections of an act of the Louisiana Legislature, passed in March, 1840.

In 1837, Congress abolished imprisonment for debt under process from the Courts of the United States, in those States where it had been abolished by law,

and provided that "when by the laws of a State, imprisonment for debt shall be allowed under certain conditions and restrictions, the same conditions and restrictions shall be applicable to the process issuing out of the courts of the United States; and the same proceedings shall be had therein as are adopted in the Courts of such State. 5 S. at large, 321.

In 1841, an act supplementary was passed by which it was enacted that the act of 1837 should be construed so as to abolish imprisonment for debt in all cases whatever, on process issuing from the Courts of the United States, when by the law of the State in which the said Court shall be held, imprisonment for debt has been or shall hereafter be abolished.

The laws of Louisiana provide fully for the abolition of imprisonment for debt, and the process by which the arrest of a debtor is made has been also abolished. The consequence is that, under the act of Congress, imprisonment for debt in all the cases under process from this Court was formally terminated.

The Legislature of Louisiana has given to creditors a remedy highly primitive in its character, as respects their debtors in certain cases of fraud. The statute cannot be enforced in favor of creditors in the Courts of the United States. The Supreme Court of the United States, in the case of *Green vs. Breedlove*, (2 Howard 29.) which involved the application of a penal statute of Mississippi, to a marshal, for a false return of an execution, says: "This being an offense against the State law, the Courts of the State alone could furnish its commission, the Courts of the United States having no power to execute the penal laws of the individual States."

The statute under consideration is in a very high degree penal. It is made the duty of the Court, in all cases described in it except one, upon conviction of the debtor, to sentence him to three years' imprisonment, and in the other case to sentence him to the same term of imprisonment, with a condition that he should be discharged on payment of the debt. This court has no jurisdiction over a case like this, and the defendant must be discharged from arrest.

BREACH OF CONTRACT.

In the Superior Court, (New York, April, 1853,) before Judge Duer. *Charles L. Frost & Co. vs. Josiah Conley & Co.*

This was an action to recover damages for a breach of contract in selling beef. In June, 1852, the plaintiffs, through their agent, purchased from defendants 60 barrels of mess beef, then stored in Thompson & Co.'s yard, for which they paid \$660, being at the rate of \$11 per barrel, and obtained an order from defendants to have it delivered to them. Thompson & Co., however, refused to deliver it, because the order called the article "mess beef," whereas it was in reality what is called "railroad" or "plaited mess beef." The plaintiffs now sue not only for a return of their money, but also for the loss they sustained from the defendants not having fulfilled their contract, as mess beef had, immediately after their purchase of this article, risen in price. It appeared that the defendants had purchased 111 barrels of this beef from Gibson & Co. as prime "railroad" or "plaited mess" beef, and paid \$9 per barrel for it, and that they had 6 barrels of it brought to their store and examined, and those barrels, or at least some of them, were found to contain as good an article as is called country mess beef, and the plaintiff's agent examined two barrels out of the six, and was so satisfied with the quality of the article as shown by this sample, that he purchased the 60 barrels for the plaintiffs. Beside the return of the \$660 paid by the plaintiffs, their claim for damages for loss sustained by their not receiving the mess beef, made their entire claim against the defendants about \$1,000.

The Court charged the Jury. The defendants purchased from Gibson & Co. 105 barrels of railroad beef, for which they paid the highest price that railroad beef was then selling at. They purchased it as being of good quality, but they knew it was railroad beef, and not put up in the country as mess beef,—but that it was put up as such by the owner of it in the yard of Thompson & Co., and was likely to contain only such pieces as would constitute railroad beef. Six barrels of the lot were brought to the plaintiffs' store and examined, but it did

not affirmatively appear whether these six barrels were altered after they arrived at defendants' office. Mills, the plaintiffs' agent, examined two of these barrels, and they contained such piece of beef, which, if the lot contained the same, would constitute country mess beef and not railroad beef, and though it was put up here as railroad beef, yet, if it all corresponded in quality with mess beef, the defendants would be justified in selling it as such. But it is hard to understand how it is that the pieces which were examined are never found in railroad beef and only in mess beef. It may be, however that those two barrels contained pieces of that quality, and that the defendants therefore inferred that all the rest was the same. But they were bound to know, and must know, as they bought it for railroad beef, that it was railroad beef, and had no right to sell it as mess beef, unless they knew it to be of that quality; and they should not have concealed the fact that it was bought by them as railroad beef, and that they had no knowledge that the character of the beef did not correspond with the general quality of the article which they had purchased. If the Jury believed that it was country mess beef, then the plaintiffs are only entitled to what they paid with interest. This they are entitled to, because the 60 barrels were not received by them, and Thompson & Co. were justified in refusing to deliver an article which they knew the defendants had not in their yard. But if the Jury concluded that the contract was for mess beef, the plaintiffs were entitled to recover the value of mess beef, which the witness stated to be from \$15 to \$17.

The Jury gave a verdict for plaintiffs, \$1,026 94, being the full amount claimed with interest. Judgment suspended, until a hearing at General Term.

LECTURES ON COMMERCIAL LAW.

"The Council of King's College having observed the wide interest taken by the mercantile classes in the reform of our commercial law, have deemed it expedient to give to merchants, and others engaged in business, an opportunity of acquiring a knowledge of this branch of law, in the same manner as medical jurisprudence is taught to persons intending to embrace the medical profession; and, with a view to that effect, they have made the necessary arrangements with Mr. Leone Levi.

"The lectures are intended to be sufficiently numerous to comprise an exposition of the entire mercantile law of the United Kingdom, and that of those countries with whom our Commerce is chiefly carried on."

The above is copied from an advertisement of King's College. We transfer it to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, together with the following syllabus of the course of lectures on commercial law, which were commenced on the 25th of January, 1853, in the hope that it will suggest to the Mercantile Library Associations in the United States the importance of instituting similar courses.

Lecture I. *Introductory Lecture*.—Study of Law—Nature and spirit of Mercantile Law—History of the science—Its component parts and plan of lectures—State of the law in England, Ireland, Scotland and the Colonies—Countries subject to the law of England.

Lecture II. *On Merchants*.—Who is a merchant?—Who may be a merchant?—Minors—Married females—Aliens—Clergymen—Commercial accounts—Fairs and Markets—Consuls—Commercial treaties.

Lecture III. *On Partnerships*.—Constitution of partnership—Actual and nominal—Who may be a partner?—Formation of the contract—Partnership *en commandite*—Rights and liabilities of partners among themselves—Their interest in the stock and profits—Obligations of partners.

Lecture IV. *On Partnerships*.—Liabilities and exemption of partners toward third persons—Rights of parties against third persons—Legal and equitable remedies between partners—Action by and against partners.

Lecture V. *On Partnerships*.—Dissolution of a partnership, when and how it may be—Effects and consequences of a dissolution, as between the partners—

Effects and consequences of a dissolution, as to the rights of creditors—Bankruptcy of partner—Administration and Practice in bankruptcy.

Lecture VI. *On Joint-Stock Companies and Part Owners of Ships.*—What makes a man a partner in a joint-stock company—Mutual rights of shareholders—Relative rights of shareholders and third persons—7 and 8 Victoria, c. 110—Banking companies—Part owners of ships—Interest of part owners—Mutual rights of part owners—Relative rights of part owners and third persons.

Lecture VII. *On Bills of Exchange.*—Definition, requisites, and form of bills of exchange—Parties to a bill—Transfer of bills—Acceptance—Presentment—Payment—Rights and duties of drawers and indorsers.

Lecture VIII. *On Bills of Exchange.*—Appropriation of payment—Protest—Acceptance for honor—Payment for honor—Notice of Dishonor—Remedy by action—Re-exchange—Lost bills—Promissory notes.

After the completion of this course, other courses are contemplated on the subjects of general contracts and contracts of sale, principal and agent, shipping, marine, life, and fire insurance, and bankruptcy; and also distinct lectures on American law, the French code, the Spanish and Portuguese codes, the territorial code of Prussia, and the Russian code.

DAMAGES OCCASIONED BY COLLISION AT SEA.

In the United States District Court, before Judge Nelson, (June 13, 1853.) *Dickinson vs. The Schooner Catharine.*

This was a suit to recover damages occasioned by a collision between the libellant's vessel, the schooner San Luis, and the schooner Catharine, which occurred on the evening of April 21, 1852, about 25 miles south of Sandy Hook.

The San Luis was bound from New York to Philadelphia with a cargo of stone, and was close hauled on her starboard tack, steering S. or S. by W., and and about four or five miles from shore, the wind being about S. W. by W., and the night clear enough to distinguish vessels at about a mile distant. She had a look-out and a man at the wheel, but no light.

The Catharine was bound into New York on her larboard tack, with a free wind—with no look-out, but with a light—and just before the collision there had been no one at the wheel, and she did not discover the San Luis till she was within half a mile.

Held, That under these circumstances, and under the rules of navigation laid down by the United States Supreme Court, in the case of *St. John vs. Pain*, 10 How. 557, it was the duty of the Catharine to have avoided the collision, and that no fault was discoverable on the part of the San Luis.

Decree for the libellants, with a reference to ascertain their damages.

For libellants, D. D. Field; for claimants, Betts & Donohue.

CONSIGNEES—DAMAGES FOR NON-DELIVERY OF TEN PIPES OF WINE.

The Fifth District Court (New Orleans) before Judge Livingston, *Joseph Martinez vs. Lanats, Gandolfo & Co.*

This was a case in which the plaintiff claimed of defendants the value of ten pipes of wine purchased by him, and damages for non-delivery. The defendants, consignees of a quantity of wine, caused the same to be advertised and sold at auction, while the wine was still on shipboard. Fifty-five pipes were advertised and sold, the invoice to defendants showing sixty-five pipes, the consignees making an allowance for ten defective pipes. Twenty-five pipes proved defective, the wine thus falling short fifteen pipes of the quantity sold. The plaintiff's counsel contended, first, that the defendants were bound to deliver the quantity of wine in the order of sale. Only twenty pipes were sold previous to the plaintiff's purchase. The Court decided adversely to both the above positions of counsel, and held that the advertisements of consignees, acting in good faith, of sales of consignments still on shipboard, could only mean to specify the quantity "more or less," and that there was no custom or law which required delivery to be made in the order of sale. Judgment, however, was rendered in favor of the plaintiff for the value of the wine on other grounds.

DECISION IN ADMIRALTY, BY JUDGE HALL—PRIORITIES OF LIEN.

United States District Court, Northern District of New York. Dewitt C. Bancroft vs. steamboat America and J. W. Phillips, claimant and respondent.

The vessel of the libelant having been sunk by a collision with the America on Lake Erie, July 12, 1852, a libel was filed to recover the damages, and on the 14th of December, 1852, \$10,000 was awarded to him for the said damages. The America was sold by order of court, September 10, 1852, and the proceeds, amounting to \$10,950, brought into registry.

Before the above-mentioned decree was made, suits were commenced by seamen to recover wages, and soon after the sale they were paid out of the fund, without opposition. A suit was also commenced, October 2, 1852, to recover damages occasioned by the previous collision of the America with another vessel. Suits were also commenced by material men to recover for supplies furnished to the America, and those whose liens attached subsequent to the collision with the libelant's vessel, and who had possession of the America, and common law liens, or liens under the State statute, were also directed to be paid out of the fund, though opposed by the collision claimant. The libelant then claimed by petition the whole residue of the fund, on the ground that he was entitled to preference over all the other parties.

Held, that the claim of the libelant for the damages occasioned by the collision was a *maritime lien* upon the America, or a charge or privilege which gave him substantially the same rights and remedies.

That maritime liens upon a ship, sold under the order of a Court of Admiralty, should, as a general rule, be paid out of the proceeds in the inverse order of the dates of their creation. These include wages, pilotage, towage, wharfage, claims for salvage, bottomry, damages for collision, and materials.

That this order of preference should be followed only when the liens all belong to the same class. But it is not intended to decide that a bottomry bond, executed by the owner, or claims under contract of freightment, are to be paid in the same order as though they were liens arising out of or founded upon the necessities of the ship. Nor is it intended to declare, that any difference will be made between seamen's wages for the same season of navigation on the lakes; or between the claims of material men who are concurrently giving credit to a vessel, in fitting her out for a voyage, or preparing her for business at the commencement of a season. A season of navigation on the lakes may be assimilated to a voyage.

That in a suit *in rem*, all persons have a right to intervene for their interest, and the suit is, in substance, against such persons, as much as if they were specially named as defendants—that they are bound by the proceedings and decree, and by a sale of the *res* under such proceedings, their rights therein are extinguished.

That a creditor who obtains a final decree before other creditors, having co-ordinate or equal claims, have brought their actions, is entitled to be paid in preference to those who do not assert their claims until after the entry of such final decree; but that such final decree may be opened, on sufficient cause shown, to enable the apparently tardy creditor to assert his claim; the intervention of a creditor, for the purpose of obtaining payment of his claim concurrently with, or in exclusion of, that of the libelant, being in the nature of a defense to the adverse claim of the libelant.

That the claims of bottomry, bondholders, and material men, are of equal validity, and should be subject to the same general rules of priority and preference, and that the libelant's claim for damages should be considered of equal rank with the latter.

 LIABILITY OF SHIP OWNERS.

In the Court of Queen's Bench, (England,) the case of Baring Brothers vs. Twizell, was tried before the the Lord Chief Justice. The plaintiffs were Messrs. Baring Brothers, merchants; and the defendant, John Twizell, a ship-owner at

North Shields. The action was to recover damages for the loss of a quantity of molasses shipped on board one of the defendant's vessels, and which had run out of the casks on the voyage to England from the Island of Cuba. It appeared that on the 13th of July, 1852, a large quantity of molasses had been shipped on board the brig Elizabeth, in good order and condition, at Cardenas, in Cuba, to be delivered to Messrs. Baring Brothers, in the port of London, in the like order and condition "the dangers of the sea only excepted." When the goods arrived in London, it was found that nine of the casks at the top of the loading, under the main hatchway, were lying with their bungholes half down; and the molasses having run out, the casks were empty. It appeared that the custom was to stow casks of molasses with the bungholes open, otherwise the fermentation of the molasses would cause the casks to burst, but it was also usual that the casks should be "choked," or kept in their places by pieces of wood placed on each side. This appeared to have been done in the present case; but it was alleged that the master of the vessel had been guilty of negligence in not taking care that the condition of the casks should be examined from time to time on the voyage, to see that all was right. Lord Campbell said, the simple question for the jury was, whether or not the loss had been occasioned by "the dangers of the sea." The jury found a verdict for the plaintiffs, with £18 10s. damages.

STRANDING.

A ship bound for Nantes to Dublin, was obliged, from stress of weather, to run into the Bay of Calais. The ship lost her anchors, and it was necessary for her preservation to run into the tidal harbor of Sanzou, where she took the ground, in consequence of its being low water. She was detained there a month, and floated only eight days, and then at the top of spring tides. Was the stranding within the meaning of the usual memorandum in the policy? It was held by the Queen's Bench to be so. Justice Coleridge defined the principle—Where the vessel takes the ground by reason of something which is ordinary and regular as when she is in her proper place in a tidal harbor, and is expected to take the ground when the water recedes, in such case there is no stranding; but if the event arises from something out of the ordinary course, it is stranding. *Corcoran v. Gurney*.—20 *Law Times Rep.*, 221.

PARTNERSHIP.

A, intending a partnership with B, C stipulated that D should enter into a covenant, which he did with A, that the debts due to the partnership would realize a certain sum, and if they did not, he would, on the demand of A, pay the deficiency to B, C, and A. He also covenanted that the debts owing by B and C did not exceed a certain sum, and if they should, he would on demand of A, pay the former, or persons to whom the debts were due, the amount of such debts. A demanded a sum under both branches of the covenant, and made that demand the basis of proceedings in bankruptcy against D. The Lords Justices held that it was insufficient; it was only a claim for damages.—20 *Law Times Rep.* 254.

NEGLIGENCE OF A SERVANT—LIABILITY OF MASTER.

Quartermain and others vs. Bittleson and another Assignee of a Bankrupt, In the case of Mitchel and wife vs. Crowweller and another, a master is not liable for the negligence of his servant, unless the servant is at the time actually engaged in the service of his master.

A's servant, after going with his master's horse and cart about the business of his master, on his return, before putting up the horse and cart, took another person home in the cart. On his way back he ran over a person. Held that the defendants were not in possession of the cart and horse at the time when the accident happened, and the defendants were not liable for their servant's negligence.—*C. C. B. Law Times*.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

PRESSURE IN THE MONEY MARKET—EVIL EFFECTS OF ENGAGING IN UNWARRANTED SPECULATIONS AS ILLUSTRATED BY RECENT DEVELOPMENTS OF FRAUD—DEPRESSED MARKET FOR BONDS—RAIL ROAD TO THE PACIFIC—BALANCE IN SUB-TREASURY—CONDITION OF THE NEW YORK CITY BANKS—CONDITION OF THE NEW ORLEANS BANKS—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA MINT FOR AUGUST—DEPOSITS AT PHILADELPHIA MINT AND SHIPMENTS OF BULLION FROM SAN FRANCISCO FOR EIGHT MONTHS—REVENUE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30—ESTIMATED IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE SAME PERIOD—EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR THE SAME PERIOD—CASH DUTIES AT PHILADELPHIA FOR THE SAME PERIOD—FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR AUGUST, AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS FOR THE SAME PERIOD—CASH DUTIES AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR AUGUST, AND FOR EIGHT MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST—EXPORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF PRODUCE—DEFICIENCY OF BREADSTUFFS IN EUROPE—REDUCTION OF DUTIES IN FRANCE—ADVANCE IN THE RATE OF INTEREST BY THE BANK OF ENGLAND—SIGNS OF NATIONAL PROSPERITY, ETC., ETC.

THE pressure in the money market which we noticed in our last, has continued, and extended more or less throughout the Union. It has been, as yet, much less troublesome in the interior than in the Atlantic cities; but for the last two or three weeks the drain of capital has been from the country to the large commercial centers, and this must create more or less uneasiness among country traders. The collections for goods distributed have been very promptly met, and as long as this continues there need be little apprehension of commercial failures. The active demand for breadstuffs will aid the interior in meeting its indebtedness; indeed, but for this, the money pressure would be severely felt in all of our inland towns. How long this stringency will continue, cannot, of course, be told; but there are indications that the rates of interest will rule high for several months to come. The impulse given to business, and various commercial and industrial enterprises by the low rates of interest and the great supply of capital in the past two years, have contributed not a little to the present stringency. The check will be a healthy one, as speculation was fast absorbing too much means and attention from all classes of people.

WE have heretofore uttered, in plain terms, our warning to all engaged in any legitimate business, against stock speculations of all kinds, and we deem this a favorable moment for repeating it. The examples of the past month ought to serve as beacon lights to warn the rash and adventurous from engaging in such dangerous experiments. We have seen breaches of trust, direct robberies, and deliberate forgeries, all growing out of unfortunate speculations in stocks. Men whose characters were hitherto unimpeachable have fallen before the assaults of this insidious foe to all commercial honesty and fair dealing. It may be safely set down as a rule, that no one ought to make any purchases of shares of any kind, who cannot afford to hold the same as an investment without infringing upon other business engagements. And those who are abundantly able to meet an unfavorable issue of their speculations, ought to think of the pernicious example which they set to others in less favorable circumstances, and particularly to the young men in their service. If the employer take "a turn" in stocks, the clerk will take his "turn" in imitation; and happy will it be for both em-

ployer and clerk, if the result be not a broken trust and blighted hopes. The public have been made acquainted with some of the most glaring cases, but there are hundreds of others throughout the various cities of the Union, where young clerks, some of them mere boys, have been obliged to throw themselves upon the clemency of their employers for moneys intrusted to them or placed within their reach, which have been sunk in this well of iniquity. We are not discussing the morality of stock speculations in general, but in relation to those persons only, whose losses, if the wheel turn against them, must lead to dishonor in one way or another. If anything were wanting to confirm what we have formerly urged upon this subject, the developments of the past month are quite sufficient to vindicate our position.

The stringency in the money market has limited the sale of bonds of all kinds, and especially those issued for new enterprises. Some, for which bids have been solicited, have been withdrawn, or the period of making the award postponed. The project of constructing a railroad from the Atlantic to the Pacific, has been urged forward since our last. At a preliminary meeting of the commissioners charged with the duty of organizing the company chartered for this object by the Legislature of New York, held in the commercial metropolis of that State on the 16th September, Robt. J. Walker, Esq., for himself and others, subscribed ten millions of dollars; Dr. Newcomb, of Albany, and others, increased this subscription to \$12,800,000; after which the Board adjourned to meet about the 1st of October. The capital of the company is \$100,000,000, which must all be subscribed in good faith before the concern can be fully organized. The enterprise is a gigantic one, and is creating much interest throughout the whole of the civilized world. Of all the plans yet conceived for its accomplishment, none has heretofore been sufficiently matured to secure the hearty co-operation of our most practical men. There are some difficulties in the way of the organization above alluded to, but it has made further progress than any other in the direction of actual results.

From the statement elsewhere published, it will be seen that the accumulation of specie in the United States Treasury continues to increase, the balance being larger than ever before held on deposit. The banks, in various sections, are generally strengthening themselves under the pressure already noticed. We gave in our last the opening reports of the banks in New York city under the new law requiring a weekly statement of the averages of the loans and discounts, specie, circulation, and deposits, for the previous six days. We bring this summary down to the latest date:—

	Loans and discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Aug. 6, 1853	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
Aug. 13, "	94,633,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,457,504
Aug. 20, "	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,307,223
Aug. 27, "	92,387,618	11,319,040	9,427,191	57,431,891
Sept. 3, "	91,741,338	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
Sept. 10, "	91,168,347	11,380,693	9,597,336	57,545,164
Sept. 17, "	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,723	57,612,301

It will be seen that the loans and discounts have steadily decreased, while the specie has steadily increased. We also annex a comparative statement of the banks at New Orleans:

CONDITION OF THE BANKS AT NEW ORLEANS.

LIABILITIES.			
	June 25, 1853.	May 28, 1853.	August 29, 1853.
Circulation	\$7,158,338 95	\$7,923,533 95	\$6,486,716 50
Deposits	10,132,172 37	11,153,818 69	8,777,772 28
Due to banks	1,180,846 13	1,276,270 31	1,065,920 96
Other cash liabilities	519,885 30	851,236 30	448,290 33
Total liabilities.....	\$18,990,742 75	\$21,214,859 25	\$16,738,700 07
CASH ASSETS.			
Specie	\$6,795,697 04	\$7,478,438 34	\$7,365,299 44
Loans on deposit	10,691,623 90	11,977,386 65	9,899,788 84
Foreign and domestic exchange....	3,906,965 01	5,630,633 32	1,114,131 15
Other cash assets	1,924,000 00	1,924,000 00	1,931,978 95
Total	\$23,327,942 32	\$27,010,478 31	\$19,600,811 72
Besides, the banks have real estate.	1,248,371 71	1,252,080 44	1,247,167 34
Loans on stock	5,942,800 76	5,394,965 62	5,807,704 79
Do. on mortgages	4,062,957 02	3,431,942 14	4,202,398 91
Total liabilities exclusive of capital.	26,724,186 46	28,948,302 96	24,314,888 55
Total assets.....	40,989,377 55	43,355,632 61	36,627,093 34

It will be seen that there has been a general reduction of liabilities, owing in part to the season, and in part to the disarrangement of commercial affairs incident to the spread of the epidemic in that quarter.

The deposits of bullion in the Philadelphia mint are considerably in advance of the corresponding total of last year:

DEPOSITS FOR AUGUST.				
	Gold from California.	Other sources.	Silver.	Total deposits.
Philadelphia mint	\$4,469,000	\$43,000	\$860,000	\$5,372,000

COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA MINT FOR AUGUST.					
	Pieces.	Value.		Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles.....	83,730	\$1,674,600	Half dollars	368,000	\$184,000
Eagles	22,005	220,050	Quarter dollars....	2,324,000	581,000
Half eagles	26,860	134,300	Dimes	590,000	59,000
Quarter eagles	108,264	270,660	Half dimes.....	520,000	26,000
Gold dollars.....	215,121	215,121			
Total gold	455,980	\$2,514,731	Total silver.....	3,802,000	\$860,000
Gold bars.....		\$605,199	Copper.....	549,460	5,594
			Total Coinage.....	3,975,524	\$3,975,524

The following will show the comparative deposits at the Philadelphia Mint for the first eight months of the year, and the shipments from San Francisco:—

	Deposited at Philadelphia Mint.			Shipments from S. Francisco.	
	1851.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.
January	\$5,071,669	\$4,161,688	\$4,962,962	\$2,905,770	\$1,821,604
February.....	3,001,970	3,010,222	3,548,523	1,770,122	5,731,273
March	2,880,271	3,892,156	7,533,752	2,173,304	4,810,818
April.....	2,878,353	3,091,037	4,766,000	3,467,293	7,660,851
May.....	3,269,491	4,335,578	4,425,000	5,470,923	2,776,574
June.....	3,637,560	6,689,474	4,545,179	3,570,266	6,198,432
July.....	3,127,517	4,193,880	3,491,000	4,119,509	4,132,601
August.....	4,135,312	2,671,563	5,372,000	3,608,303	4,705,582
Total.....	28,002,143	32,045,598	38,644,416	27,085,490	37,837,735

If we add to the shipments from San Francisco for the last eight months, \$451,212 in coin, we have a total excess in shipments of treasure over the corresponding eight months of 1852, of \$10,195,457. This is exclusive of the sums brought in the hands of the passengers.

We have now obtained the official report of the revenue of the United States for the last quarter of the fiscal year, which enables us to complete our tables for the year.

REVENUE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1853.

	From Customs.	Public Lands.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
First quarter . .	\$15,723,935 71	\$415,945 91	\$201,450 10	\$16,341,331 72
Second quarter.	11,307,465 45	243,587 16	33,818 37	11,584,870 98
Third quarter..	16,208,498 82	422,030 70	172,555 50	16,803,085 10
Fourth quarter.	15,691,965 54	585,521 14	344,299 92	16,624,636 60
1853	\$58,931,865 52	\$1,967,084 99	\$752,123 89	\$61,353,924 40
1852	47,339,326 62	2,043,239 58	345,820 69	49,728,386 89
1851	49,017,567 92	2,352,305 30	943,106 65	52,312,279 87

This comparison will enable us to make a closer estimate of the total dutiable imports for the last fiscal year, than the one previously given:—

Years.	Rec'd from Customs.	Dutiable Imp's.	Free Goods and Specie.	Total Imports.
1852.....	\$47,339,326 62	\$183,252,508	\$29,692,934	\$212,945,442
1853....	58,931,865 52	228,127,710	30,000,000	258,127,710

As a set-off against these large imports, we have to notice a very large increase in the exports at nearly all of the ports, besides the very high price of freights, and the profits on shipments of produce. At New York, as we have heretofore shown, the increase, exclusive of specie, amounted to \$5,314,157, for the same period. We made some time since an estimate of the increase at New Orleans, where the difference is the most noticeable, and we now subjoin the official summary, fully confirming our previous statements:—

EXPORTS OF THE GROWTH, PRODUCE, AND MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES, AND FOREIGN MERCHANDISE FROM THE DISTRICT OF NEW ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1853.

	AMERICAN PRODUCE.	FOREIGN PRODUCE.
In American vessels to foreign countries—		
Third quarter, 1852.....	\$4,175,452	\$72,504
Fourth quarter, 1852	16,155,597	112,355
First quarter, 1853.....	11,862,932	149,173
Second quarter, 1853	15,434,038	125,112
	\$47,628,019	\$459,304
In foreign vessels to foreign countries—		
Third quarter, 1852.....	\$1,342,181	\$3,184
Fourth quarter, 1852	3,973,692	22,526
First quarter, 1853.....	7,651,775	30,520
Second quarter, 1853	7,173,059	8,400
	\$20,140,707	\$64,630
	\$67,768,726	\$523,934
Total foreign exports.....		\$68,292,660
Total year 1851-2.....		49,058,885
Increased exports, 1852-3....		\$19,233,776

Thus the two ports of New York and New Orleans show an increase in exports of \$24,547,932, and all the other ports still to be heard from, will swell this total very considerably.

The receipts for duties at the custom-house in Philadelphia for the month of August and since January 1st, have been as follows:—

	1852.	1853.
Cash duties received in August.....	\$490,201 00	\$515,512 10
“ “ previous 6 months.....	2,419,052 93	3,015,161 75
	<u>\$3,909,253 93</u>	<u>\$3,530,673 85</u>

This shows an increase in the revenue at that port of \$621,419 92 since January 1st, indicating an increased import of about \$2,500,000.

The ocean steamers are now continually crowded with freight as well as passengers, and these lines are doing a large and profitable business. They bind the two Hemispheres together with an ever strengthening chain, by the frequency and regularity of their trips.

The indications during the early part of August were that the increase in the imports which has been steadily going on since the first of the year, had reached its maximum; but toward the close of the month the totals again increased. At New York the increase amounted to \$4,885,086, as compared with August of last year, and \$6,731,844 as compared with August of 1851. We also annex a comparison with 1850.

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

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Entered for consumption.....	\$9,034,284	\$11,279,004	\$13,711,421	\$16,788,352
Entered for warehousing.....	1,743,211	1,358,089	464,962	2,226,290
Free goods.....	246,249	638,334	1,075,388	667,408
Specie.....	3,457,684	186,503	56,917	511,715
Total entered at the port.....	<u>\$14,481,428</u>	<u>\$13,461,930</u>	<u>\$15,308,688</u>	<u>\$20,193,774</u>
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	1,716,055	1,252,245	1,329,991	1,745,864

The imports of specie appear to have declined since 1850, but in that year part of the receipts of California gold via Chagres were entered as foreign imports. The most noticeable feature in the above is the large increase in the value of goods entered for warehousing. These goods have not accumulated to this extent in store, but have to a large amount been re-exported in bond, or transferred to other ports.

The total imports at New York from foreign ports since the first of January are now \$48,562,232 greater than for the corresponding eight months of last year, \$37,751,467 greater than for the same time of 1851, and \$35,430,612 greater than for the same time of 1850. This shows an increase over last year of more than fifty per cent. As already shown, this has not extended throughout the Union, but it makes up even at this port an amount quite formidable. We annex a comparison for four years, which will be found to possess much interest:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Entered for consumption....	\$72,288,772	\$82,041,898	\$72,209,450	\$110,347,159
Entered for warehousing....	11,659,644	9,845,001	5,916,630	15,813,888
Free goods	6,207,603	6,803,459	9,335,327	10,336,526
Specie	12,522,173	1,666,979	2,085,165	1,611,231
Total imports	\$102,678,192	\$100,357,337	\$89,546,572	\$138,108,804
Withdrawn from warehouse.	7,094,156	8,132,230	10,952,568	9,972,966

It will be seen that the entries for warehousing are nearly three times as large as for the same time of last year, which is accounted for, not by the exports to foreign ports, as this shows no increase in amount; neither by the stock on hand, for this has not largely increased; but by the distributive shipments to other ports, especially of the goods which came by steamer. About half of the increase in the imports consists of dry goods, which show a gain for the month of August of \$2,046,505 over the same month of last year, \$2,725,795 over August, 1851, and \$2,123,255 over August, 1850, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR AUGUST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool	\$2,254,069	\$1,736,232	\$2,528,842	\$3,605,759
Manufactures of cotton.....	943,925	870,116	1,240,071	1,548,745
Manufactures of silk.....	2,803,145	2,532,029	2,706,702	2,981,048
Manufactures of flax.....	619,777	536,816	614,686	713,242
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	383,468	382,831	536,684	516,007
Total.....	\$7,004,384	\$6,058,024	\$7,626,985	\$9,363,901

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool	\$453,417	\$297,124	\$221,498	\$345,553
Manufactures of cotton.....	201,480	121,312	95,769	86,119
Manufactures of silk.....	146,737	121,689	140,143	101,271
Manufactures of flax.....	46,838	65,350	42,129	14,672
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	8,912	19,767	21,686	10,699
Total.....	\$857,384	\$625,242	\$521,225	\$558,314
Add entered for consumption	7,004,384	6,058,024	7,626,985	9,363,901
Total thrown on the market..	\$7,861,768	\$6,683,266	\$8,148,210	\$9,922,215

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool	\$358,198	\$495,957	\$86,890	\$270,368
Manufactures of cotton.....	181,452	143,970	45,018	182,527
Manufactures of silk.....	181,543	371,652	72,579	99,273
Manufactures of flax.....	70,028	92,295	19,373	47,881
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	7,526	38,693	28,536	12,436
Total.....	\$798,747	\$1,142,567	\$252,896	\$562,485
Add entered for consumption.....	7,004,384	6,058,024	7,626,985	9,363,901
Total entered at the port	\$7,803,131	\$7,200,591	\$7,879,881	\$9,926,386

The increase is greatest in woolens, the receipts of which have been very large, the total for August being \$1,700,000 over the corresponding total of the previous year. The following will show the comparative receipts for eight months:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR EIGHT MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$12,146,835	\$10,672,753	\$9,993,688	\$18,518,981
Manufactures of cotton.....	8,473,899	7,348,294	6,955,859	11,017,762
Manufactures of silk.....	15,236,295	18,274,613	14,949,433	23,660,502
Manufactures of flax.....	5,787,611	4,684,183	4,038,676	5,631,209
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	1,769,876	2,755,878	3,029,189	3,872,518
Total.....	\$43,414,516	\$44,235,721	\$38,966,790	\$62,700,972

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,177,467	\$1,193,671	\$1,300,636	\$1,510,207
Manufactures of cotton.....	955,010	1,130,186	1,221,555	787,600
Manufactures of silk.....	835,748	980,615	1,541,319	1,109,643
Manufactures of flax.....	304,995	462,699	657,652	164,313
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	97,035	280,588	260,951	258,242
Total.....	\$3,370,256	\$4,047,759	\$4,982,113	\$3,830,014
Add entered for consumption....	43,414,516	44,235,721	38,966,790	62,700,972
Total thrown on the market.....	\$46,784,772	\$48,233,480	\$43,948,903	\$66,530,986

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,671,190	\$1,661,246	\$1,002,073	\$1,924,619
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,537,764	1,182,207	685,882	993,619
Manufactures of silk.....	976,085	1,610,092	1,724,697	1,214,821
Manufactures of flax.....	543,464	482,959	243,652	288,626
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	74,889	268,583	251,081	275,348
Total.....	\$4,803,392	\$5,205,087	\$3,907,385	\$4,647,033
Add entered for consumption....	43,414,516	44,235,721	38,966,790	62,700,972
Total entered at the port....	\$48,217,908	\$49,440,808	\$42,874,175	\$67,348,005

The receipts for cash duties have been very large. The total for the last fiscal year for the whole United States has already been given. We annex a comparison of the totals at New York down to the close of August:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
In August.....	\$3,484,965 65	\$3,234,764 21	\$3,384,295 56	\$4,746,657 81
Previous seven months.....	17,240,026 00	20,211,065 72	17,491,100 06	25,807,436 65
Total from January 1st.....	20,724,991 65	23,445,829 93	21,375,395 62	30,554,094 46

The exports during the month have increased in a still greater proportion than the imports, the total at New York, (exclusive of specie,) having nearly doubled.

If this ratio of increase were to continue, the exports would soon overtake the imports, large as the latter are:—

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

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Domestic produce.....	\$4,937,393	\$3,259,594	\$2,340,320	\$4,540,383
Foreign merchandise (free).....	18,766	22,974	46,464	79,857
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)....	658,787	334,549	220,978	377,720
Specie.....	1,441,736	2,673,444	2,935,833	1,183,973
Total exports.....	\$7,056,682	\$6,290,561	\$5,544,095	\$6,181,933
Total, exclusive of specie.....	5,614,946	3,617,117	2,608,262	4,997,960

The total for the last eight months, of course, shows a less comparative gain, as the increase did not begin with the opening of the year:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR EIGHT MONTHS, ENDING AUGUST 21ST.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
Domestic produce.....	\$27,428,526	\$28,904,460	\$27,452,183	\$34,845,630
Foreign merchandise (free).....	463,299	396,630	588,442	1,090,526
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)....	3,070,365	2,600,688	2,966,285	2,865,901
Specie.....	5,413,548	27,771,129	18,531,941	13,763,567
Total exports.....	\$36,375,738	\$59,672,907	\$49,538,251	\$52,565,624
Total, exclusive of specie.....	30,962,190	31,901,778	31,006,910	38,802,057

The total, (exclusive of specie,) is \$7,795 greater than for the first eight months of last year, \$6,900,279 greater than for the same period of 1851, and \$7,839,867 greater than the same time in 1850.

We continue our usual comparative summary of the shipments from New York to foreign ports of some of the leading articles of domestic produce, from January 1st to September 17th:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO SEPTEMBER 17TH.

	1852.	1853.		1852.	1853.
Ashes—pots.... bbls.	13,781	7,725	Naval stores.... bbls.	325,992	320,712
pearls.....	664	513	Oils, whale.... galls.	34,998	237,175
Beeswax..... lbs.	206,027	144,430	sperm.....	462,784	782,273
<i>Breadstuffs</i> —			lard.....	23,629	45,063
Wheat flour .. bbls.	972,600	1,143,754	linseed.....	10,534	6,857
Rye flour	7,974	1,996	<i>Provisions</i> —		
Corn meal.....	36,506	31,994	Pork..... bbls.	28,323	50,922
Wheat	1,499,503	2,776,129	Beef.....	36,179	38,609
Rye.....	236,460	Cut meats	1,247,919	7,455,200
Oats.....	8,153	49,135	Butter.....	509,737	1,216,667
Barley.....	367	Cheese.....	670,247	3,568,850
Corn.....	712,820	617,671	Lard.....	3,079,827	5,299,978
Candles, mold. . boxes	45,080	37,872	Rice..... trcs.	22,746	16,597
sperm.....	2,765	3,534	Tallow..... lbs.	357,736	2,343,998
Coal..... tons	27,591	24,073	Tobacco, crude... pkgs.	18,946	16,691
Cotton..... bales	281,639	209,910	Do., manufactured. lbs.	3,113,561	4,569,867
Hay.....	6,557	3,665	Whalebone.....	557,636	2,486,793
Hops.....	483	281			

The largest increase has been in wheat, the total shipments of which have been nearly doubled within the last eight months. The exports of provisions have also largely increased. Since our last, the prices of flour have advanced on the seaboard about \$1 00 per barrel; since this extreme rate was reached, the market has fluctuated, but there can be no doubt but what higher prices will rule throughout all of the winter than has previously been obtained for more than a year. The deficiency in the harvest throughout Great Britain and a portion of Central Europe, have, no doubt, been greatly exaggerated by some writers, but there is no longer a question but what the crop is a short one, and below the actual necessities of the people. By an imperial decree, (anticipating the slower effect of the sliding scale,) all corn and flour imported into France before the 1st of January next, are to pay the minimum duty fixed by the law of April 15, 1832, or a *droit de balance* of only 25 cents. Rice, meal, and pulse, will also pay a duty of only 25 cents per 100 kilogrammes. All vessels laden with these commodities will pay no tonnage duties. The French government has taken the precaution to purchase largely of breadstuffs for resale, in order to prevent, if possible, any material or long-continued advance in price, as dear bread, even under the best of governments, is very apt to excite discontent and restlessness among the lower classes of the people.

Since our last, the rate of interest has been advanced by the Bank of England from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 per cent. This measure has been deemed necessary to prevent—first, a tendency of capital to seek foreign investment; and, secondly, a drain of specie for the purchase of breadstuffs. Much speculation has been excited in England, among the writers upon political economy, as to the constant outgo of specie from that country, the shipments embracing a large portion of the receipts. The fact is, that the large shipments of coin and bullion made from this country to England were not designed for lodgment there. We pay for the balance of our China imports, and the large sums due for continental goods, by drawing on London, and thus the bulk of our shipments of specie goes forward to that point. The balance to these several countries is thus thrown against England, and she must move the coin forward until the equilibrium is restored. Thus the imports of bullion into England since January 1st, 1852, are nearly \$200,000,000, and yet the coin in the bank of England has been but little increased. A portion of this has been taken into general circulation among the people, and the remainder has been reshipped to points where it was necessary to furnish a basis for exchange. The idea which many seem to entertain of increasing prosperity is certainly very absurd. They can find no evidence of it in individual success; they seem to seek it in public depositories or storehouses, where Pharaoh, at the suggestion of Joseph, placed the surplus breadstuffs of Egypt, in anticipation of the famine. Overlooking the blessings at their doors, they are ever in search of a sign of the public welfare, as if it were to be placed, like a guide-board, in the public thoroughfare.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

OPERATIONS OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND IN 1852.

The *London Circular to Bankers* presents several elaborate tables, being an analysis of the weekly returns of the Bank of England for the year ending December, 1852. The tables show by annotation the highest and lowest amount of each item of the series. The *Circular* furnishes also a carefully drawn summary of the whole, which we append:—

I. MOVEMENTS IN THE ISSUE DEPARTMENT.

The highest amount of notes issued during the year 1852, was on the 10th day of July, being 35,878,765*l.* against 30,818,250*l.* on the 20th of December in the previous year; and the lowest amount in 1852 was 30,992,450*l.* on the 3d day of January, against 26,642,270*l.* on May 3, 1851.

The notes in actual circulation reached their highest figure on the 10th day of July, being 23,747,755*l.*, showing an increase over that of the previous year of 3,049,500*l.*; the lowest amount in circulation in 1852 was 19,284,590*l.*, on the 3d day of January, being 608,395*l.* above the lowest amount in 1851. It will be seen in the tabular statement under this head, that the actual circulation on the 10th day of July was below the amount of gold held in the coffers of the bank.

It will be found that the increase of the metallic assets of the bank began in the week ending August 2d, 1851, and continued every week with only two exceptions, namely, September 6th, and December the 27th, for thirty-five weeks, down to March the 27th, 1852. During this period the total increase of gold—after deducting the decrease for the two weeks referred to—was 6,064,968*l.*; but this remarkable increase did not rest at this point; for, after a trifling decrease in the two succeeding weeks of only 556,670*l.*, the increase progressed for thirteen weeks more, namely, from April the 17th to July 10th, inclusive, adding a further sum of 3,701,650*l.* to the gold in the issue department of the bank, and at the latter date the total value had reached the enormous sum of 21,845,390*l.* sterling, the largest amount which had been possessed by the proprietor since the foundation of the company. In comparing the highest and lowest points in the amount of gold bullion held during this year and the two preceding ones, the result will stand as below:

	Highest Amount.	Date.	Lowest Amount.	Date.
	£		£	
1850.....	16,209,493	16th March	14,300,053	28th December
1851.....	16,784,875	20th December	12,608,895	3d May
1852.....	11,845,390	10th July	16,959,075	3d January

So that while the highest amounts of gold bullion in 1850 and 1851 differed very little from each other, the highest amount in 1852 shows an increase of upwards of 5,000,000*l.* sterling over that of the previous year.

In silver bullion the changes were so slight as scarcely to demand any particular notice. In the previous statement we pointed out the great diminution in the quantity of silver bullion held by the bank in the month of October, 1846, which then amounted to 2,727,001*l.*, but which had decreased to 33,375*l.* on the 1st of March in 1852. Since that date no alteration took place in the amount until August 14th, when it decreased to 18,967*l.*, and in three weeks afterwards it was 19,154*l.*, at which it stands at the present time.

2. THE BANKING DEPARTMENT.

It can scarcely be supposed that the remarkable increase which has taken place in the gold possessed by the bank can have occurred without producing some considerable changes in the banking department of the establishment, connected as it is with the great trading and commercial operations of the empire. Taking each head in the order in which it falls in the table we have given, it appears that the "Rest" in the banking department reached its maximum 3,624,413*l.* on the 3d day of April, and its minimum on the 5th day of June.

Under the head of Public Deposits the highest amount is below that of 1851, being only 9,447,516*l.* against 10,796,555*l.*; the lowest amount in favor of the exchequer was 3,065,992*l.* against 3,957,006*l.* in 1851. The Public Deposits seem to have stood at a lower figure in each of the three years ending 1852, by the following account:

	Highest Amount. £	Lowest Amount. £
1850.....	11,022,817	4,657,318
1851.....	10,795,555	3,957,006
1852.....	9,447,516	2,802,361

Under the head of Other Deposits, which include all private accounts, and accounts of bankers and railway and other joint-stock companies, there is a very remarkable increase, the maximum amount exceeding that of the previous year by nearly 4½ millions. The following shows the highest and lowest for three years:

	Highest Amount. £	Lowest Amount. £
1850.....	11,263,012	8,850,077
1851.....	10,976,856	8,121,431
1852.....	15,464,288	9,371,117

Seven-day and other bills stood at their highest point on the 13th day of November, being 1,507,161*l.*; and at the lowest on the 20th day of March, being 1,061,520*l.*; when compared with the previous year the maximum shows an increase of 179,935*l.*, and the minimum an increase of 45,435*l.*

The total liabilities of the bank in the Banking Department in 1852 stood at 40,622,325*l.* on the 24th of December; and the lowest amount was 35,344,376*l.* on the 17th of January, which was an increase on the maximum amount in 1851 of 1,414,850*l.*, and an increase on the minimum amount of 2,848,277*l.*

Under the head of Government Securities, the variation has presented nothing of importance, the highest amount being 14,301,095*l.* on the 10th day of April, and the lowest 13,233,763*l.* January 10th. The favorable state of the exchequer, and the easy state of the money market arising from the great increase in the capital of the bank, would operate favorably in this respect.

Other securities, which comprise commercial bills discounted, advances on bills, bonds, and other descriptions of securities, the highest point reached was below that of 1851; and in no part of the latter year did the private securities of the bank fall so low as in 1852—the maximum in the previous year was 15,181,698*l.*, and in 1852 it was 14,135,852*l.*; and in 1851 the minimum was 11,366,148*l.*, and in 1852 it was 10,646,723*l.* Taking the commercial paper discounted at about half the sum stated under this head, there is a decrease shown in the Discount Department of the bank when compared with the previous year; and it was only towards the close of the year that the securities under this head began to increase, and the demand for money became more active previously to the rate of discount being advanced from 2 to 2½ per cent in January of the following year.

The notes in reserve show the natural result of an increase of gold in the Issue Department, as all notes issued beyond the extent of 14,000,000*l.* upon the security of the debt due to the bank and Government Securities, must be represented by gold and silver bullion. This resource of the bank, it will be seen, has been well supported during the year 1852, and has been the great basis of public and private credit up to the present time, and without which it is impossible that we could have sustained the immense increase which has taken place in our commercial and manufacturing enterprise during the past two years. We will give to the legislators all the credit that is due to their sagacity, prudence, and foresight; but it is to the increase of gold alone that we can attribute our security and the stability of our speculations—for without that, nothing would have dislodged the millions from their ancient homes, and distributed the produce and industry of the globe over every land.

3. MOVEMENTS IN THE BULLION DEPARTMENT.

The following statement shows the quantities of gold and silver received and delivered, in continuation of those published in February of last year. As the Bank of England introduced the practice of weighing gold and silver by the ounce Troy, and decimal parts of an ounce in November last, we have reduced the receipts and deliveries in previous years to ounces and decimal parts of an ounce, that the comparisons may be the more readily understood.

GOLD RECEIVED.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
	Ounces.	Ounces.	Ounces.
1st Quarter	326,084.2	332,759.10	1,081,959.75
2d "	321,714.7	513,607.20	1,319,538.60
3d "	520,631.7	592,717.70	1,095,514.60
4th "	359,352.9	2,002,633.65	1,318,644.20
Total	1,527,963.5	3,441,717.65	4,815,657.10

GOLD DELIVERED.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
	Ounces.	Ounces.	Ounces.
1st Quarter	186,396.90	282,022.00	234,895.60
2d "	195,578.10	209,245.55	222,850.55
3d "	217,222.85	153,472.15	197,452.10
4th "	361,626.20	251,309.45	559,509.55
Total	960,824.05	896,849.15	1,214,707.80

SILVER RECEIVED.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
	Ounces.	Ounces.	Ounces.
1st Quarter	4,112,491.25	4,024,614.40	5,070,962.25
2d "	5,155,377.30	3,909,871.40	5,683,720.20
3d "	4,435,043.20	5,252,508.35	6,848,005.95
4th "	5,188,230.65	5,052,716.65	4,933,347.80
Total	18,891,142.40	18,239,210.80	21,646,036.20

SILVER DELIVERED.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
	Ounces.	Ounces.	Ounces.
1st Quarter	4,121,502.75	4,047,725.85	5,079,338.25
2d "	5,178,006.75	3,957,962.75	5,671,377.90
3d "	4,429,181.90	5,252,085.60	6,884,606.10
4th "	5,815,619.45	4,958,207.45	4,069,242.57
Total	19,545,010.85	18,215,981.65	21,702,064.52

These statements show that the receipts of gold, which began to increase in the last quarter of 1851, maintained their steadiness throughout the whole of 1852—making the total amount 4,815,657 ounces; being an increase of 1,373,940 ounces over the previous year—or, at 77s. 9d. per ounce, about 5,341,191 $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling, and nearly equal to the total receipts in 1850. By reducing the receipts and the deliveries for the three years ending 1852, to their equivalent money value, we obtain the following results:

	Gold Received.	Gold Delivered.
	£	£
1850.....	5,930,056	3,735,203
1851.....	13,379,684	3,436,500
1852.....	18,720,866	4,722,173
Total.....	£38,040,496	£11,943,876

The difference in favor of the bank for the three years ending 1851, was 15,629,083 $\frac{1}{2}$; but for the three years ending 1852, it was no less than 26,096,620 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The total receipts and deliveries also of silver show a large increase in 1852 over the previous year; but they nearly balance each other in amount. The amounts for the three years ending 1852 were as follows:

	Silver Received.	Silver Delivered.
	£	£
1850.....	4,880,211	5,049,127
1851.....	4,711,873	4,689,128
1852.....	5,591,895	5,607,141
Total.....	£12,183,979	£15,345,306

These amounts will be found to differ with those we gave in the previous statement; on the former occasion we calculated the value of silver at 66s. the pound troy, or 63d. the ounce; but we think the approximation is nearer the value by taking it at 62d. the ounce.

Such were the astonishing results produced in the several departments of the Bank of England in 1852, arising, as we may affirm, almost entirely from the discoveries of gold in Australia and California. What may arise in future, we must leave it to time to unfold.

THE PUBLIC REVENUES OF WURTEMBERG.

A correspondent of the *Evening Post*, writing from the South of Germany, gives, on the authority of one of the financial officers, the following account of the public revenues of Wurtemberg, one of the German States:—

The state at large maintains its king, its court, its army, its judiciary system, and its legislative expenses:

1. Out of revenues derived by indirect taxes, which spring from duties levied on imports. Wurtemberg is one of the states forming the Zoll-Verein, or Customs Union, for details about which I must refer you to the books. These indirect taxes produce not quite half that is requisite for the support of the government. They are levied principally on sugar, (\$7 per 100 lbs.,) coffee, (\$8½ per 100 lbs.,) silk, cotton goods, etc. These duties produce, in a population of two and a half millions of inhabitants, about \$2,000,000.

2. From its public property, forests, salines, (salt costs here 2 kruger per lb.—it costs the government less than 1,) water powers, meadow lands, old feudal property, part wrested from nobles, and much of it from the Catholic Church at the time of the Reformation. This branch is a most complex part of the government; it requires most minute legislative and administrative details. I can but state its general outlines, and add, that after some reflection, I have no remedy to propose, since difficulties almost insurmountable, all the results of "vested rights," meet one at every step.

3. From direct taxes. These alone are periodically levied by the legislature. They are also levied according to a very complex system. They—that is, the amount found necessary by the legislature—are divided into twenty-four parts, 17-24ths of which must be borne by realty (the ground, the soil,) 3-24ths by trade and handicraft, and 4-24ths by buildings and superstructures. If, therefore, the legislature finds that the state requires, in addition to the preceding two sources, 2,400,000, then

Ground	pays	1,700,000
Trade		300,000
Buildings		400,000

and so again, in relative proportion, whatever may be the amount. Direct taxes, therefore, vary with the demands of government, and are high or low, as the previous sources are great or little, and as the expenses of government are high or low.

The ground is valued somewhat after your manner in New York; its value, however, being more fixed, it is easier determined. The government here is also more inquisitorial, and therefore the real relative value is, in almost all instances, ascertained.

Trades pay their fixed share, according to fixed classes. Every mechanic has to pay something for his trade, the least being \$2 per year, somewhat after our former lawyers' tax in Ohio.

Merchants are divided into six classes, according to their respective annual amount of business, (not capital employed,) the class being determined by the statement, upon honor, of the merchants.

The value of buildings is fixed equally for insurance and leasable purposes, the two going together. This part of the system deserves a separate notice, and as soon as I am furnished with greater details, I shall give it in subsequent numbers.

These direct taxes are levied from a kind of grand valuation, formed as stated, here called "Cataster."

Towns and cities are authorized, through their councils, to levy upon this grand valuation a certain limited amount of tax. These communities have also always more or less extensive public property in water powers, forests, and hospital property; and formerly the rents from this property sufficed to cover all expenses. Napoleon's

wars and forced levies, with the exactions of our time, many of which created debts of all kinds, have rendered taxation necessary. This taxation is levied by the local authorities as with us—only here the levies must pass the scrutiny and approval of a royal financial officer. Might not such a financial veto be good in our cities?

BANK CIRCULATION IN WISCONSIN.

The *Milwaukee News* of July 1st, 1853, says the law of the last legislature against the circulation of unauthorized bank notes in this State, goes into operation to-day. The following is the first and most important section of this law:—"No person or persons shall issue, pay out or pass, and no body corporate shall issue, pay out, pass, or receive in this State as money, or as an equivalent for money, any promissory note, draft, order, bill of exchange, certificate of deposit, or other paper of any form whatever in the similitude of bank paper, circulating, or intended to circulate as money or banking currency, that is not at the time of such issuing, paying out, passing, or receiving, expressly authorized by some positive law of the United States, or of Canada, and redeemable in current gold or silver coin at the place where it purports to have been issued; and the burden of proving the existence of such law, and the redemption of the promissory note, bill of exchange, draft, order, or certificate of deposit, as aforesaid, at the place of issue, shall rest upon the person or body paying out, passing, or issuing the same."

Sections 2 and 3 affix fines of not less than five, or more than one hundred dollars, for individual violation of the law, or imprisonment in the county jail not less than one or more than six months. Bodies corporate shall forfeit their rights and privileges and pay \$500 for every violation, to be appropriated to the School Fund of this State.

CANADIAN, STERLING, AND FEDERAL CURRENCY.

The Canadian pound *currency* is four dollars of United States money; the pound *sterling* is \$4 87. The subjoined tables give the equivalent sums in sterling, currency, and dollars and cents:—

Sterling.			Currency.			Dollars.			Sterling.		
£	£ s. d.	\$ cts.	£	£ s. d.	\$	Dollars.	\$	£	s.	d.	
1	1 4 4	4 87	1	0 16 5½	4	1	0 4 1½				
2	2 8 8	9 74	2	1 12 10½	8	2	0 8 2½				
3	3 13 0	14 60	3	2 9 3¼	12	3	0 0 4				
4	4 17 4	19 46	4	3 5 9	16	4	0 6 5½				
5	6 1 8	24 33	5	4 2 2	20	5	1 0 6½				
6	7 6 0	29 20	6	4 18 7	24	6	1 4 8				
7	8 10 4	34 07	7	5 15 0¾	28	7	1 8 9½				
8	9 14 8	38 93	8	6 11 6	32	8	1 12 10½				
9	10 19 0	43 80	9	7 7 11½	36	9	1 16 11½				
10	12 3 4	48 67	10	8 4 4½	40	10	2 1 1½				
20	24 6 8	97 33	20	16 8 9½	80	20	4 2 2½				
30	36 10 0	146 00	30	24 13 1¾	120	30	6 3 3½				
40	48 13 4	194 67	40	32 17 6½	160	40	8 4 4½				
50	60 16 8	243 33	50	41 1 11	200	50	10 5 5½				
60	73 0 0	292 00	60	49 6 3½	240	60	12 6 7				
70	85 3 4	340 67	70	57 10 8½	280	70	14 7 8				
80	97 6 8	389 33	80	65 15 0¾	320	80	16 8 9½				
90	109 10 0	438 00	90	73 19 5½	360	90	18 9 10½				
100	121 13 4	486 67	100	82 3 10	400	100	20 10 11½				
200	243 6 8	973 33	200	164 7 8	800	200	41 1 11				
300	365 0 0	1,460 00	300	246 11 6	1,200	300	61 12 10½				
400	486 13 4	1,946 67	400	328 15 4	1,600	400	82 3 10				
500	608 6 8	2,433 33	500	410 19 2½	2,000	500	102 14 9½				
600	730 0 0	2,920 00	600	493 3 0½	2,400	600	123 5 9				
700	851 13 4	3,406 67	700	575 6 10½	2,800	700	143 16 8½				
800	973 6 8	3,893 33	800	657 10 8½	3,200	800	164 7 8				
900	1,095 0 0	4,380 00	900	739 14 6½	3,600	900	184 18 7½				
1000	1,216 13 4	4,866 67	1,000	821 18 4½	4,000	1,000	205 9 7				

Sterl.	Currency.			Dollars.	Currency.	Sterling.			Cur.	
s.	£	s.	d.	\$	c.	s.	d.	cts.	s. d.	
1	0	1	2½	0	24	1	0	9½	0	0½
2	0	2	5½	0	49	2	1	7½	0	1½
3	0	3	7½	0	73	4	2	5½	0	1½
4	0	4	10½	0	97	4	3	3½	0	2½
5	0	6	1	1	22	5	4	1½	0	3
6	0	7	3½	1	46	6	4	11½	0	3½
7	0	8	6½	1	70	7	5	9	0	4½
8	0	9	8½	1	95	8	6	7	0	5
9	0	10	11½	2	19	9	7	4½	0	5
10	0	12	2	2	43	10	8	2½	0	6
11	0	13	4½	2	67	11	9	0½	0	9½
12	0	14	7½	2	92	12	9	10½	0	2½
13	0	15	9½	3	10	13	10	8½	1	7½
14	0	17	0½	3	40	14	11	6	2	0½
15	0	18	3	3	65	15	12	4	2	5
16	0	19	5½	3	89	16	13	1½	2	0½
17	1	0	8½	4	13	17	13	11½	3	3½
18	1	1	10½	4	37	18	14	9½	3	8½
19	1	3	1½	4	62	19	15	7½	4	1½

Sterling.	Currency.			Dollars.	Currency.	Sterling.		
d.	£	s.	d.	\$	cts.	s.	d.	cts.
1	0	0	1½	0	2	1	0	0½
2	0	0	2½	0	4	2	0	1½
3	0	0	3½	0	6	3	0	2½
4	0	0	5	0	8	4	0	3½
5	0	0	6	0	10	5	0	4
6	0	0	7½	0	12	6	0	5
7	0	0	8½	0	14	7	0	5½
8	0	0	9½	0	16	8	0	6½
9	0	0	11	0	18	9	0	7½
10	1	1	0	0	20	10	0	8½
11	0	1	1½	0	22	11	0	9

RULE.—To convert Sterling into Currency: To the given sum add 1-5 of itself, and 1-12 of that 1-5.

To convert Currency into Sterling: Multiply by 60 (or by 12 and 5) and divide by 73.

INSURANCE ON VESSELS TO THE ST. LAWRENCE.

The *Toronto Globe* makes the following quotations of the rates of ocean insurance for the purpose of pointing out the disadvantages under which the St. Lawrence suffers. The rates from Quebec are more than double those from New York:—

	Outward.	Home.
New York	20 to 25	15 to 20
Charleston, Savannah.....	20 to 30	15 to 20
New Orleans.....	30 to 40	25 to 30
Canada.....	30 to 40	35 to 50
British North America.....		
Newfoundland.....	30 to 40	30 to 40

THE BANKRUPT CONDITION OF MEXICO.

What strikes every foreigner with utter amazement on his first acquaintance with Mexico, is that, seeing at every step he takes in this magnificent country indubitable proofs of riches and resources in perennial abundance; wealth in every shape, mineral, cereal, pastoral; the earth teeming, in fact, with every country's product which man can use, exchange, and turn to his profit; that, seeing all this, he learns that the same country is utterly beggared and bankrupt in public men and public credit; and, as a natural consequence, that its public means, either dammed up or turned into wrong channels, are quite inadequate to meet the demands of the national expenditure.—*Robertson's Visit to Mexico.*

RELATIVE VALUE OF THE REAL AND PERSONAL ESTATE IN THE CITY AND COUNTY OF NEW YORK, AS ASSESSED IN 1852 AND 1853.

Wards.	Assessments of 1852.		Assessments of 1853.		Total.		Increase.		Total.
	Real Estate.	Personal Estate.	Real Estate.	Personal Estate.	1852.	1853.	Real Estate.	Personal Estate.	Increase.
1	\$30,828,133	\$40,671,503	\$31,919,133	\$49,008,060	\$71,499,686	\$80,927,193	\$1,090,950	\$8,336,556	\$9,427,506
2	15,999,725	2,947,672	18,844,750	4,759,207	18,947,397	23,603,957	2,845,025	1,811,534	4,656,559
3	16,656,300	9,769,472	18,702,600	10,504,646	26,425,772	29,207,246	2,046,300	735,173	2,781,473
4	8,407,420	1,571,567	8,825,320	1,766,704	9,978,987	10,592,114	417,900	195,227	613,127
5	10,738,400	2,490,550	12,864,350	2,669,303	13,228,950	15,533,653	2,125,950	178,753	2,304,703
6	8,104,850	1,303,250	9,257,150	1,964,314	9,408,100	11,221,464	1,152,300	661,064	1,813,364
7	11,757,490	2,746,575	11,963,085	3,123,790	14,504,065	15,086,875	205,595	377,215	582,810
8	12,939,960	1,706,573	14,705,200	2,492,615	14,646,533	17,197,815	1,765,240	786,042	2,551,282
9	11,795,800	1,727,643	12,519,150	1,961,393	13,523,443	14,480,543	723,350	233,749	957,099
10	6,851,300	1,106,250	7,791,850	1,140,300	7,957,550	8,932,150	940,550	34,050	974,600
11	6,897,200	539,831	7,228,300	555,551	7,437,031	7,783,851	331,100	15,720	346,820
12	3,888,896	518,100	5,609,272	837,500	4,406,996	6,446,772	1,720,376	319,400	2,039,776
13	4,699,900	552,505	4,838,700	624,153	5,252,405	5,462,858	138,800	71,652	210,452
14	8,133,500	2,335,927	9,194,600	2,290,454	10,469,427	11,485,054	1,061,100*	1,061,100
15	19,245,250	15,826,945	20,257,600	17,621,229	35,072,195	37,878,829	1,012,350	1,794,283	2,806,633
16	11,375,139	1,608,225	12,858,550	1,899,568	12,983,364	14,758,118	1,483,410	291,343	1,774,754
17	13,186,850	2,436,900	14,502,930	3,056,250	15,623,750	17,559,180	1,316,080	619,350	1,935,430
18	33,886,010	8,194,800	44,720,255	11,987,600	42,080,810	56,707,855	10,834,245	3,792,800	14,627,045
19	9,878,380	255,000	16,970,000	448,000	10,133,380	17,418,000	7,091,620	193,000	7,284,620
20	7,916,200	210,750	11,066,000	283,400	8,126,950	11,349,400	3,149,800	72,650	3,222,450
	\$253,186,753	\$98,520,038	\$294,638,795	\$118,994,132	\$351,706,791	\$413,632,927	\$41,452,041	\$20,519,567	\$61,971,609

Total valuation in the County, \$413,632,932 94; in the Lamp District, \$395,514,905 94; south of 42d street, \$391,308,610 94.

CONTROLLER'S OFFICE, July 19, 1853.

A. C. FLAGG, Controller.

* Decrease \$45,472.

It will be seen by the preceding table, that the assessed value of real estate this year is \$41,452,042 greater than last year, and of personal estate \$20,474,095 greater. Total increase of valuation in one year, \$61,926,137. The greatest increase in any one ward is \$14,627,045, in the 18th; the next greatest, \$9,427,506 59 in the 1st ward. In the latter, \$8,336,556 69 of the increase is in personal estate, and only \$1,090,950 in real estate; whereas, in the former, \$10,834,245 is in real estate, and \$3,792,800 in personal. Third in the order of greatest increase, stands the 19th ward, which shows an advance of \$7,091,620 in real estate, and \$193,000 in personal. Next comes the 2d, which advances \$2,845,025 in real estate, and \$1,811,534 in personal. Total, \$4,656,559 69. This ward, which lies altogether east of Broadway, shows a greater advance in real estate than the 3d ward, on the westerly side of Broadway, where many extensive stores have been erected, and where rents have increased much more rapidly than on the east side.

ASSESSED VALUE OF TAXABLE PROPERTY IN NEW YORK CITY FOR TWENTY-FOUR YEARS.			
Year.	Real Estate.	Personal.	Total.
1830.....	\$87,603,580	\$87,684,938	\$125,288,518
1831.....	97,221,870	42,058,344	139,280,214
1832.....	104,040,405	42,260,213	146,302,618
1833.....	114,129,561	52,365,626	166,495,187
1834.....	123,249,280	63,299,231	186,548,511
1835.....	143,732,425	74,991,278	218,723,703
1836.....	233,743,303	75,758,617	309,501,920
1837.....	196,450,109	67,297,241	263,747,350
1838.....	194,543,359	69,609,532	264,152,941
1839.....	196,940,134	69,942,296	266,882,430
1840.....	187,221,714	65,013,801	252,235,515
1841.....	186,350,948	64,843,972	251,194,920
1842.....	176,512,342	61,294,559	237,806,901
1843.....	164,955,314	64,273,764	229,229,078
1844.....	171,936,591	64,023,456	235,960,047
1845.....	177,207,990	62,787,527	239,995,517
1846.....	183,480,934	61,471,471	244,952,405
1847.....	187,314,386	59,837,917	247,152,303
1848.....	193,027,576	61,164,451	254,192,027
1849.....	197,761,919	58,455,174	256,217,093
1850.....	207,146,176	78,939,240	286,085,416
1851.....	227,013,856	93,094,502	320,108,358
1852.....	253,186,753	98,520,042	351,706,795
1853.....	294,633,795	118,994,137	413,627,932

In looking at the above table, which shows the valuation in successive years, the reader will be surprised at the greatness of the fluctuations. From 1833 to 1836 inclusive, (four years,) the assessed value of real estate was more than doubled. In seven years more, from 1836 to 1843, the valuation fell near sixty-nine millions. Then it rose again, gradually, from year to year, until 1851, when it jumped up twenty millions; in 1852, twenty-six millions; and in 1853, forty-one and a half millions; making a total of \$87,492,619 in three years, in real estate alone. In the same three years there was an advance of \$40,054,897 in personal estate. Aggregate increase of real and personal estate from 1851 to 1853, both inclusive, (three years,) \$127,547,516. The valuation of real estate in 1852 reached and passed that of 1836, the year of speculation and bubbles. The valuation of the present year shows an excess of near sixty-one millions over 1836 in the value of real estate, and more than forty-three millions in personal estate. Total, in round numbers, one hundred and four millions above the piping times of speculation and folly, which swamped the nation in an abyss of insolvency. This city has vastly increased since then, both in population and the number of buildings erected. The valuation is not as high now as it was then, in proportion to the wealth of the city. Nor is it, on an average, (we speak particularly of real estate,) by any means equal to the prices at which the property is held by the owners, or at which it could now be sold.

BRITISH COLONIAL EXPENDITURES.

Recent parliamentary documents acquaint us with the heavy expense to which the British government is still exposed for the care and control of her colonies. In the

year 1843 this expense had increased to £540,842 for civil government, £74,005 for naval expenditures, and £2,556,919 for military expenditures—making a total of £3,171,646.

In 1847 their expenditures had increased to £3,804,038, but had declined to £2,914,354 in 1850-1.

The prominent item of expenditure in 1843 was the military government of Gibraltar. This amounted to the enormous sum of £219,465. The military expenditures of Canada were £525,226, and for the North Eastern Provinces £173,030.

The following table will be useful for future references, as showing the total colonial expenditures for the years 1847 to 1850-1:—

	1847-48.	1848-49.	1849-50.	1850-51.
Gibraltar	£203,118	£217,841	£210,740	£191,946
Malta	173,247	188,546	169,388	151,069
Cape of Good Hope	769,601	478,757	291,459	375,745
Mauritius	129,516	144,598	116,307	108,306
Bermuda	115,870	130,287	123,075	117,988
Falkland Islands	5,704	7,056	60,895	48,834
Ascension	8,565	2,270	1,486	1,990
Heligoland	822	1,134	948	975
Ionian Islands	119,929	145,918	133,042	130,346
St. Helena	69,862	73,400	3,402	6,781
Hongkong	185,185	197,842	132,290	107,485
Jamaica	147,339	153,589	155,931	153,446
Bahamas	37,433	26,729	22,958	23,376
Honduras	12,755	19,575	16,006	15,089
Barbadoes				
Grenada				
St. Vincent				
Tobago				
Antigua				
Montserrat				
St. Christophers				
Nevis	327,955	372,342	339,788	348,339
Anguilla				
Virgin Islands				
Dominica				
St. Lucia				
Trinidad				
British Guiana				
Canada	489,317	435,763	360,264	322,293
Nova Scotia	168,749	161,961	144,716	132,579
New Brunswick	6,751	15,280	11,981	12,615
P. Edward's Island	4,357	4,508	3,689	3,243
Newfoundland	43,967	33,348	31,069	30,011
Sierra Leone				
Gambia	71,922	76,678	62,610	78,046
Cape Coast				
Ceylon	93,575	90,382	91,616	99,168
W. Australia	13,764	15,681	3,905	3,232
S. Australia	5,878	4,821	—	100
N. Australia	5,420	—	150,241	94,796
New Zealand	188,600	195,819	—	—
Labuan	603	9,865	8,221	9,620
New South Wales	—	—	56,184	48,796
Van Diemen's Land	319,230	277,778	224,444	191,359
W. Australia	—	—	18,920	33,516
General Charge	46,869	28,941	34,254	66,715
	£3,804,038	£3,480,345	£2,979,826	£2,914,354

The number of British colonies is forty-four; of these, eleven—including Gibraltar, Malta, Cape of Good Hope, Hong Kong, and places of that character—are military and maritime stations, maintained to facilitate Commerce, or for the general strength and security of the British empire.

The London *Times* remarks: "It is to be regretted that there are no materials for bringing the table down to a later period, the figures which it includes being the latest the government are able to furnish—a circumstance that impairs its practical value. Extensive as are the colonial possessions of England, there seems no reason for requiring two years for making up such an account as the present, under a uniform system, and if the expenditure, instead of being a public affair, were that of a mercantile body or a private company, a shorter interval would probably be found sufficient."

SAVINGS BANKS IN NEW YORK CITY AND KING'S COUNTY.

The following act regulating the operations of Savings' Banks in New York City and King's County, passed the Legislature of New York, April 15th, 1853, and is now in force:—

AN ACT RELATIVE TO BANKS OR INSTITUTIONS FOR SAVINGS IN THE CITY AND COUNTY OF NEW YORK AND THE COUNTY OF KINGS.

SECTION 1. It shall be lawful for the several savings banks or institutions for savings in the city and county of New York and county of Kings, now chartered, or which may be hereafter chartered, in addition to the powers granted by their respective acts of incorporation, to loan the moneys which they have received or shall hereafter receive on deposit; or the accumulations thereof, or on purchase of any stock or securities for the redemption or payment of which the faith of any State in the Union shall be pledged, or in the public debt or stock of any incorporated city, county, or town in this State which shall have been authorized by the Legislature of this State to issue such stocks; provided, that the cash value of such stock or securities shall, at the time of making such investments, be at or above its par value; and any such loans so made, shall not exceed in amount ninety per cent of the par value of such stock or securities. Should the stock or securities above mentioned depreciate in value, so that the amount loaned thereon shall exceed ninety per cent of its par value, it shall be the duty of the directors or trustees of any savings bank or institution for savings, to require the immediate payment of any loan made by them thereon, or additional security therefor, so that at all times the amount so loaned shall be at least ten per cent less than the par value of such stock or securities.

SEC. 2. It shall be lawful for any such savings banks or institutions for savings to make temporary deposits in any bank or banking association to an amount equal to ten per cent of the actual cash capital stock paid in of such bank or banking association, and to receive interest thereon at such rates, not exceeding that allowed by law, as may be agreed upon, provided that all the deposits in any one bank or banking association shall not exceed in amount twenty per cent of all the deposits belonging to such savings bank or institution for savings, and that no contract or agreement in relation to such deposit shall be for a longer period than one year.

SEC. 3. It shall not be lawful for any of such savings banks or institutions for savings to make any loans to any banks or banking association, exceeding the limits above prescribed, unless such savings bank or institution for savings shall require and receive of such bank, for all sums so deposited exceeding the limits above prescribed, such securities therefor, and equal in amount, as the controller or superintendent of the banking department is now lawfully authorized to receive in exchange for bills or notes for circulation; nor shall it be lawful for any trustee of a savings bank or institution for savings to be a trustee of more than one savings bank or institution for savings at the same time, nor shall the trustees of any savings bank or institution for savings hereafter to be incorporated be directors at the same time in any bank or banking association wherein any part of the moneys of such savings bank or institution for savings shall be deposited.

SEC. 4. All the assets of any bank, or banking association now or hereafter to be created, that shall become insolvent, shall after providing for the payment of its circulating notes, be applied by the directors thereof, in the first place, to the payment of any deficiency that may arise on the sale of the securities aforesaid and thereafter of any sum or sums of money deposited with such bank or banking association by any savings bank or institutions for savings within the range of twenty per cent as provided in the second section of this act.

SEC. 5. No such savings bank or institutions for savings hereafter to be incorporated shall receive from any individual depositor a larger sum than one thousand dol

lars, nor a larger amount than three millions of dollars in the aggregate amount of deposits, exclusive of its banking house; and the rate of interest on all deposits of five hundred dollars, and under, shall be one per cent per annum greater than shall be allowed on any sum exceeding five hundred dollars.

SEC. 6. The provisions of this act shall apply to all savings banks or institutions for savings in said counties, which savings banks or institutions for savings are hereby prohibited from loaning the moneys deposited with them or any part thereof, upon notes, bills of exchange, drafts, or any other personal securities whatever.

SEC. 7. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act, are hereby repealed.

SEC. 8. This act shall take effect immediately.

PAPER CURRENCY IN GERMANY.

An official statement has recently been compiled showing the amount of the paper currency of Germany. From this document it appears that Prussia has issued treasury notes or bonds to the amount of 20,842,374 thalers, being at the rate of 1 29-100 per head of the population of the State. Saxony has issued treasury notes to the extent of 7,000,000 thalers, and notes on account of railways for the sum of 500,000 thalers additional, together being at the rate of 4 07-10 thalers per head of the population. Hanover has issued notes representing the loan contracted by the city of Hanover for the sum of 200,000 thalers, being at the rate of 0 11-100 thaler per head of the population. The Grand Duchy of Baden has a paper currency to the extent of 2,000,000 florins, being equal to 1 4-100 florins per head. The Duchy of Schleswig-Holstein has issued treasury-bonds for 1,500,000 thalers, being at the rate of 1 8-10 thalers per head. The Grand Duchy of Hesse 2,000,000 florins, being at the rate of 1 34-100 florins. Hesse, electoral, treasury bonds for 2,500,000 thalers, being at the rate of 3 34-100 thalers per head of the population. The Grand Duchy of Saxe Weimar, treasury bonds for 600,000 thalers, being at the rate of 2 33-100 thalers per head. The Duchy of Saxe Meiningen, notes on the treasury for 500,000 thalers, being 3 73-100 thalers per head of the population. The Duchy of Saxe Altenbourg, notes on the treasury for 500,000 thalers, being at the rate of 3 88-100 thalers. The Duchy of Saxe Cobourg Gotha treasury notes for 600,000 thalers, being at the rate of 4 70-100 thalers per head. The Principality of Schwarzbouurg Rudolstadt, treasury notes for 200,000 thalers, being at the rate of 2 92-100 thalers per head. The Principality of Reuss, treasury notes for 300,000 thalers, being 3 89-100 thalers per head of the population. The Duchy of Anhalt Dessau treasury notes for 1,000,000 thalers, being at the rate of 15 87-100 thalers per head of the population. The Duchy of Anhalt Cothen, treasury notes for 500,000 thalers, or at the rate of 11 82-100 thalers per head. The Duchy of Anhalt Bernbourg treasury notes for 300,000 thalers, and notes on account of railways for 200,000 thalers, being together at the rate of 10 25-100 thalers. The city of Frankfort notes of the finance department for 400,000 florins, being at the rate of 3 9-100 florins. The government of Wurtemberg has also authorized the State to issue 3,000,000 florins of paper money. The total amount of paper currency of the several States named is, therefore, equal to 43,913,775 thalers. This amount does not, however, include the treasury notes of Austria, which in the month of May last, amounted to the sum of 168,019,355 florins.

In addition to the above, the bank and loan notes of the following States must be added:—Prussia—notes of the Bank of Prussia, 21,000,000 thalers; notes of the Bank of Pomerania for 1,000,000 thalers; notes of the Bank of the Town of Breslau for 1,000,000 thalers; notes of the Loan Association of Berila for 100,000, and loan notes for 10,000,000. Bavaria—notes of the Bank (hypothecated) for 8,000,000 thalers. Saxony—notes of the Bank of Leipzig for between 4,000,000 and 5,000,000 thalers; notes of credit of the State Bank of Chemnitz for 300,000 thalers, and notes of the Bank (hypothecated) for 500,000 thalers. Duchy of Nassau—notes of the Bank of the Duchy for 1,000,000 florins. Duchy of Brunswick—notes of Lombard for 600,000 thalers, and loan notes for 400,000 thalers. Duchy of Anhalt Dessau—notes of the Bank of the Duchy for 2,500,000 thalers. Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg—notes of the Bank of Bostock for 4,000,000 marks. The other States of Germany, with the exception of Austria, have no issue of either bank notes or loan notes. On the 1st of July last, the amount of notes of the Bank of Vienna was 199,627,827 florins, and the amount of notes in reserve was to the extent of 42,277,677 florins.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING A CONDENSED VIEW OF THE TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 30TH JUNE, 1852.

	Registered tonnage. Tons & 95ths.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage. Tons & 95ths.	Total. Tons & 95ths.
Passamaquoddy, Me.	13,954 74	17,467 49	31,422 28
Machias	3,507 54	22,644 68	26,152 27
Frenchman's Bay	1,669 38	36,750 09	38,419 47
Penobscot	6,701 09	37,167 51	43,868 60
Belfast	15,315 49	36,729 22	52,044 71
Bangor	12,570 22	19,660 28	32,230 50
Waldoborough	46,481 13	66,226 06	112,707 19
Wiscasset	6,303 66	14,416 74	20,720 45
Bath	84,695 88	26,545 49	111,241 42
Portland	77,575 40	28,403 49	105,978 89
Saco	379 76	1,657 29	2,037 10
Kennebunk	10,862 84	3,616 59	14,479 48
York	1,503 39	1,503 39
Portsmouth, N. H.	16,654 11	8,237 16	24,891 27
Burlington, Vt.	5,656 66	5,656 66
Newburyport, Mass.	20,308 45	9,121 89	29,430 39
Ipswich	521 10	521 10
Gloucester	2,139 11	23,941 07	26,081 18
Salem	20,613 73	9,851 59	30,465 37
Beverly	4,152 07	4,152 07
Marblehead	1,191 91	6,114 42	7,306 38
Boston	326,539 73	54,548 52	381,088 30
Plymouth	3,368 43	9,365 35	12,733 78
Fall River	3,808 64	11,375 48	15,184 17
New Bedford	139,062 49	10,145 32	149,207 81
Barnstable	8,828 58	67,568 50	76,397 13
Edgartown	5,796 49	2,174 35	7,970 84
Nantucket	23,779 67	3,451 48	27,231 20
Providence, R. I.	9,095 16	7,326 82	16,422 03
Bristol	11,464 26	2,162 44	13,626 70
Newport	6,301 12	4,699 28	11,000 30
Middletown, Conn.	14,431 81	14,431 81
New London	23,281 03	18,829 24	42,110 27
Stonington	15,106 46	8,055 56	23,162 07
New Haven	6,692 86	13,425 22	20,118 13
Fairfield	757 54	24,508 39	25,265 93
Champlain, N. Y.	6,258 61	6,258 61
Sackett's Harbor	7,082 66	7,082 66
Oswego	26,107 79	26,107 79
Niagara	623 55	623 55
Genesee	686 01	686 01
Oswegatchie	1,985 34	1,985 34
Buffalo Creek	49,614 37	49,614 37
Sag Harbor	9,292 31	3,749 44	13,041 75
Greenport	3,588 58	5,865 62	9,454 25
New York	571,955 90	444,643 22	1,016,599 17
Cape Vincent	2,171 68	2,171 68
Cold Spring	1,038 85	171 94	1,205 84
Perth Amboy, N. J.	21,651 36	21,651 36
Bridgetown	14,930 39	14,930 39

	Registered tonnage. Tons & 95ths.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage. Tons & 95ths.	Total. Tons & 95ths.
Burlington.....		12,066 52	12,066 52
Camden.....		17,448 74	17,448 74
Newark.....	257 94	5,043 90	5,301 89
Little Egg Harbor.....		7,561 69	7,561 69
Great Egg Harbor.....	159 00	17,014 25	17,173 25
Philadelphia, Pa.....	67,739 74	161,704 19	229,443 93
Presque Isle.....		8,122 71	8,122 71
Pittsburg.....		64,156 24	64,156 24
Wilmington, Del.....		7,010 40	7,010 40
New Castle.....		2,587 45	2,587 45
Baltimore, Md.....	95,027 90	64,379 86	159,404 81
Oxford.....		12,984 36	12,984 36
Vienna.....	1,318 24	15,484 48	16,802 72
Snow Hill.....		9,680 10	9,680 10
St. Mary's.....		2,591 31	2,591 31
Town Creek.....		2,124 73	2,124 73
Annapolis.....		2,655 46	2,655 46
Georgetown, D. C.....	2,955 07	23,241 88	26,197 00
Alexandria, Va.....	3,219 01	8,323 40	11,542 41
Norfolk.....	7,716 43	14,447 78	22,164 26
Petersburg.....	448 11	2,109 54	2,557 65
Richmond.....	3,077 88	6,099 94	9,177 87
Yorktown.....		5,981 87	5,981 87
Tappahannock.....	181 91	5,439 47	5,621 43
Accomac Court House.....		4,943 70	4,943 70
East River.....		1,815 88	1,815 88
Yeomicono.....		3,533 61	3,533 61
Cherrystone.....		920 94	920 94
Wheeling.....		4,280 58	4,280 58
Wilmington, N. C.....	8,385 93	7,093 41	15,479 39
Newbern.....	1,179 25	4,055 53	5,234 78
Washington.....	1,945 42	5,554 76	7,500 23
Edenton.....		1,639 81	1,639 81
Camden.....	1,369 33	11,157 86	12,527 24
Beaufort.....	775 68	1,851 03	2,626 71
Plymouth.....	2,726 68	1,346 38	4,073 11
Ocracoke.....		1,540 01	1,540 01
Charleston, S. C.....	22,526 32	19,616 30	42,142 62
Georgetown.....	1,896 29	2,696 10	4,592 39
Savannah.....	13,052 51	10,909 31	23,961 82
Brunswick.....	306 27	853 39	1,159 66
St. Mary's.....	160 84	502 88	663 77
Pensacola, Fla.....		1,465 44	1,465 44
St. Mark's.....		118 35	118 35
St. John's.....		417 80	417 80
Apalachicola.....		1,429 37	1,429 37
Key West.....	4,080 56	2,157 40	6,238 01
Mobile, Ala.....	7,412 38	21,120 58	28,533 01
Pearl River, Miss.....		1,236 21	1,236 21
Vicksburg.....		215 83	215 83
New Orleans.....	81,500 77	184,512 29	266,013 02
Teche.....		2,157 68	2,157 68
Nashville, Tenn.....		4,082 90	4,082 90
Louisville, Ky.....		11,818 80	11,818 80
St. Louis, Mo.....		37,861 87	37,861 87
Chicago, Ill.....		25,209 30	25,209 30
Milwaukie, Wis.....		6,931 44	6,931 44
Cuyahoga, Ohio.....		38,238 15	38,238 15
Sandusky.....		5,887 07	5,887 07
Cincinnati.....		11,781 30	11,781 30
Miami.....		4,431 62	4,431 62

	Registered tonnage. Tons & 95ths.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage. Tons & 95ths.	Total. Tons & 95ths.
Detroit, Mich.	43,925 21	43,925 21
Michilimackinac	2,366 57	2,366 57
Galveston, Texas	1,488 81	4,003 87	5,492 73
Saluria	561 45	561 45
Point Isabel	1,065 62	1,065 62
Astoria, Oregon	1,063 43	1,063 43
San Francisco, Cal.	55,534 10	42,165 34	97,699 44
Sonoma	639 58	702 76	1,342 39
Memphis, Tenn.	550 77	550 77
Sacramento, Cal.	629 58	1,982 24	2,611 82
Total	1,899,448 20	2,238,992 27	4,138,440 47

NAVIGATION OF UNITED STATES WITH ALL NATIONS.

STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, EXHIBITING THE TONNAGE OF AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS ARRIVING FROM AND DEPARTING TO EACH FOREIGN COUNTRY, DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1852.

	American tonnage.		Foreign tonnage.	
	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.
Russia	12,009	10,006	1,477	3,045
Prussia	383	295	1,558
Sweden and Norway	3,511	3,640	16,854	6,547
Swedish West Indies	721	2,287	120	125
Denmark	335	874	748	3,916
Danish West Indies	14,292	20,408	9,062	6,581
Hanse Towns	27,058	27,521	140,478	87,500
Oldenburg	378
Holland	14,927	18,759	15,556	22,923
Dutch East Indies	7,551	3,689	1,100	14,022
Dutch West Indies	15,119	4,977	10,693	715
Dutch Guiana	6,698	6,262	2,084	944
Belgium	15,982	34,705	15,533	5,940
England	749,818	672,488	413,103	396,017
Scotland	21,695	19,856	71,650	22,288
Ireland	5,458	4,116	69,411	9,460
Gibraltar	642	7,578	1,557	1,802
Malta	916	2,442	418	453
Hanover	447
Mauritius	786
British East Indies	42,910	52,763	2,964	7,730
Cape of Good Hope	1,863	4,343	773	612
British Honduras	4,775	5,020	2,576	2,440
British Guiana	3,304	12,123	1,304	3,712
British West Indies	70,085	99,470	40,125	38,097
British American Colonies	63,887	122,809	337,050	544,518
Canada	774,878	765,045	591,569	589,345
Australia	4,367	9,318	6,791	17,016
Falkland Islands	208
France on the Atlantic	184,041	187,965	35,370	11,085
France on the Mediterranean	9,201	26,798	11,398	6,517
French West Indies	8,036	16,955	3,043	2,119
French Guiana	1,526	1,783
Miquelon and French Fisheries	165	497	1,587
Bourbon	588
French Possessions in Africa	93
Spain on the Atlantic	12,445	10,968	7,661	8,406
Spain on the Mediterranean	12,113	6,174	13,506	37,631
Teneriffe and other Canaries	837	793	548	1,133
Manilla and Philippine Islands	12,513	11,039	687	6,362

	American tonnage.		Foreign tonnage.	
	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.
Cuba	441,418	370,306	48,537	22,780
Other Spanish West Indies	58,885	35,010	12,061	5,544
Portugal	1,918	6,307	4,705	6,333
Madeira	1,021	4,171	166	596
Fayal and other Azores	2,816	1,447	1,079	686
Cape de Verd Islands	588	1,623	237	1,152
Sicily	22,990	6,609	12,780	3,427
Sardinia	821	13,443	6,136	6,669
Tuscany	11,098	1,302	4,159	235
Ionian Islands	416	208
Greece	502
Trieste and other Austrian ports	1,502	14,024	1,658	13,400
Turkey	6,857	3,909	654	322
Hayti	36,871	32,365	6,821	7,320
Mexico	27,046	29,719	12,780	17,974
Central America	51,139	54,586	1,357	5,888
New Grenada	191,401	183,375	4,633	5,158
Venezuela	16,361	11,244	3,311	3,109
Bolivia	646
Brazil	83,428	59,454	23,156	5,718
Cisplatine Republic	790	2,906	1,718	3,537
Argentine Republic	13,453	13,711	4,872	4,381
Chili	23,165	21,386	25,386	23,402
Peru	29,014	5,179	18,075	11,331
China	52,076	67,264	26,009	21,507
Liberia	531
Patagonia	514	245	1,958	630
South America generally	742
Africa generally	11,331	13,121	1,318	647
South Seas	5,237	5,281	1,219	326
Equador	585	760
Greenland	677	2,465
Atlantic Ocean	3,807	7,569
Pacific Ocean	20,178	60,680	101	3,773
Indian Ocean	1,194	5,583	306
Sandwich Islands	12,814	18,624	5,047	6,673
Northwest Coast	1,152	45
Uncertain places	237	1,009
Total	3,235,522	3,230,590	2,057,358	2,047,573

NATIONAL CHARACTER OF VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED UNITES STATES YEAR ENDING
JUNE 30, 1852.

	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
Russian	22	7,544	20	6,997
Prussian	49	17,319	44	14,577
Swedish	138	42,401	124	41,994
Danish	48	10,069	44	9,618
Hanseatic	327	132,714	308	127,329
Dutch	59	18,868	70	20,341
Belgian	32	12,467	33	11,723
Mecklenburg	6	1,791	4	1,387
Oldenburg	19	4,878	12	3,319
Hanoverian	20	4,417	14	3,124
British	9,381	1,680,712	9,231	1,673,400
French	89	25,992	90	27,695
Spanish	144	33,151	152	40,710
Portuguese	20	4,095	19	3,915
Austrian	21	7,644	21	7,698
Sardinian	50	14,058	50	13,505
Sicilian	36	8,687	36	8,687

	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
Mexican.	61	6,676	66	7,037
Venezuelan	4	922	4	1,056
Brazilian	7	2,185	9	2,538
Argentine.....	2	470	4	966
Cisplatine.....	2	539	2	397
Chilian	21	6,095	25	7,382
Hawaiian	29	3,574	23	2,903
Peruvian.....	10	2,723	14	3,852
Tahitian	1	101	1	146
Central American	2	730	2	730
Lubec	3	865	1	293
Tuscan.....	3	480	2	318
Grecian	1	416
Chinese	1	381
Pontifical.....	1	191	1	191
Total.....	10,607	2,057,358	10,438	2,047,575

RECAPITULATION OF THE TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 30TH JUNE, 1852.

DESCRIPTION OF TONNAGE.

The aggregate amount of the tonnage of the United States on the 30th June, 1852	4,138,440	47
Whereof—		
Permanent registered tonnage	1,472,265	43
Temporary registered tonnage.....	427,182	72
Total registered tonnage.....	1,899,448	20
Permanent enrolled and licensed tonnage	2,170,071	11
Temporary enrolled and licensed tonnage	13,155	92
Total enrolled and licensed tonnage	2,183,227	08
Licensed vessels under twenty tons employed in the coasting trade.....	47,851	41
Licensed vessels under twenty tons employed in the cod fishery	7,913	73
Total licensed tonnage under twenty tons	55,765	19
Total	4,138,440	47
Of the enrolled and licensed tonnage, there were employed in the		
Coasting trade	2,008,021	48
Cod fishery.....	102,659	37
Mackerel fishery	72,546	18
Whale fishery.....
Total	2,183,227	08
Of the registered tonnage, amounting, as stated above, to 1,899,448 20 tons, there were employed in steam navigation	79,704	39
Of the enrolled and licensed tonnage, amounting, as stated above, to 2,183,227 08 tons, there were employed in steam navigation	563,536	30
Total tonnage in steam navigation.....	643,240	69

REGISTERED TONNAGE.		Tons & 95ths.
The registered vessels employed in the foreign trade on the 30th June, 1852		1,899,448 20
ENROLLED AND LICENSED TONNAGE.		Tons & 95ths.
The enrolled vessels employed in the coasting trade on the 30th June, 1852	2,008,021 48	
The licensed vessels under twenty tons employed in the coasting trade on the 30th June, 1852	47,851 41	
		<u>2,055,872 89</u>
FISHING VESSELS.		
The enrolled vessels employed in the cod fishery on the 30th June, 1852	102,659 37	
The enrolled vessels employed in the mackerel fishery on the 30th June, 1852	72,546 18	
The enrolled vessels employed in the whale fishery on the 30th June, 1852	
The licensed vessels under twenty tons employed in the cod fishery on the 30th June, 1852	7,913 73	
		<u>183,119 33</u>
Total		<u>4,138,440 47</u>
The registered vessels employed in the whale fishery on the 30th June 1852		193,797 77
The registered vessels employed other than in the whale fishery on the 30th June, 1852		1,705,650 38
		<u>1,899,448 20</u>

BRITISH TRAFFIC WITH FRANCE,

A British parliamentary paper which has just been published contains an account, in return to a motion made by Mr. James M'Gregor, of the number of passengers passing between that country and France from the year 1842 to 1852. The return shows the following figures:—

From the port of London to the various French ports the number of passengers amounted, in 1842, to 18,446, and in 1852 to 26,404. The number of passengers arriving in the port of London from the various French ports amounted, in 1842, to 18,006, and in 1852 to 19,178. From the port of Dover the numbers are, in 1842, passengers out and home, 10,926, and 11,827; while in 1852 there were 24,035 passengers going out from and 22,627 coming in at that port. Folkestone is not mentioned in the list for 1842, since the traffic commenced only on the 1st of August, 1843; but the return of the number of passengers, even for the first half-year, shows the great necessity of the line from that port to Boulogne. From the 1st of August to the last day of December, 1843, the number of passengers out was 8,392, while 8,636 persons arrived at Folkestone from Boulogne, the only one of the French places on the coast with which that port corresponds. In 1852 the number of out passengers from Folkestone was 30,663, and of in passengers 30,895. The traffic between Brighton and Dieppe and Shoreham and Havre has, however, gradually dwindled away. In the year 1842 the Brighton and Dieppe line of steamers showed the following figures:— Passengers out, 1,728; passengers home, 1,541; and between Shoreham and Havre the numbers were, passengers out, 513; passengers home, 741. In 1846 no passengers whatever traveled on the Shoreham-Havre route; in 1847 there were 897 out, and 1,225 home passengers; but since 1848 the traffic on this route has ceased altogether. Between Brighton and Dieppe the traffic has been continued up to 1850, in which year there were made 52 voyages between the two ports, with 1,020 passengers out, and 984 passengers home. Since that year the traffic has ceased altogether. The returns from the port of Southampton are defective. In 1842, 7,369 persons arrived

in that port from Havre, but the number of those who went out to Havre cannot be ascertained. In 1847, the first year in which the returns are complete, the numbers were, out, 4,510; home, 4,457. In 1852, the number of persons who went to France via Southampton amounted to 5,586, while the number of persons returning was 5,809. Newhaven, which did not communicate with Dieppe in 1842, had 3,221 passengers out, and 5,756 home in the course of the year 1852. Appended to the return of the passenger traffic is a return of the annual value of the exports and imports to and from France in the last nine years. The totals are: Exports to France in 1842, £6,190,714, and £4,496,198 in 1852. Imports from France in 1842, £4,160,503, and £8,683,112 in 1852.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TREATY OF NAVIGATION, COMMERCE, ETC. BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND SAN SALVADOR.

The following is an official copy of a general treaty of amity, navigation, and Commerce, between the United States of North America and the Republic of San Salvador, which was concluded and signed at the city of Leon, on the second day of January, 1850. The said treaty has been duly ratified on both parts; the respective ratifications of the same exchanged, and Franklin Pierce, President of the United States, has caused the said treaty to be made public, to the end that the same may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof. This treaty was completed at the city of Washington, on the 18th day of April, 1853; and is in the following words, to wit:—

A GENERAL TREATY OF AMITY, NAVIGATION, AND COMMERCE, BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA AND THE REPUBLIC OF SAN SALVADOR.

The United States of North America and the Republic of San Salvador, desiring to make lasting and firm the friendship and good understanding which happily exists between both nations, have resolved to fix, in a manner clear, distinct, and positive, the rules which shall in future be religiously observed between each other, by means of a treaty of general convention of peace and friendship, commerce and navigation.

For this desirable object, the President of the United States of America has conferred full powers upon E. G. Squier, a citizen of the said States and their charge d'affaires to Guatemala; and the President of the Republic of San Salvador has conferred similar and equal powers upon Senor Licenciado Don Augustin Morales; who, after having exchanged their said full powers in due form, have agreed to the following articles:—

ARTICLE 1. There shall be a perfect, firm, and inviolable peace and sincere friendship between the United States of America and the Republic of San Salvador, in all the extent of their possessions and territories, and between their citizens respectively, without distinction of persons or places.

ART. 2. The United States of America and the Republic of San Salvador, desiring to live in peace and harmony with all the nations of the earth, by means of a policy frank and equally friendly with all, engage mutually not to grant any particular favor to other nations in respect of Commerce and navigation which shall not immediately become common to the other party, who shall enjoy it freely if the concession was freely made, or on allowing the same compensation if the concession was conditional.

ART. 3. The two high contracting parties, being likewise desirous of placing the Commerce and navigation of their respective countries on the liberal basis of perfect equality and reciprocity, mutually agree that the citizens of each may frequent all the coasts and countries of the other, and reside therein, and shall have the power to purchase and hold lands, and all kinds of real estate, and to engage in all kinds of trade, manufactures, and mining, upon the same terms with the native citizen, and shall enjoy all the privileges and concessions in these matters which are or may be made to the citizens of any country, and shall enjoy all the rights, privileges, and exemptions, in navigation, Commerce, and manufactures, which native citizens do or shall enjoy,

submitting themselves to the laws, decrees, or usages, there established, to which native citizens are subjected. But it is understood that this article does not include the coasting trade of either country, the regulation of which is reserved by the parties, respectively, according to their own separate laws.

ART. 4. They likewise agree, that whatever kind of produce, manufacture, or merchandise, of any foreign country can be from time to time lawfully imported into the United States in their own vessels, may be also imported in vessels of the Republic of San Salvador; and that no higher or other duties upon the tonnage of the vessel and her cargo shall be levied and collected, whether the importation be made in vessels of the one country or of the other; and, in like manner, that whatever kind of produce, manufactures, or merchandise, of any foreign country can be from time to time lawfully imported into the Republic of San Salvador in its own vessels, may be also imported in vessels of the United States; and that no higher or other duties upon the tonnage of the vessel and her cargo shall be levied or collected, whether the importation be made in vessels of the one country or the other.

And they further agree, that whatever may be lawfully exported or re-exported from one country in its own vessels to any foreign country, may in like manner be exported or re-exported in the vessels of the other country; and the same bounties, duties, and drawbacks, shall be allowed and collected, whether such exportation or re-exportation be made in vessels of the United States or of the Republic of San Salvador.

ART. 5. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States of any articles the produce or manufactures of the republic of San Salvador; and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the republic of San Salvador of any articles the produce or manufactures of the United States, than are or shall be payable on the like articles being the produce or manufactures of any foreign country; nor shall any higher or other duties or charges be imposed in either of the two countries on the exportation of any articles to the United States or to the republic of San Salvador, respectively, than such as are payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed on the exportation or importation of any articles the produce or manufactures of the United States or of the republic of San Salvador, to or from the territories of the United States, or to or from the territories of the republic of San Salvador, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

ART. 6. In order to prevent the possibility of any misunderstanding, it is hereby declared that the stipulations contained in the three preceding articles are, to their full extent, applicable to the vessels of the United States and their cargoes arriving in the ports of San Salvador, and reciprocally to the vessels of the said republic of San Salvador and their cargoes arriving in the ports of the United States, whether they proceed from the ports of the country to which they respectively belong or from the ports of any other foreign country; and, in either case, no discriminating duty shall be imposed or collected in the ports of either country on said vessels or their cargoes, whether the same shall be of native or foreign produce or manufacture.

ART. 7. It is likewise agreed, that it shall be wholly free for all merchants, commanders of ships, and other citizens of both countries, to manage, by themselves or agents, their own business in all the ports and places subject to the jurisdiction of each other, as well with respect to the consignments and sale of their goods and merchandise, by wholesale or retail, as with respect to the loading, unloading, and sending off their ships—they being in all these cases to be treated as citizens of the country in which they reside, or at least to be placed on an equality with the subjects or citizens of the most favored nation.

ART. 8. The citizens of neither of the contracting parties shall be liable to any embargo, nor be detained with their vessels, cargoes, merchandise, or effects, for any military expedition, nor for any public or private purpose whatever, without allowing to those interested an equitable and sufficient indemnification.

ART. 9. Whenever the citizens of either of the contracting parties shall be forced to seek refuge or an asylum in the rivers, bays, ports or dominions of the other, with their vessels, whether merchant or war, public or private, through stress of weather, pursuit of pirates or enemies, or want of provisions or water, they shall be received and treated with humanity, giving to them all favor and protection for repairing their ships, procuring provisions, and placing themselves in a situation to continue their voyage without obstacle or hindrance of any kind.

ART. 10. All the ships, merchandise, and effects belonging to the citizens of one of

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

ART. 11. When any vessels belonging to the citizens of either of the contracting parties shall be wrecked or foundered, or shall suffer any damage on the coasts or within the dominions of the other, there shall be given to them all assistance and protection, in the same manner which is usual and customary with the vessels of the nation where the damage happens; permitting them to unload the said vessel, if necessary, of its merchandise and effects without exacting for it any duty, impost, or contribution whatever, unless they may be destined for consumption or sale in the country of the port where they may have been disembarked.

ART. 12. The citizens of each of the contracting parties shall have power to dispose of their personal goods or real estate within the jurisdiction of the other, by sale, donation, testament, or otherwise; and their representatives, being citizens of the other party, shall succeed to their said personal goods or real estate, whether by testament or *ab intestato*; and they may take possession thereof, either by themselves or others acting for them, and dispose of the same at their will, paying such dues only as the inhabitants of the country wherein said goods are or shall be subject to pay in like case.

ART. 13. Both contracting parties promise and engage formally to give their special protection to the persons and property of the citizens of each other, of all occupations, who may be in the territories subject to the jurisdiction of one or the other, transient or dwelling therein, leaving open and free to them the tribunals of justice for their judicial recourse, on the same terms which are usual and customary with the natives or citizens of the country; for which purpose, they may either appear in proper person, or employ in the prosecution or defense of their rights such advocates, solicitors, notaries, agents, and factors, as they may judge proper, in all their trials at law; and such citizens or agents shall have free opportunity to be present at the decisions or sentences of the tribunals in all cases which may concern them, and shall enjoy in such cases all the rights and privileges accorded to the native citizen.

ART. 14. The citizens of the United States residing in the territories of the republic of San Salvador shall enjoy the most perfect and entire security of conscience, without being annoyed, prevented, or disturbed in the proper exercise of their religion, in private houses, or in the chapels or places of worship appointed for that purpose, provided that in so doing they observe the decorum due to divine worship, and the respect due to the laws, usages, and customs of the country. Liberty shall also be granted to bury the citizens of the United States who may die in the territories of the republic of San Salvador, in convenient and adequate places, to be appointed and established for that purpose, with the knowledge of the local authorities, or in such other places of sepulture as may be chosen by the friends of the deceased; nor shall the funerals or sepulchres of the dead be disturbed in anywise, nor upon any account.

In like manner, the citizens of San Salvador shall enjoy within the government and territories of the United States a perfect and unrestrained liberty of conscience, and of exercising their religion, publicly or privately, within their own dwelling-houses, or on the chapels and places of worship appointed for that purpose, agreeably to the laws, usages, and customs of the United States.

ART. 15. It shall be lawful for the citizens of the United States of America and of the republic of San Salvador to sail with their ships, with all manner of liberty and security, no distinction being made who are the proprietors of the merchandise laden thereon, from any port to the places of those who now are or shall be at enmity with either of the contracting parties. It shall likewise be lawful for the citizens aforesaid to sail with the ships and merchandise before mentioned, and to trade with the same liberty and security, from the places, ports, and havens of those who are the enemies of both or either party, without any opposition or disturbance whatsoever, not only from the places of the enemy before mentioned to neutral places, but also from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the jurisdiction of one power or under several. And it is hereby stipulated that free ships shall also give freedom to goods, and that everything which shall be found on board the ships belonging to the citizens of either of the contracting parties

shall be deemed to be free and exempt, although the whole lading, or any part thereof, should appertain to the enemies of either, (contraband goods being always excepted.)

It is also agreed, in like manner, that the same liberty shall be extended to persons who are on board a free ship, with this effect: that, although they may be enemies to both or either party, they are not to be taken out of that free ship, unless they are officers and soldiers, and in the actual service of the enemies; provided, however, and it is hereby agreed, that the stipulations in this article contained, declaring that the flag shall cover the property, shall be understood as applying to those powers only who recognize this principle; but if either of the two contracting parties shall be at war with a third, and the other remains neutral, the flag of the neutral shall cover the property of enemies whose governments acknowledge this principle, and not of others.

ART. 16. It is likewise agreed, that in the case where the neutral flag of one of the contracting parties shall protect the property of one of the enemies of the other by virtue of the above stipulation, it shall always be understood that the neutral property found on board such enemy's vessels shall be held and considered as enemy's property, and as such shall be liable to detention and confiscation, except such property as was put on board such vessel before the declaration of war, or even afterwards, if it were done without the knowledge of it; but the contracting parties agree that, two months having elapsed after the declaration of war, their citizens shall not plead ignorance thereof. On the contrary, if the flag of the neutral does not protect the enemy's property, in that case the goods and merchandise of the neutral embarked on such enemy's ships, shall be free.

ART. 17. This liberty of navigation and Commerce shall extend to all kinds of merchandise, excepting those only which are distinguished by the name of contraband; and under this name of contraband or prohibited goods shall be comprehended—

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

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

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

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

5th. Provisions that are imported into a besieged or blockaded place.

ART. 18. All other merchandise and things not comprehended in the articles of contraband explicitly enumerated and classified as above, shall be held and considered as free, and subjects of free and lawful Commerce, so that they may be carried and transported in the freest manner by the citizens of both the contracting parties, even to places belonging to an enemy, excepting those places only which are at that time besieged or blockaded; and to avoid all doubts in this particular, it is declared that those places only are besieged or blockaded which are actually attacked by a belligerent force capable of preventing the entry of the neutral.

ART. 19. The articles of contraband before enumerated and classified, which may be found in a vessel bound for an enemy's port, shall be subject to detention and confiscation, leaving free the rest of the cargo and the ship, that the owners may dispose of them as they see proper. No vessel of either of the two nations shall be detained on the high seas on account of having on board articles of contraband, whenever the master, captain, or supercargo of said vessels will deliver up the articles of contraband to the captor, unless the quantity of such articles be so great and of so large a bulk they cannot be received on board the capturing ship without great inconvenience; but in this and all other cases of just detention, the vessel detained shall be sent to the nearest convenient and safe port for trial and judgment according to law.

ART. 20. And whereas it frequently happens that vessels sail for a port or place belonging to an enemy without knowing that the same is besieged, or blockaded, or invested, it is agreed that every vessel so circumstanced may be turned away from such port or place, but shall not be detained; nor shall any part of her cargo, if not contraband, be confiscated, unless, after warning of such blockade or investment from the commanding officer of the blockading forces, she shall again attempt to enter;

but she shall be permitted to go to any other port or place she shall think proper. Nor shall any vessel that may have entered into such port before the same was actually besieged, blockaded, or invested by the other, be restrained from quitting that place with her cargo; nor, if found therein after the reduction and surrender, shall such vessel or her cargo be liable to confiscation, but they shall be restored to the owners thereof.

ART. 21. In order to prevent all kind of disorder in the visiting and examination of the ships and cargoes of both the contracting parties on the high seas, they have agreed mutually that whenever a national vessel-of-war, public or private, shall meet with a neutral of the other contracting party, the first shall remain out of cannon-shot, unless in stress of weather, and may send its boat, with two or three men only, in order to execute the said examination of the papers concerning the ownership and cargo of the vessel, without causing the least extortion, violence, or ill-treatment, for which the commanders of said armed ships shall be responsible, with their persons and property; for which purpose the commanders of private armed vessels shall, before receiving their commissions, give sufficient security to answer for all the damage they may commit. And it is expressly agreed that the neutral party shall in no case be required to go on board the examining vessel for the purpose of exhibiting her papers, or for any other purpose whatever.

ART. 22. To avoid all kinds of vexation and abuse in the examination of the papers relating to the ownership of the vessels belonging to the citizens of the two contracting parties, they have agreed, and do hereby agree, that in case one of them should be engaged in war, the ships and vessels belonging to the citizens of the other must be furnished with sea-letters or passports expressing the name, property, and bulk of the ship, as also the name and place of habitation of the master and commander of the said vessel, in order that it may thereby appear that the ship really and truly belongs to the citizens of one of the parties. They have likewise agreed, that when such ships have a cargo, they shall also be provided, besides the said sea-letters or passports, with certificates containing the several particulars of the cargo and the place whence the ship sailed, so that it may be known whether any forbidden or contraband goods are on board the same, which certificates shall be made out by the officers of the place whence the ship sailed, in the accustomed form; without which requisites said vessel may be detained to be adjudged by the competent tribunal, and may be declared lawful prize, unless the said defect shall be proved to be owing to accident, and shall be satisfied or supplied by testimony entirely equivalent.

ART. 23. It is further agreed, that the stipulations above expressed, relative to the visiting and examination of vessels, shall apply only to those which sail without convoy; and when said vessels shall be under convoy, the verbal declaration of the commander of the convoy, on his word of honor, that the vessels under his protection belong to the nation whose flag he carries, and, when they may be bound to an enemy's port, that they have no contraband goods on board, shall be sufficient.

ART. 24. It is further agreed, that in all cases the established courts for prize causes in the country to which the prizes may be conducted shall alone take cognizance of them. And whenever such tribunals of either party shall pronounce judgment against any vessel, or goods, or property, claimed by the citizens of the other party, the sentence or decree shall mention the reasons or motives upon which the same shall have been founded; and an authenticated copy of the sentence or decree, and of all the proceedings in the case, shall, if demanded, be delivered to the commander or agent of said vessel, without any delay, he paying the legal fees for the same.

ART. 25. For the purpose of lessening the evils of war, the two high contracting parties further agree that in case a war should unfortunately take place between them, hostilities should only be carried on by persons duly commissioned by the government, and by those under their orders, except in repelling an attack or invasion, and in the defense of property.

ART. 26. Whenever one of the contracting parties shall be engaged in a war with another State, no citizen of the other contracting party shall accept a commission or letter of marque for the purpose of assisting or co-operating hostilely with the said enemy against the said parties so at war, under the pain of being treated as a pirate.

ART. 27. If by any fatality (which cannot be expected, and God forbid) the two contracting parties should be engaged in a war with each other, they have agreed, and do agree, now for then, that there shall be allowed the term of six months to the merchants residing on the coasts and in the ports of each other, and the term of one

year to those who dwell in the interior, to arrange their business and transport their effects wherever they please, giving to them the safe conduct necessary for it, which may serve as a sufficient protection until they arrive at the designated port. The citizens of all other occupations who may be established in the territories or dominions of the United States or of San Salvador shall be respected and maintained in the full enjoyment of their personal liberty and property, unless their particular conduct shall cause them to forfeit this protection, which, in consideration of humanity, the contracting parties engage to give them.

ART. 28. Neither the debts due from individuals of the one nation to the individuals of the other, nor shares nor money which they may have in public funds, nor in public or private banks, shall ever, in any event of war or of national difference, be sequestered or confiscated.

ART. 29. Both the contracting parties, being desirous of avoiding all inequalities in relation to their public communications and official intercourse, have agreed, and do agree, to grant to the envoys, ministers, and other public agents, the same favors, immunities, and exemptions which those of the most favored nations do or shall enjoy; it being understood, that whatever favors, immunities, or privileges the United States of America or the republic of San Salvador may find it proper to give to the ministers and public agents of any other power, shall, by the same act, be extended to those of the contracting parties.

ART. 30. To make more effectual the protection which the United States and the republic of San Salvador shall afford in future to the navigation and Commerce of the citizens of each other, they agree to receive and to admit consuls and vice-consuls in all the ports open to foreign commerce, who shall enjoy in them all the rights, prerogatives, and immunities of the consuls and vice-consuls of the most favored nation; each contracting party, however, remaining at liberty to except those ports and places in which the admission and residence of such consuls may not seem convenient.

ART. 31. In order that the consuls and vice-consuls of the two contracting parties may enjoy the rights, prerogatives, and immunities which belong to them by their public character, they shall, before entering on the exercise of their functions, exhibit their commission or patent in due form to the government to which they are accredited; and, having obtained their exequatur, they shall be held and considered as such by all the authorities, magistrates, and inhabitants in the consular district in which they reside.

ART. 32. It is likewise agreed that the consuls, their secretaries, officers, and persons attached to the service of consuls, they not being citizens of the country in which the consul resides, shall be exempt from all public service, also from all kinds of taxes, imposts, and contributions, except those which they shall be obliged to pay on account of Commerce or their property, to which the citizens and inhabitants, native and foreign, of the country in which they reside are subject, being in everything besides subject to the laws of the several States. The archives and papers of the consulates shall be respected inviolably, and under no pretext whatever shall any magistrate seize or in any way interfere with them.

ART. 33. The said consuls shall have power to require the assistance of the authorities of the country for the arrest, detention, and custody of deserters from the public and private vessels of their country; and for that purpose they shall address themselves to the courts, judges, and officers competent, and shall demand in writing the said deserters, proving by an exhibition of the registers of the vessels, or ship's roll, or other public documents, that those men were part of the said crews; and on this demand, so proved, (saving, however, where the contrary is proved by other testimonies,) the delivery shall not be refused. Such deserters, when arrested, shall be put at the disposal of the said consuls, and may be put in the public prisons, at the request and expense of those who reclaim them, to be sent to the ships to which they belonged, or to others of the same nation; but if they be not sent back within two months, to be counted from the day of arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall be no more arrested for the same cause.

ART. 34. For the purpose of more effectually protecting their Commerce and navigation, the two contracting parties do hereby agree to form, as soon hereafter as circumstances will permit, a consular convention, which shall declare specially the powers and immunities of the consuls and vice-consuls of the respective parties.

ART. 35. The United States of North America and the republic of San Salvador, desiring to make as durable as possible the relations which are to be established by virtue of this treaty, have declared solemnly, and do agree to, the following points:

1. The present treaty shall remain in full force and vigor for the term of twenty years from the day of the exchange of the ratifications; and if neither party notifies the other of its intention of reforming any or all the articles of this treaty twelve months before the expiration of the twenty years stipulated above, the said treaty shall continue binding on both parties beyond the said twenty years until twelve months from the time that one of the parties notifies the other of its intention of proceeding to a reform.

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

3. If, unfortunately, any of the articles contained in this treaty should be violated or infringed in any way whatever, it is expressly stipulated that neither of the two contracting parties shall ordain or authorize any acts of reprisal, nor shall declare war against the other, on complaints of injuries or damages, until the said party considering itself offended shall have laid before the other a statement of such injuries or damages, verified by competent proofs, demanding justice and satisfaction, and the same shall have been denied, in violation of the laws and of international right.

ART. 36. The present treaty of peace, amity, Commerce, and navigation, shall be approved and ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof; and by the President of the Republic of San Salvador, with the consent and approbation of the Congress of the same; and the ratifications shall be exchanged, in the city of Washington or San Salvador, within eight months from the date of the signature thereof, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the plenipotentiaries of the United States of America and of the Republic of San Salvador, have signed and sealed these presents, in the city of Leon, on the second day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty, and of the independence of the United States the seventy-fourth.

E. GEO. SQUIER.
AUGUSTIN MORALES.

FOREIGN POSTAGE.

RATES OF POSTAGE ON LETTERS OF THE WEIGHT OF HALF AN OUNCE OR UNDER, BY THE UNITED STATES AND BREMEN LINE OF STEAMERS, HEREAFTER TO SAIL SEMI-MONTHLY BETWEEN NEW YORK AND BREMEN—TO GO INTO EFFECT WITH THE FIRST OUTGOING STEAMER AFTER THE 15TH OF AUGUST, 1853.—PREPAYMENT OPTIONAL.

	Cents.		Cents.
Bremen	10	Lubec	22
Altona	21	Mechlenburgh-Schwerin	22
Austria, (Empire and Provinces of,) ..	22	Mechlenburgh-Strelitz	22
Baden	22	Nassau	22
Bavaria	22	Oldenburgh	12
Cassel	22	Prussia, (Kingdom and Provinces of,) ..	22
Coburgh	22	Reuss	22
Darmstadt	22	Saxe-Altenburgh	22
Frankfort-on-the-Main	22	Saxe-Meiningen	22
Gotha	22	Saxe-Weimar	22
Hamburg	15	Saxony, Kingdom of	22
Hanover	21	Schaumburg-Lippe	22
Hesse Hamburg	22	Schwartzburgh-Rudolstadt	22
Kiel	22	Schwartzburgh-Sunderhausen	22
Lippe Detmold	22	Wurtemberg, Kingdom of	22

A prepayment of any sum less than the full rate is not admissible.

Newspapers, sent from the United States, must be prepaid two cents each, and pamphlets and magazines one cent an ounce or fraction of an ounce. This is the United States postage only—the foreign postage having to be paid at the point of delivery. On all printed matter from the continent, by the United States and Bremen line, the whole postage (United States and foreign) is to be prepaid.

Unpaid letters, and newspapers and magazines prepaid as above, for any of the following countries, may also be sent by the Bremen line, viz.:

Alexandria,	Italy, (eastern towns of)
Cairo,	Norway,
Constantinople,	St. Petersburg, or Cronstadt,
Denmark,	Sweden, and
Greece,	Switzerland.

The exact rates to these countries, so soon as ascertained, will be given by the Department, and optional prepayment also extended to them.

All letters to and from foreign countries, (the British North American provinces excepted,) are to be charged with single rate of postage, if not exceeding the weight of half an ounce; double rate, if exceeding half an ounce, but not exceeding an ounce; quadruple rate, if exceeding an ounce, but not exceeding two ounces; and so on, charging two rates for every ounce, or fractional part of an ounce, over the first ounce.

NOTE.—The "Table of Postages to Foreign Countries," of 25th May, 1853, remains unchanged, except in respect to Bremen, and that the postage on pamphlets and magazines to all foreign countries, (with the exception of Great Britain, the British North American provinces, and the West Coast of South America,) by whatever line, is now one cent an ounce or fraction of an ounce, instead of two cents.

POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, August 8, 1853.

JAMES CAMPBELL,
Postmaster-General.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

ON THE LONGITUDES OF KEY WEST, CEDAR KEYS, AND ST. MARK'S, FLORIDA.

LETTER FROM PROFESSOR BACHE TO THE EDITOR.

COAST SURVEY OFFICE, 1853, January 14.

I have the honor to send you, for insertion in the *Astronomical Journal*, a report by Assistant J. E. Hilgard, of the United States Coast Survey, on the longitudes of Key West, Cedar Keys, and St. Mark's, Florida, as determined by chronometers. As these results differ from those generally received, it is deemed advisable to give them publicity at once. The publication is duly authorized by the Treasury Department.

A. D. BACHE,
Superintendent U. S. Coast Survey.

LETTER FROM MAJOR STEVENS.

OFFICE COAST SURVEY, 1852, December 24.

DEAR SIR:—The chronometric expedition under the charge of Mr. Hilgard during the months of February, March, and April last, for the determination of the longitudes of Key West, Cedar Keys, and St. Mark's, gives the following results. I also insert in the table the latitude of the several stations.

Station.	Latitude.	Longitude.
Key West Light.....	24° 32' 58"	81° 48' 7"
Sand Key Light*	24 27 10	81 52 43
Depot Key.....	29 7 30	83 2 45
St. Mark's Light	30 4 25	84 10 37

Ten chronometers were used, and the result of each is given in Mr. Hilgard's report to me of 10th December, a copy of which is herewith inclosed.

In the same report may also be found interesting comparisons of the longitudes obtained by this expedition, with those given by other authorities.

PROFESSOR A. D. BACHE,
Superintendent U. S. Coast Survey.

Yours respectfully,
ISAAC I. STEVENS,
Assistant in Charge of Office.

* In progress of construction.

REPORT ON THE LONGITUDE OF KEY WEST, CEDAR KEYS, AND ST. MARK'S.

OFFICE COAST SURVEY, 1852, December 10.

DEAR SIR:—I submit the following report on the longitudes of Key West, Cedar Keys, and St. Mark's, as determined by the chronometric expedition under my charge during the months of February, March, and April of this year.

The station of reference is Professor Gibbs's Observatory in Charleston, the longitude of which is at present assumed 5h. 19m. 44.0s. west of Greenwich. At Key West the transit was mounted at a point 17.25s. east of the station on Sand Key, at which moon-culminations were observed in 1849. The station at the Cedar Keys is the trigonometrical point on Depot Key. At St. Mark's the transit was 7.50s. west of the Lighthouse.

Eleven chronometers were carried, one of which, a worn-out one, is rejected throughout, its performance being entirely unsatisfactory. We have therefore for each trip ten results, of which the following is a tabular statement:—

DIFFERENCES OF LONGITUDE BY CHRONOMETERS.

Key West west of Charleston		Depot Key		St. Mark's	
Charleston—Key West.	Key West—Charleston.	west of Key West.			
m. s.	m. s.	m. s.	m. s.	m. s.	m. s.
7 28.0	7 30.7	4 55.2	4 55.2	9 37.5	9 37.5
25.1	30.5	55.7	55.7	39.6	39.6
28.6	28.6	57.3	57.3	36.9	36.9
31.6	27.5	57.7	57.7	36.1	36.1
32.0	31.7	57.6	57.6	34.6	34.6
29.5	28.6	57.3	57.3	37.3	37.3
26.8	28.6	56.6	56.6	38.6	38.6
31.0	28.2	58.7	58.7	31.9	31.9
32.9	32.6	58.5	58.5	34.3	34.3
7 31.5	7 29.0	4 58.8	4 58.8	9 36.5	9 36.5
<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
7 29.70	7 29.60	4 57.34	4 57.34	9 36.33	9 36.33
	7m. 29.65s.				
	+ 0.30s.	+ 0.25	+ 0.25	+ 0.48	+ 0.48

From these results and the data mentioned above, we obtain the following longitudes west of Greenwich:—

	h.	m.	s.
Charleston Observatory	5	19	44.00
Key West transit (west of Charleston, 7m. 29.65s.)	5	27	13.65
Sand Key (west of Key West transit, 17.25s.)	5	27	30.90
Depot Key (west of Key West transit, 4m. 57.34s.)	5	32	10.99
St. Mark's (west of Key West transit, 9m. 36.33s.)	5	36	49.98
St. Mark's Light (east of St. Mark's transit, 7.50s.)	5	36	42.48

For Sand Key, Mr. S. C. Walker obtained 5h. 27m. 31.6s., from some of the moon-culminations observed there. The value deduced from the longitude of Moro Castle, Havana, is 5h. 27. 28.0s., subject to the uncertainty of the correction to the moon's horizontal parallax. The value above obtained is undoubtedly to be preferred.

The longitude of Depot Key given on Blunt's Chart is 82° 56' or 5h. 31m. 44s., being 27s. too far east.

That of St. Mark's Light is given in Bowditch's Navigator 84° 20' or 5h. 37m. 20s., or 37.5s. too far west, the difference of longitude between Depot Key and St. Mark's being too great by 64.5s. according to those authorities. Mr. Blunt had already corrected the longitude of St. Mark's from 84° 55', as given by Gauld's Chart, to 84° 20'. It appears, therefore, that a more accurate determination of these longitudes was much needed, and is an important addition to geographical knowledge.

I subjoin a table of results:

Station.	Latitude.	Longitude.
Key West Light	24° 32' 58"	81° 48' 7"
Sand Key Light*	24 27 10	81 52 43
Depot Key	29 7 30	83 2 45
St. Mark's Light	30 4 25	84 10 37

Yours respectfully,

J. E. HILGARD.

MAJOR I. I. STEVENS,
Assistant in Charge.

* In progress of construction.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF THE CANALS OF NEW YORK IN 1851 AND 1852.

The subjoined statement of the quantity and value of all the productions arrived at, and departing from tide-water on the canals in the years 1851 and 1852, is derived from Auditor's office, Albany:—

STATEMENT OF ALL THE PROPERTY WHICH CAME TO THE HUDSON RIVER ON THE CANALS IN THE YEARS 1851 AND 1852, WITH THE QUANTITY AND ESTIMATED VALUE OF EACH ARTICLE IN ALBANY AND TROY.

THE FOREST.	1851.		1852.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Product of wood—				
Fur and peltry lbs.	484,000	\$605,200	264,652	\$344,048
Boards and scantling feet	427,038,600	7,213,226	542,428,787	9,393,361
Shingles M.	47,900	203,971	62,285	217,999
Timber cubic ft.	4,237,750	505,251	4,003,913	681,376
Staves lbs.	155,304,000	737,685	145,503,656	683,790
Wood cords	8,726	53,591	17,446	87,233
Ashes, pot and pearl bbls.	29,084	841,731	37,220	1,079,851
AGRICULTURE.				
Product of animals—				
Pork bbls.	45,019	663,898	72,704	1,267,292
Beef	76,344	468,054	89,215	1,034,113
Bacon lbs.	10,904,000	980,956	9,754,790	916,950
Cheese	25,602,000	1,663,606	16,367,404	1,310,351
Butter	9,568,000	1,338,997	7,902,715	1,463,532
Lard	10,814,000	973,324
Lard oil galls.	240,800	168,537
Wool lbs.	10,518,000	4,101,415	7,645,302	3,210,899
Hides	572,000	68,434	763,511	105,297
Tallow	244,000	16,976
Lard, tallow, and lard oil	10,672,731	1,173,712
Vegetable food—				
Flour bbls.	3,358,463	13,436,542	3,464,108	15,685,965
Wheat bush.	3,163,666	3,051,110	6,754,946	6,878,291
Rye	238,679	186,986	279,314	223,451
Corn	7,915,464	4,427,175	5,411,643	3,626,535
Corn meal bbls.	7,065	20,172	14,174	39,688
Barley bush.	1,809,417	1,429,332	2,280,485	1,664,754
Oats	3,594,313	1,348,019	4,857,487	2,136,290
Bran and ship stuffs lbs.	44,036,000	352,285	59,727,165	542,644
Peas and beans bush.	127,500	141,693	122,489	149,996
Potatoes	599,950	341,531	779,871	441,300
Dried fruit lbs.	1,424,000	114,108	190,504	15,241
All other agricultural products—				
Cotton lbs.	220,000	23,994	148,618	16,254
Unmanufactured tobacco	3,702,000	813,712	12,216,228	2,687,570
Hemp	1,160,000	75,469	1,403,122	91,203
Clover and grass seed	534,000	39,876	2,150,075	161,275
Flaxseed	122,000	2,426	2,125,809	42,517
Hops	552,000	146,287	417,131	124,769

MANUFACTURES.	1851.		1852.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Domestic spiritsgalls.	2,787,600	627,406	4,617,658	1,040,355
Beerbbls.	56	315		
Oil meal and cakelbs.	6,810,000	85,150	9,256,769	120,264
Starch	2,560,000	185,732		
Leather	8,204,000	1,230,384	6,877,815	1,100,644
Furniture	1,046,000	104,385	1,263,466	126,346
Agricultural implements	320,000	15,842		
Bar and pig lead	86,000	820	11,255	563
Pig iron	5,916,000	59,158	5,213,614	54,836
Castings	2,448,000	73,438	3,056,428	108,887
Machines and parts thereof	148,000	14,931		
Bloom and bar iron	33,150,000	666,993	14,854,547	235,477
Iron ware	4,000	111		
Domestic woolens	824,000	725,419	187,653	178,270
Domestic cottons	2,248,000	539,312	1,342,122	348,951
Domestic salt	12,816,000	56,387	9,265,929	41,697
Foreign salt			3,000	14
Merchandise	9,160,000	329,423	21,213,199	3,749,824
Other articles—				
Live cattle, hogs, and sheep	868,000	26,100	150,119	4,504
Stone, lime, and clay	86,286,000	122,000	113,497,567	156,569
Gypsum	3,242,000	6,475	11,270,138	22,541
Eggs	3,676,000	220,652		
Mineral coal	26,110,000	58,753	14,820,600	37,052
Fish	170,000	7,101		
Copper ore	418,000	62,667	54,697	8,204
Sundries	110,392,000	2,202,985	105,727,204	2,060,557

RECAPITULATION.

	1851.		1852.	
	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
Forest	913,268	\$10,160,656	1,064,677	\$12,487,658
Agriculture	891,420	36,394,913	989,268	45,009,839
Manufactures	52,302	1,335,783	47,512	3,356,304
Merchandise	4,580	329,423	10,605	3,749,824
Other articles	115,581	706,733	122,760	2,289,427
	1,977,151	\$53,927,508	2,234,822	\$66,893,102

The number of tons going from tide water in 1852 is as follows:—

Cleared at	Merchandise, Furniture, Other articles.			Total tons.	Total value.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.		
New York	131,877	15	9,702	141,594	\$46,966,227
Albany	123,407	242	49,889	173,538	31,281,301
West Troy	140,305	175	64,542	205,022	40,521,355
Schenectady	498	207	668	1,373	127,561
Total, 1852	396,087	639	124,801	521,527	\$118,896,444
“ 1851	349,230	1,465	124,640	475,335	89,217,789
Increase	46,857	826 Dec.	161	46,192	\$29,678,655

Aggregate statement of the tonnage and value of the property which came to and went from the Hudson River, on the Canals, in the years 1851 and 1852:—

	Tons.	Value.
1852	2,756,349	\$185,789,546
1851	2,452,486	148,145,297
Increase	303,863	\$42,644,249

GENERAL RAILROAD LAW OF OHIO UNDER THE NEW CONSTITUTION.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio,* That any number of natural persons, not less than five, may become a body corporate, with all the rights, privileges, and powers conferred by, and subject to all the restrictions of this act.

TO CREATE AND REGULATE RAILROAD COMPANIES.

SEC. 2. That any number of persons as aforesaid associating, to form a company for the purpose of constructing a railroad, shall, under their hands and seals, make a certificate, which shall specify as follows:—

1st. The name assumed by such company, and by which it shall be known. 2d. The name of the place of the termini of said road, and the county or counties through which such road shall pass. 3d. The amount of capital stock necessary to construct such road. Such certificate shall be acknowledged before a justice of the peace, and certified by the clerk of the court of common pleas, and shall be forwarded to the Secretary of State, who shall record and carefully preserve the same in his office; and a copy thereof, duly certified by the Secretary of State, under the great seal of the State of Ohio, shall be evidence of the existence of such company.

SEC. 3. That when the foregoing provisions have been complied with, the persons named as corporators in said certificate, are hereby authorized to carry into effect the objects named in said certificate, in accordance with the provisions of this act; and they and their associates, successors, and assigns, by the name and style provided in said certificate, shall hereafter be deemed a body corporate, with succession, with power to sue and be sued, plead and be impleaded, defend and be defended, contract and be contracted with, acquire and convey, at pleasure, all such real and personal estate as may be necessary and convenient to carry into effect the objects of the corporation, to make and use a common seal, and the same to alter at pleasure, and do all needful acts to carry into effect the object for which it was created; and such company shall possess all the powers, and be subject to all rules and restrictions provided by this act.

SEC. 4. Said corporations shall be authorized to construct and maintain a railroad, with a single or double track, with such side tracks, turn-outs, offices, and depots, as they may deem necessary, between the points named in the certificate, commencing at or within and extending to or into any town, city, or village, named as the place of the termini of such road, and construct branches from the main line to other towns or places within the limits of any county through which such road may pass.

SEC. 5. The capital stock of such company shall be divided into shares of fifty dollars each, and consist of such sum as may be named in the certificate; such shares shall be regarded as personal property, and shall be subject to execution at law.

SEC. 6. An installment of five dollars on each share of stock, shall be payable at the time of making the subscription, and the residue thereof shall be paid in such installments, and at such times and places, and to such persons, as may be required by the directors of such company.

SEC. 7. If any installment of stock shall remain unpaid for sixty days after the time it may be required, whether such stock is held by an assignee, transferred, or the original subscriber, the same may be collected by action of debt, or the directors may sell the stock so unpaid at public auction for the installment then due thereon; first giving thirty days' public notice of the time and place of sale in some newspaper in general circulation in the county where such delinquent stockholder resided at the time of making such subscription, or becoming such assignee or transferee, or of his actual residence at the time of said sale; or, if such stockholder reside out of the State, such publication shall be made in the county where the principal office of the company is located; and if any residue of money shall remain, after paying the amount due on said stock, the same shall, on demand, be paid over to the owner; if the whole of said installment be not paid by such sale, the remainder shall be recoverable by action of debt against the subscriber, assignee, or transferee.

SEC. 8. That whenever any railroad company, heretofore incorporated, or created and incorporated under the provisions of this act, shall, in the opinion of the directors thereof, require an increased amount of capital stock, they shall, if authorized by the holders of a majority of the stock, file with the Auditor of State a certificate, setting forth the amount of such desired increase, and thereafter such company shall be entitled to have such increased capital, as is fixed by said certificate.

SEC. 9. That the persons named in said certificate of incorporation, or any three of them, shall be authorized to order books to be opened for receiving subscriptions to

the capital stock of said company, at such time or times, and at such place or places, as they may deem expedient, after having given at least thirty days' notice, in a newspaper published or generally circulated in one or more counties where books of subscription are to be opened, of the time and place of opening books; and so soon as ten per cent on the capital stock shall be subscribed, they may give like notice for the stockholders to meet at such time and place as they may designate, for the purpose of choosing seven directors, who shall continue in office until the time fixed for the annual election, and until their successors are chosen and qualified; at the time and place appointed, directors shall be chosen, by ballot, by such of the stockholders as shall attend for that purpose, either in person, or by lawful proxies; each share shall entitle the owner to one vote, and a plurality of votes shall be necessary to a choice; but after the first election of directors, no person shall vote on any share on which any installment is due and unpaid. The persons named in such certificate, or such of them as may be present, shall be inspectors of such election, and shall certify what persons are elected directors, and appoint the time and place for holding their first meeting; a majority of said directors shall form a board, and be competent to fill vacancies in their board, make by-laws, and transact all business of the corporation; a new election shall be annually held for directors, at such time and place as the stockholders, at their first meeting, shall determine, or as the by-laws of the corporation may require; and the directors chosen at any election shall, so soon thereafter as may be convenient, choose any one of their number to be president, and shall appoint a secretary and treasurer of the corporation. The directors, before entering on their duties, shall each take an oath or affirmation, faithfully to discharge his duties, and they shall, from time to time, make such dividends of the profits of said company as they may think proper.

Sec. 10. Such corporation is authorized to enter upon any land for the purpose of examining and surveying its railroad line, and may appropriate so much thereof as may be deemed necessary for its railroad, including necessary side tracks, depots and workshops, and water stations, materials for construction, except timber, a right of way over adjacent lands, sufficient to enable said company to construct and repair its road, and a right to conduct water by aqueducts, and the right of making proper drains; but no appropriation of private property to the use of any corporation provided for in this act shall be made until full compensation therefor be first made, in money, or first secured by deposit of money, to the owner or owners, irrespective of any benefit from any improvement proposed by such corporation, as shall be prescribed by law.

Sec. 11. That whenever any railroad company heretofore incorporated, or which may hereafter be incorporated, shall find it necessary, for the purpose of avoiding annoyance to public travel, or dangerous or difficult curves or grades, or unsafe or unsubstantial grounds or foundations, or for other reasonable causes, to change the location or grade of any portion of their road, whether heretofore or hereafter to be made, such railroad companies shall be and are hereby authorized to make such changes of grade and location, not departing from the general route prescribed in the certificate of such company; and for the purpose of making any such change in the location and grades of any such road, as aforesaid, such company shall have all the rights, powers, and privileges, to enter upon and take and appropriate such lands, and make surveys necessary to effect such changes and grades, upon the same terms, and be subject to the same obligations, rules, and regulations, as are prescribed by law, and shall also be liable, in damages, when any have been caused by such change, to the owner or owners of the lands upon which such road was heretofore constructed, to be ascertained and paid or deposited as aforesaid; but no damages shall be allowed, unless claimed within thirty days after actual notice of such intended change shall be given to such owner or owners, if residing on the premises, or notice by publication in some newspaper in general circulation in the county, if non-resident.

Sec. 12. If it shall be necessary, in the location of any part of any railroad, to occupy any road, street, alley, or public way, or ground of any kind, or any part thereof, it shall be competent for the municipal or other corporation or public officer, or public authorities, owning or having charge thereof, and the railroad company, to agree upon the manner and upon the terms and conditions upon which the same may be used and occupied; and if said parties shall be unable to agree thereon, and it shall be necessary, in the judgment of the directors of such railroad company, to use or occupy such road, street, alley, or other public way or ground, such company may appropriate so much of the same as may be necessary for the purposes of such road, in the same

manner and upon the same terms as is provided for the appropriation of the property of individuals, by the 10th section of this act.

SEC. 13. Such corporation may demand and receive for the transportation of passengers on said road, not exceeding three cents per mile, and for the transportation of property, not exceeding five cents per ton per mile, when the same is transported a distance of thirty miles or more; and in case the same is transported for a distance less than thirty miles, such reasonable rate as may be from time to time fixed by said company, or prescribed by law.

SEC. 14. Such company shall have power to borrow money on the credit of the corporation, not exceeding its authorized capital stock, at a rate of interest not exceeding seven per cent per annum, and may execute bonds or promissory notes therefor, in sums of not less than one hundred dollars; and to secure the payment thereof, may pledge the property and income of such company.

SEC. 15. Such company may acquire by purchase or gift, any lands in the vicinity of said road or through which the same may pass, so far as may be deemed necessary or convenient by said company to secure the right of way, or such as may be granted to aid in the construction of such road, and the same to hold or convey in such manner as the directors may prescribe; and all deeds and conveyances made by such company shall be signed by the president, under seal of the corporation; and any existing railroad corporation may accept the provisions of this act, and after such acceptance all conflicting provisions of their respective charters shall be null and void.

SEC. 16. It shall be lawful for such corporation whenever it shall be necessary, in the construction of such road, to cross any road or stream of water, to divert the same from its present location or bed; but said corporation shall without unnecessary delay, place such road or stream in such condition as not to impair its former usefulness.

SEC. 17. Such corporation shall, as soon as convenient after its organization, establish a principal office at some point on the line of its road, and change the same at pleasure, giving public notice in some newspaper of such establishment or change.

SEC. 18. Every company organized under this act, shall be required to erect, at all points where their road shall cross any public road, at a sufficient elevation from such road to admit of the free passage of vehicles of every kind, a sign with large and distinct letters placed thereon, to give notice of the proximity of the railroad, and warn persons of the necessity of looking out for the cars; and any company neglecting or refusing to erect such sign, shall be liable in damages for all injuries occurring to persons or property from each neglect or refusal; and each railroad company shall be required to fence its roads with a good substantial wooden fence, under such rules as the county commissioners of the several counties through which the same may pass, may prescribe.

SEC. 19. That each and every railroad company, incorporated under this act, shall annually, in the month of January, make a full report of the condition of its affairs to the auditor of State, showing the amount of capital stock of such company, the gross amount of tolls or receipts during the previous year, the cost of repairs and incidental expenses, the net amount of profits, and the dividends made; with such other facts as may be necessary to a full statement of the affairs and conditions of such road; and the auditor shall annually present an abstract copy of such report to the general assembly.

SEC. 20. That whenever the line of any railroad company now existing, or which may hereafter organize under this act, shall cross any canal, or any navigable water, the said company shall file with the "board of public works," or with the acting commissioners thereof, having charge of the public works where such crossing is proposed, the plan of the bridge and other fixtures for crossing such canal or navigable water, designating the place of crossing; and if the said board or acting commissioner thereof shall approve of such plan, he shall notify such company, in writing, of such approval; but if the said board or acting commissioner shall disapprove such plan or fail to approve the same within twenty days after the filing thereof, then it shall be lawful for such company to apply to the court of common pleas, or any judge thereof, in vacation, and upon reasonable notice being given to the board of public works, or said acting commissioner, said court or judge shall, upon good cause shown, appoint a competent disinterested engineer, not a resident of any county through which said road passes, to examine such crossing, and prescribe the plan and condition thereof, so as not to impede navigation; and such engineer shall, within twenty days from his appointment, make his return to the court of common pleas of the county where such crossing is to be made, subject to exceptions by either party, and thereupon the court shall at the next term after the filing of said return, proceed to examine the same,

and unless good cause is shown, shall approve and confirm the same; and such order or confirmation shall be sufficient authority for the erection, use, and occupancy of such bridge, in accordance with such plan; provided, that no railroad company shall be authorized to construct a permanent bridge over any canal of this State which shall be less than ten feet in the clear above the top water-line of said canal; and the piers and abutments of such bridge shall be placed so as not in any manner to contract the width of the canal, or interfere with free passage on the towing path.

SEC. 21. That whenever the lines of railroad of any railroad companies in this State, or any portion of such lines, have been or may be constructed, so as to admit the passage of burden or passenger cars over two or more of such roads continuously without break or interruption, such companies are hereby authorized to consolidate themselves into a single corporation, in the manner following:—

1. The directors of said two or more corporations may enter into an agreement, under the corporate seal of each, for the consolidation of the said two or more corporations, prescribing the terms and conditions thereof; the mode of carrying the same into effect; the name of the new corporation; the number of the directors thereof, which shall not exceed thirteen; the time and place of holding the first election for directors; and the number of shares of capital stock in the new corporation; the amount of each share; the manner of converting the shares of capital stock in each of said two or more corporations into shares in such new corporation; the manner of compensating stockholders in each of said two or more corporations who refuse to convert their stock into the stock of such new corporation; with such other details as they shall deem necessary to perfect such consolidation of said corporations; and such new corporation shall possess all the powers, rights, and franchises, conferred upon such two or more corporations, and shall be subject [to] all the restrictions and perform all the duties imposed by the provisions of this act; provided, that all the stockholders in either of such corporations who will refuse to convert their stock into the stock of such new corporation, shall be paid at least par value for each of the shares so held by them, if they shall so require, previous to said consolidation being consummated.

2. Such agreement of the directors shall not be deemed to be the agreement of the said two or more corporations, until after it has been submitted to the stockholders of each of said corporations, separately, at a meeting thereof; to be called upon a notice of at least thirty days; specifying the time and place of such meeting, and the object thereof, to be addressed to each of such stockholders, when their place of residence is known, and deposited in the postoffice, and published for at least three successive weeks in one newspaper, in at least one of the cities or towns in which each of said corporation has its principal office of business, and has been sanctioned by such stockholders, by a vote of at least two thirds in amount of the stockholders present at such meeting, voting by ballot, in regard to such agreement, either in person or by proxy, each share being entitled to one vote; and when such agreement of the directors has been so sanctioned by each of the meetings of the stockholders separately, after being submitted to such meetings in the manner above mentioned, then such agreement of the directors shall be deemed to be the agreement of the said two or more corporations.

SEC. 22. Upon making the agreement mentioned in the preceding section, in the manner required therein, and filing a duplicate or counterpart thereof in the office of the Secretary of State, the said two or more corporations mentioned or referred to in the said first section, shall be merged in the new corporation provided for in such agreement, to be known by the corporate name therein mentioned, and the details of such agreement shall be carried into effect as provided therein.

SEC. 23. Upon the election of the first board of directors of the corporation created by the agreement in the twenty-first section of this act mentioned, and by the provisions of this act, all and singular the rights and franchises of each and all of said two or more corporations, parties to such agreement, all and singular their rights and interests, in and to every species of property, real, personal, and mixed, and things in action shall be deemed to be transferred to and vested in such new corporation, without any other deed or transfer; and such new corporation shall hold and enjoy the same, together with the right of way, and all other rights of property, in the same manner, and to the same extent, as if the said two or more corporations, parties to such agreement, should have continued to retain the title, and transact the business of such corporations; and the titles and the real estate acquired by either of said two or more corporations, shall not be deemed to revert or be impaired by means of any thing in this act contained; Provided that all rights of creditors, and all liens upon the property of either of said corporations, parties to said agreement, shall be and

hereby are preserved unimpaired; and the respective corporations shall continue to exist so far as may be necessary to enforce the same; and provided further, that all the debts, liabilities, and duties of either company shall henceforth attach to such new corporation, and be enforced from the same, to the extent aid in the same manner, as if such debts, liabilities, and dues, had been originally incurred by it.

SEC. 24. Any railroad company heretofore or hereafter incorporated, may at any time, by means of subscription to the capital of any other company, or otherwise, aid such company in the construction of its railroad, for the purpose of forming a connection of said last mentioned road with the road owned by the company furnishing said aid; or any railroad company organized in pursuance of law, may lease or purchase any part or all of any railroad constructed by any other company, if said companies' lines of road are contiguous or connected as aforesaid, upon such terms and conditions as may be agreed on between said companies respectively; or any two or more railroad companies whose lines are so connected, may enter into any arrangement for their common benefit, consistent with and calculated to promote the objects for which they were created; Provided that no such aid shall be furnished, nor any such purchase, lease, or arrangement perfected, until a meeting of the stockholders of each of said companies shall have been called by the directors thereof, at such time and place, and in such manner as they shall designate, and the holders of at least two thirds of the stock of such company represented at such meeting, in person or by proxy, and voting thereat, shall have assented thereto.

SEC. 25. The commissioners of any county, the city or town council of any city or town, and the trustees of any township, which county, city, town, or township has heretofore subscribed to the capital stock of any railroad company, or turnpike, or plank-road company, and have issued, or may hereafter issue any bonds for the payment of such subscription, are hereby authorized to sell the said stock, or any part thereof, and on such terms as they shall deem to be the interest of said county, city, town, or township, respectively, and may apply the proceeds of such sale to the payment of the bonds by such county, city, town, or township, respectively, subscribed.

SEC. 26. That every railroad company in this State shall cause all its trains of cars for passengers, to entirely stop, upon each arrival at a station advertised by such company as a station for receiving passengers upon such trains, at least one-half of one minute; and every company, and every person in the employment of such company, that shall violate, or cause or permit to be violated, the provisions of this section, shall be liable to a forfeiture of not more than one hundred dollars, nor less than twenty dollars; to be recovered in an action of debt, upon the complaint of any person, before any justice of the peace of the county in which such violation shall occur; and in all cases in which a forfeiture may occur under the provisions of this section, the company whose agent shall cause or permit such violation, shall be liable to the amount of such forfeiture, and in all cases, the conductor upon such trains shall be held *prima facie* to have caused the violation of this section, which may occur upon the train in his charge; said forfeiture to be recovered in the name of the State of Ohio, for the use of common schools.

LIABILITIES OF STEAMBOATS.

A case of some importance was recently tried at Cleveland, Ohio, in which the liability of steamboats was set down by the decision of the bench. A gentleman brought suit against the Niagara for the loss of a trunk containing wearing apparel, and \$2,500 in gold. The judge held that money, except an amount actually designed for traveling expenses, contained in a trunk, was not recoverable in case of loss, except as baggage. That in order to create such liabilities on the part of a boat or transportation company, the unusual contents of such trunk should be made known to the carrier, so that freight, if demanded, might be received in proportion to the risk—that where a trunk, with such contents was received, not as mere baggage, but as freight, the carrier would be liable, although he had no notice of the particular contents of the trunk; but that a mere gratuity paid to the porter, as a perquisite for taking care of a trunk, did not, in the absence of any other proof, vary the liability of the carrier. The court further held, that if it appeared from the evidence that his money was being transported for purposes of future investment, and no part of it was intended to be used as traveling expenses, that under the circumstances the boat would not be liable for any portion of the money. The jury, under the charge of the court, returned a verdict for \$809, the value of the wearing apparel, disallowing the \$2,500, claimed for loss of money in the trunk.

BRITISH AND NORTH AMERICAN STEAMSHIP COMPANY.

The following are the sizes and horse-power of the steamships of the Messrs. Burns, of Glasgow, and Mac Iver, of Liverpool:—

Name.	Tonnage.	Power.	Name.	Tonnage.	Power
Cambria.....paddle	1,423	510	†Lynx.....paddle	548	260
America.....	1,826	670	Andes.....screw	1,440	300
Niagara.....	1,824	669	Alps.....	1,440	300
Europa.....	1,834	680	Taurus.....	1,126	180
Canada.....	1,831	680	Teneriffe.....	1,126	180
Asia.....	2,226	759	†Karbak.....	1,126	170
Africa.....	2,226	750	†Etna.....	2,200	400
Arabia.....	2,401	838	†Jura.....	2,200	400
*Persia.....	3,520	850	British Queen.....	801	170
Margaret.....	689	220	Balbec.....	788	170
Satellite.....	210	80	Melita.....	1,060	180
Jackal.....	220	90	**Barge.....	200	...
Stork.....	431	220	Do.....	200	...
Laurel.....	429	210	††Commodore....paddle	711	380
Elk.....	548	260	††Lyra.....	596	280
†Stag.....	548	260			

Total: paddle, 19; screws, 10; barges, 2—31. Total tonnage, 37,755. Total horse-power, 11,108.

MAMMOTH LOCOMOTIVES.

In despite of the fact daily demonstrated on the English lines of the greater comparative cheapness of small locomotives, says the *Railway Times*, we notice that our railway managers are increasing the weight of their engines very materially. Very likely for some kinds of traffic the heavy locomotive is more convenient and perhaps economical, and perhaps in some cases indispensable; but we fear that, as a general matter, our railway managers are too ready, from some spirit of emulation, to order engines of too great weight. Where the locomotives are light and well constructed, there is a very great saving in wear and tear, and vastly more public accommodation, especially in the passenger traffic. With light locomotives, more trains can be run at a less aggregate cost, as we think has been sufficiently demonstrated by the results on some of the English lines, the accounts of which have been published in the *American Railway Times* at different periods. We believe that we are only repeating the decided opinions of the great majority of our best informed railway managers, when we say that the use of these very heavy locomotives is far from being economical.

A locomotive of from thirty to forty tons weight is quite a curiosity in its way, and well worth being shown and looked at, but if they are destructive of the profits of the company, as we apprehend in many cases they must be, our managers ought to dispense with the expense of these extraordinary instances of mechanical skill for sight-seeing. The rapid depreciation of the engine itself, the extra wear of the rails, hedges, and superstructure, from the use of these mammoth affairs, is worthy of attention. We now give an account of a mammoth locomotive which has been built at Trenton for the Camden and Amboy road. It weighs thirty tons, and is equal to 350 horse-power, and is designed for burning coal. A trial trip at Bordentown, on Tuesday, was attended with satisfactory results. The *Trenton American* gives an account of the mechanical peculiarities of this engine as follows:—

“This engine differs from other locomotives in several particulars. The first is, the manner in which the motive power is communicated to the wheels, namely by connecting the cross-head by a rod, with a pendulum or long lever suspended from a shaft, supported by pedestals fixed on the top of the boiler. This lever, vibrating, gives a very slight angle to the first connection rod, and consequently occasions very little friction, between the cross-head and guide. The main connection takes hold with a fork, at the lower extremity of the first connection, and passes back to a wrist in the third pair of wheels; from this passes another connection rod to the fourth or rear wheels—then, to complete the arrangement forward, the third pair of wheels has fixed upon the center of the axle a spur-gear, communicating through an intermediate

* Building at Dumbarton for Cunard Line.
 † Building at Greenock.
 ** For loading steamers in Mersey.

† Building at Dumbarton.
 | Building at Glasgow.
 †† Chartered.

wheel to another fixed on the axle of the second pair or rear truck wheels; these wheels are connected by side-rods to the front truck wheels, making the whole eight wheels, or four parts, driving wheels.

"Another striking peculiarity of this engine is the manner of heating the water before it enters the boiler. In the first place the tank is connected by hose to the ash-pan, which is made with a double bottom, so as to form a space of three inches between the sheets, to contain water; from this the water passes through an internal pipe, inclosed by the exhaust pipe; thence to the smoke-box, where it passes out to pumps, which are vertical, and fixed on the outside of the smoke-box, and worked from an arm fixed on the pendulum shaft; by this arrangement the water is heated to nearly the boiling point before it enters the boiler.

"The engine is calculated for freight trains, having wheels only four feet in diameter. The boiler is twenty-four feet in length, and fifty inches in diameter, tapering each way, forming a line on the bottom. The furnace is forty-seven inches wide, and seven feet long, having a bridge twelve inches from the tube sheet."

GALENA AND CHICAGO UNION RAILROAD—EARNINGS, ETC.

From the report of N. K. Towner, Esq., Secretary of the Operating Department of the Galena and Chicago Union Railroad, we are enabled to present our readers with a tabular statement of the earnings of the road for the fiscal year ending May 1, 1853.

	Passengers.	Freight, Mails, &c.	Total.
May.....	\$15,408 03	\$16,320 45	\$31,728 48
June.....	17,313 46	25,911 66	43,225 12
July.....	13,980 95	20,973 68	34,954 63
August.....	16,603 67	23,555 18	40,158 85
September.....	20,766 73	35,264 95	56,031 68
October.....	22,908 17	35,803 83	58,712 00
November.....	15,137 34	31,664 70	49,802 04
December.....	12,434 08	26,271 27	38,705 35
January.....	11,010 29	21,662 02	32,672 31
February.....	11,453 39	14,245 84	25,699 23
March.....	15,559 06	12,667 53	28,226 59
April.....	19,885 88	16,746 05	36,631 93
Totals.....	\$192,461 05	\$281,087 16	\$473,548 21

Of the freight, mails, and incidentals, the following exhibit the total of each:—

Freight.....	\$272,406 16
Mails.....	8,190 40
Incidentals.....	490 60
	<hr/>
	\$281,087 16

The number of passengers carried on this road for the year was 140,016. The lowest number in one month was 9,127, in February, and the highest, 14,661, in October.

RAILROADS IN CANADA.

The *Montreal Herald* publishes a railroad table, of which it says:—"By this table it will be seen that of 2,051 miles of road, we have already in operation 225 (for the Rawdon and Industry line, of 20 miles, is completed) miles, 608 miles under construction, and 1,211 miles for which charters have been obtained. Of these last, however, 523 miles—the Main Trunk, from Trois Pistoles to Quebec, and from Montreal to Hamilton—are now contracted for, and their construction may be considered secured—leaving 688 miles of chartered road not yet contracted for. Of the 225 miles of completed road, 192 miles are in Lower, and 27 in Upper Canada. Of the 1,131 miles, under construction and contracted for, about 330 will be found to be in Lower Canada, and 800 in Upper; and of 688 miles of chartered roads not yet contracted for—with the exception, say of 60 miles of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence Grand Junction Road—the whole are in the upper section of the province. Thus, when all the roads under construction, contracted for, and chartered, are completed, Upper Canada will possess 1,465, and Lower Canada only 586 miles of road."

POETRY OF THE RAILWAY.

FROM THE DUBLIN UNIVERSITY MAGAZINE.

The silent glen, the sunless stream,
To wandering stillhood dear,
And treasured still in many a dream,
They are no longer here;
A huge red mound of earth is thrown
Across the glen so wild and lone,
The stream so cold and clear;
And lightning speed, and thundering sound,
Pass hourly o'er the unsightly mound.

Nor this alone—for many a mile,
Along that iron way,
No verdant banks or hedgerows smile
In summer's glory gay;
Thro' chasms that yawn as though the earth
Were rent in some strange mountain-birth,
Whose depth excludes the day,
We're born away at headlong pace,
To win from time the wearying race!

The wayside inn the homelike air,
No longer tempts a guest
To taste its unpretending fare,
Or seek its welcome rest.
The prancing team—the merry horn—

The cool fresh road at early morn—
The coachman's ready jest;
All, all to distant dream-land gone,
While shrieking trains are hurrying on.

Yet greet we them with thankful hearts,
And eyes that own no tear,
'Tis nothing now, the space which parts
The distant from the dear;
The wing that to her cherished nest
Bears home the bird's exulting breast,
Has found its rival here.
With speed like hers we too can haste,
The bliss of meeting hearts to taste.

For me, I gaze along the line
To watch the approaching train,
And deem it still, 'twixt me and mine,
A rude, but welcome chain
To bind us in a world, whose ties
Each passing hour to sever tries,
But here may try in vain;
To bring us near home many an art
Stern fate employs to keep apart.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

IMPROVEMENT AND ECONOMY IN THE MANUFACTURE OF FLOUR.

We copy from an English contemporary the subjoined statement touching an invention for the manufacture of flour:—

PATENT FLOUR MILL AT MESSRS. PAVITT'S, 247 WAPPING.

An invention which is likely to effect a complete revolution in the erection of all future mills, and which was frequently brought forward while in its chrysalis state as a model in the Great Exhibition, has been matured, and is now, and has been for the last two months, at full and daily work at the Anchor Flour Mills of the Messrs. Pavitt, Wapping. Being proved to be complete in all respects, and tested by long-continued work, and the flour made from it preferred by the bakers who had tried it, to the other flour they had previously purchased, it was determined to throw the works open to all who desired to inspect them in practical operation, and to compare the results with the working of one of the best ordinary mills in London on the same premises.

Lord Beaumont and Sir J. V. Shelley, Bart., stated to the two Houses of Parliament, in a petition asking for inquiry and adoption, that by this invention 81,857,120 quartern loaves, in addition to those that are made from the same quantity of wheat, would be produced, giving a clear saving of upwards of £2,000,000 per annum. Also, that it effected an economy of time and labor of cent per cent, while it produced a better and healthier article than the flour usually sold, lasting longer, being stronger, and not liable to become sour and unwholesome, possessing in color all the advantages of Parisian flour. Mills are now erected, or in the course of erection in France, Belgium, Austria, and Mexico, under the patents of this invention.

As on all matters of science, journals connected with science should be adopted as authority, we shall here extract from a report of this important improvement, taken from the *Mechanics' Magazine* of the 12th ultimo:—

On the 9th of February, a large party of engineering gentlemen, and of others engaged in an extensive way of business, as millers, assembled at the flour mills of the Messrs. Pavitt, High street, Wapping, to witness the performance of two mills constructed by Mr. Middleton, on the principle of Westrup's patent. In the same establishment are seven other mills of the ordinary construction, and the trial of relative merits was between the two conical and the most effective pair of the flat mills. The

result proved to be immensely in favor of the conical system; while the quality of the article produced, according to the opinion of experienced bakers, is far superior. The economy of this new system of grinding is found to effect very sensibly the detail of operations both in the mill and in the bake-house. In the former it becomes possible to grind up a large portion of farinaceous matter now rejected in the form of bran; that is, to exhaust the husk of the clavel more completely, and therefore to yield a larger quantity of pure farina. In the latter, the tedious but critical duty of watching for what is technically termed "the sponge," or rising of the dough, is quite superseded. At present, if this be neglected, the dough falls again in the oven, and the bread is sold at a reduced price, which is a serious disadvantage.

Under the conical system of grinding, in consequence of the greater proportion of gluten contained in the mass, the acids do not escape so rapidly, and the sponge takes place in the oven.

Upon the whole, there is a large gain to the public; for besides a saving in fuel, it is capable of increasing the bread of the people to the value of £2,460,428 a year, which, at 6d. per loaf, would give them 81,857,120 more quatern loaves a year.

The old flat flour mill ordinarily consists of a low fixed circular stone, and an upper revolving one, each of about 4 feet 6 inches in diameter. The wheat being introduced through an aperture, is drawn in and ground between the revolving and the fixed dressed surfaces. The average weight of these stones is about 14 cwt., and it is ordinarily found that the grinding surface presented is so extended as to render the delivery of the flour extremely slow and uncertain, notwithstanding the great velocity of the running-stone, which is generally 120 revolutions per minute. The evil arising from this circumstance is, that the flour, finding only a partial escape, is triturated and re-triturated to the great ultimate injury of the meal.

Some idea of the power required to keep such massive machines in operation may be gathered from the fact, that a single pair of stones, 4 feet in diameter, require the power of a four-horse engine to maintain the needful speed. This enormous power becomes necessary, in consequence of the great weight of the "top stone," the rapid rate of revolution, and the very large amount of friction produced by the process of grinding so glutinous a substance as meal between such extended surfaces.

These are the principal objections to the old flat mill system of grinding, which has been the universal one in use in all parts of the kingdom for a considerable time, the only variation in practice consisting in the motive power. Most commonly steam-power is employed, but when the locality admits of its introduction, the cheaper and more uniformly certain agent, water, has been brought into action. In all other respects, the mechanical detail of the system has been uniformly the same.

The "conical" mill is intended to obviate these defects; and a very few remarks will suffice to show that its inventor has not only detected their causes, but has brought into operation a most philosophic, and therefore successful, combination of grinding and separating agencies, by which these defects have disappeared to an extent which leaves little to be desired. The beneficial changes effected may be succinctly enumerated. First, the reduction of the weight of the running-stone from 14 cwt. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ cwt., by placing it beneath instead of upon the fixed one; second, the reduction of the size of the stones in the proportion of 8.34 to 1; and thirdly, the giving to the stones a new form—that of the frustum of a cone. The advantage of lessening the diameter and weight of a mass, of which the one is 4 cwt. and the other 14 cwt., will be apparent, when it is considered that its effective velocity is 120 revolutions per minute, and that this velocity must be sustained against the enormous friction of the grinding surfaces. The altered position of the running-stone admits of a much more delicate adjustment of the opposing surfaces, and gives to the miller an easy and effective control over the most important portion of his operation. The conical form facilitates the discharge of the flour, and obviates the clogging and overheating of the old practice. In addition to these advantages, by a judicious modification of the ordinary mode of dressing, or rather by a combination of the mill with the dressing machine, a perfect separation of the flour from the bran is effected at the moment the grist escapes from the stones. The bran still remains in the mill, and falls by its own gravity to a second pair of stones in all respects resembling those already described.

Both pairs of stones are mounted on the same spindle, and of course impelled by the same gearing. The operation of the lower pair need not be described; they complete the process, and leave nothing unconverted into flour which could add either to the weight or the quality of the loaf. In considering this arrangement, we cannot fail

to be struck with the analogy subsisting between it and that which we observe in the construction of the jaws of animals—a circumstance which assures us of its philosophical superiority.

There were three trials as regarded the old system and the new. The first experiment on the old mill gave a discharge of 16 lbs. of flour in five minutes, which was equal to 192 lbs. per hour; while upon the patent mill there was a discharge of $38\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. in five minutes, or 462 lbs. per hour. The difference, therefore, on that experiment was against the old system 270 lbs. per hour. The second experiment tried was even more favorable as regarded the new system.

Two conical mills worked against two on the flat principle for one hour, ascertained exactly and with the following results:

Conical mill (No. 1)	produced	$8\frac{3}{4}$	bushels.
Ditto (No. 2)	"	$7\frac{1}{2}$	"
Flat mill (No. 1)	"	3	"
Ditto (No. 2)	"	3	"

AMERICAN CLOCKS FOR CHINA.

We hope the following interesting article from *Chambers' Journal* will arrest the attention of our American clockmakers:—

With all their ingenuity and industry, the Chinese appear to employ themselves but little in the art of clock-making; and it may be safely declared that Geneva turns out more time keepers in a year than are produced in the whole of the Celestial Empire. In the large city of Nankin there are not more than forty clockmakers: Szechew has thirty, and Ning-po not more than seven; while, until recently, the value of the clocks and watches imported into China from Europe, amounted to about half a million dollars yearly. It is said that the number of clocks really manufactured in the country in a twelvemonth does not exceed 1,500—a fact the more remarkable when contrasted with the state of the case in other countries. The watch and clock-makers in London, including those who manufacture portions of the mechanism only, amount to more than 1,000; and, as is well known, the enterprising horologists of New England make and export clocks every year by tens of thousands. These latter, with that keen spirit of trade which characterizes them, have lately been turning their attention to China as a profitable market for their handiwork; and a request was dispatched some time since from the United States Patent Office, to such American citizens as were resident in the flowery land, for any information that might promise to benefit the branch of industry in question.

From one of the replies which this "request" elicited, we gather that the Chinese have always been too deficient in their acquaintance with astronomy and mathematics to construct proper sun-dials; and that their knowledge of these instruments was obtained from Europeans, while hour-glasses are known only as a contrivance "employed in western countries to measure time." Many Celestial gentlemen make it a *sine qua non* to carry two watches; among these, specimens of very ancient workmanship are sometimes met with as rotund as "Nuremberg eggs;" and the wearers are too often anxious to make the pair go well together. The trouble they gave in consequence, in former days, to some of the Jesuit Fathers who were skilled in clock-making, will be found mentioned in the "Lettres Edifiantes et Curieuses."

A Chinese day comprises twelve periods, each equivalent to two hours, and they are represented by twelve characters on the clock-face, being those used also to designate the months. "The first in the list (meaning Son) is employed at the commencement of every cycle, and to the first of every period of twelve years, and also to the commencement of the civil day—at 11 p. m.—comprehending the period between this and 1 a. m. The month which is signified by this term is not the first of the Chinese year, but singularly enough coincides with January. Each of the twelve hours is divided into eight 'kih,' corresponding to quarter-hours. The diurnal division of time does not appear to have been in use in the time of Confucius, as mention is made in the spring and autumn annals of the ten hours of the day."

The writer whose remarks we quote, recommends his countrymen, in manufacturing clocks for the Chinese, to adopt the clock-face commonly used in China, with some improvements, one of which would be to surround the twelve "hoary characters" with a ring of numerals from one to twenty-four, every alternate one of which would be opposite the half-hour mark of the inner circle, corresponding with a whole hour of

our time, and to continue the use of the four signs which now stand near the center of the face to indicate midnight, dawn, noon, and evening. The pendulum is to vibrate seconds; the minute-hand to make half a revolution at every sixty seconds; and the hour-hand is to go but once round the face in the whole diurnal period. As the result of this arrangement—"At one o'clock, P. M., our reckoning, the hour hand will be half-way between the large character at the top, and the next one to the right; and the minute-hand, having made half a revolution, will point perpendicularly downward, and the clock strike one. At the expiration of another of our hours, a whole Chinese hour will have expired, when the former hand will have reached the first large character to the right, and the latter will be directed to the zenith—the clock striking two." The minute hand is therefore to make twelve revolutions in the twenty-four hours.

The clocks are to be constructed with lines and weights, as those with springs are not liked in China; and as a Celestial always likes to see what he is buying, it is suggested that the works be made as visible as possible, and of good quality, to avoid the loss that would be sure to follow attempts to palm off clocks made to sell merely. To gratify the Chinese wish for utility, the lower part of the door is to contain a looking-glass, or if not this, something very ornamental; and inside, instructions in the native character for fixing, winding, regulating, &c. Such clocks as are here described can be manufactured in Connecticut for \$2 50 each; and as they can be sold in China at from \$5 to \$6 each, we may shortly expect to see a great and profitable trade in American time-keepers between the two countries.

WATCHMAKER'S OIL.

The *Scientific American* says that the best oil for diminishing friction in delicate machinery is that which is entirely deprived of every species of acid and of mucilage, and is capable of enduring intense cold without congealing. The oil, in fact, should be pure elaine, without any trace of stearine.

Now, it is not difficult to extract the elaine from all fixed oils, and even those from seeds by the process of Chevreul, which consists in treating the oil with seven or eight times its weight of alcohol almost boiling hot, decanting the liquid, and exposing it to cold. The stearine will then separate in the form of a crystalline precipitate. The alcoholic solution is then to be evaporated to a fifth of its volume. What is left is the elaine, which ought to be colorless, insipid, almost without smell, without any action on the infusion of turnsole having the consistence of white olive oil, and with difficulty coagulable.

Another method of obtaining elaine, more simple and exact than the former, is that adopted by M. Braconol, which is to squeeze tallow between the folds of very porous paper, by which the elaine is absorbed, while the stearine remains. The paper being soaked in water, and pressed, yields up its oily impregnation.

In the "Annales de Chimie," March, 1823, another mode of obtaining elaine is given by M. Peelet, to which a preference over both is given on account of the facility with which it may be procured in quantity. It is as follows:—Pour upon oil a concentrated solution of caustic soda; stir the mixture, heat it slightly, to separate the elaine from the soap of the stearine; pour it on a cloth, and then separate, by decantation, the elaine from the excess of alkaline solution.

DORN'S GOLD MINE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

The editor of the *Greenville Mountainer*, says:—"We had the pleasure of meeting and conversing with Mr. Dorn, when on a visit to Greenville, and of learning from him some particulars in relation to his valuable gold mine in Abbeville. Much as we had previously heard of the incalculable value of this property, we were astounded at some of the facts stated by Mr. D. It may be as well to state that Mr. Dorn is a plain unostentatious gentleman, and a man of truth, which is better than all his wealth. Therefore his statements may be implicitly relied on. Mr. Dorn informed us that he had within the last eighteen months, with a small force, taken from his mine some three hundred thousand dollars; that he had traced the vein a mile and a quarter on his land; that it was fifteen feet wide; that there was gold most frequently discoverable from the surface to the rich vein below. Mr. Dorn has got as much as one thousand dollars from one bushel of dirt, and has been, if we recollect aright, offered a million or two dollars for one-half of his mine, which he very wisely declined taking.

IMPROVEMENT IN THE MANUFACTURE OF INDIA RUBBER GOODS.

By reference to page 254, vol. viii., *Scientific American*, our readers will perceive that a patent was granted to Charles Goodyear and Robert Hearing, assignors to Charles Goodyear of New Haven, Ct., for an improvement in the mode of manufacturing goods from India rubber, gutta percha, &c., and a patent was granted in England for the same process in 1851. The following abstract of the specification will be interesting to our readers. It contains all of importance embraced in the patent:

The improvements made are in the moulds which give form to the vulcanized rubber, &c., heretofore metal moulds have been used without good results. The invention consists in using or employing sand, pulverized soapstone, plaster, or some similar granular, or pulverized substance, and when put together form porous matter, or moulds made of porous substances, to sustain and keep the form of moulded articles composed of caoutchouc or its compounds, and other gums susceptible of vulcanization during the process of heating or vulcanization. We take articles composed of compounds of caoutchouc, or other gums which are susceptible of vulcanization in the green state. We cause them to be pressed or otherwise formed into the exact shapes which they are required to have after being vulcanized; we then cover the surface of the articles with pulverized soapstone, or plaster, or other similar non-adhesive powder. We then place the articles in a box filled with sand, the finer the sand the better, or pulverized soapstone, or other similar equivalent granular or pulverized matter, so that each article shall be completely surrounded and covered by the sand, or pulverized soapstone, or plaster, &c., and imbedded in the same, and thereby sustained when it is desired to give a very smooth surface to the article, we cause it to be completely surrounded with a layer of soapstone, even though sand may be employed about the layer of soapstone. We sometimes use moist sand or pulverized soapstone. When the articles are thus properly placed in the box, we subject the sand or other material to pressure, so that the box shall be solidly filled; we then, by means of a cover, or sometimes by pressure, confine the sand or other material, so that the articles shall be at all times in contact with and pressed upon by the sand or other material during the process of heating. We then place the articles surrounded with and sustained by sand or pulverized soapstone or other material in an oven or heater, and subject the same to a high degree of artificial heat, moist or dry heat, say from 260 to 300° Fah., for a period of from three to seven hours, and upon taking the articles out of the sand or other material, the articles will be found to be vulcanized in the same form in which they were when put into the sand; we are thus enabled to produce economically great variety of objects. Among them, embossed or indented, or plain sheets or plates, or masses of regular or irregular forms, convex or concave, such as pieces of furniture, book covers, buttons, toys of various kinds, &c., or we make the mould of plaster of Paris, (best calcined,) or other substance, which, when dried, will be porous and permit the escape of gases evolved from the matter under treatment, and all contained air, and thereby prevent the expansion of confined air and other gases from injuring the surface of the moulded substance; or we mould the article in a mould which is to produce the figure, and pack in sand or pulverized soapstone, or other like granular or pulverized substance, to support the other surface or surfaces of the article to be produced, and thus keep the face, which is to be figured, in contact with the partial mould of metal or plaster, or other material, and thus afford a free discharge for air and gases, whilst at the same time the moulds are greatly cheapened. The moulds or outer casing may be made of glass instead of iron or other metal, but we prefer the first mode of procedure, as it avoids entirely the use of moulds during the process of vulcanization. The sand, or other pulverized or granular material, having the effect thoroughly to support and retain the form previously given to the article by moulding or modelling. The prepared caoutchouc, gutta percha, &c., if it is to be imbedded in moistened plaster should be previously varnished; and to keep the surface of such articles to be thus vulcanized in sand smooth, India paper should be interposed between such surface and the sand.

FIELD FOR MANUFACTORIES IN AUSTRALIA.

There is such a field in the resources already developed in Australia for the enterprising manufacturers in this country, that we cannot but advert to it more fully; at

which they may not only realize a handsome remuneration for their skill and experience but, with the necessary means and appliances of capital and labor, are certain of amassing fortunes in a short time. As we have already mentioned, there is, even in the present early stage of colonial progress, a visible step in this direction. Such articles as leather, soap, tweed cloths, &c., are rapidly disappearing from the import list of the colony; and the numerous extensive manufactories of these articles of general consumption have amply rewarded their enterprising projectors. The transparent fact that the tweed-cloth manufacturers save the freight of the raw material to England and that of the manufactured article back to the seat of its production, is enough, we should say, to encourage the most cautious man in Yorkshire to establish broad-cloth looms in Australia, seeing that the coat worn, of this fabric, by the colonists, has circumnavigated the globe, between the sheep's back and his own. Surely there is some good profit to be made, notwithstanding the higher price of labor in the colony, by saving the intermediate expense of transit, where the wool travels 16,000 miles in its raw state to be manufactured. Those interested will find that this is only one of the many products in Australia, which could be turned to equally profitable account by the enterprising manufacturer. It seems surprising, even as it is, that writing and printing papers should be imported, when such abundant materials for their manufacture have been running to waste, among the calico-clothed population of these colonies; or that a wine-glass or tumbler should be imported, when such a pure element for the composition of crystal is to be found in the snow-white sands of Sydney and Newcastle.

Although much has been done, considering the age of these colonies, there is ample scope for capital and labor in this important field.—*Australia Visited and Revisited.*

ENCOURAGEMENT TO IRISH INDUSTRY.

The *Belfast Mercantile Journal* publishes some interesting details concerning the operation of the Parent Board of Irish Manufacture and Industry. It seems that, through their industrial schools, thousands of young girls who never before earned sixpence, have been so far instructed by the agency of this board as to be enabled to earn their own bread for the remainder of their lives. The society has introduced industrial training and manufactures into the workhouses, many of which have become almost self-supporting; and it aims at turning these institutions into schools of manufacture, in which the ignorant and unfortunate may be trained to various branches of industry. Many of the instructed have already been taken out, and are now independent useful members of society, while in some unions the demand for instructed hands exceeds the supply.

MANUFACTURE OF INSTRUMENTS IN SPAIN.

PHILOSOPHICAL, MUSICAL, AND SURGICAL INSTRUMENTS.

The manufacture of musical and surgical instruments, though represented in the Spanish section by a small number of articles, are not neglected in that country. On the contrary, Madrid, Barcelona, and other places, have already several factories for the manufacture of these articles; and in the last exhibition held in the former town, in November, 1850, there were some telegraphic apparatus, clocks for churches, more than twenty pianofortes, and a large number of wind instruments of wood and metal.

MANUFACTURE OF GLASS IN SPAIN.

Many of the provinces of Spain, particularly those of the north, possess manufactories of glass that partly supply their own wants. Some of these establishments produce very remarkable articles, not only for their good quality, but principally for their cheapness. Corunna, for its bottles and casting-glass; Gijon, (Oviedo,) for its shades; *La Luisiana*, (in the neighborhood of Reinosa, (Santander,) for plate-glass; Recuenco, Cadalso, (Madrid,) for all kinds of articles of common use; Seville, and many other places, by different circumstances, enjoy in the country some reputation.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

EXPORTS OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS FROM OHIO IN 1852.

We have taken pains, in the following article, to do what we believe has never before been done—to ascertain the exports of agricultural productions from Ohio for one year. We do this partly for the intrinsic value of such information; but partly also for its intimate connection with railroad traffic. By far the largest part of railway profits must be made up of the domestic produce of the country. Whether, therefore, the produce be in amount great or small, is a material question to railway interests. Ohio has the largest amount of railroads constructing; but, on the other hand, she has the largest amount of surplus produce to carry off. No other State in the Union compares with her in this respect. The following tables will amply illustrate this fact. Take the following general fact in advance:—In the year 1851 the wheat crop (which was carried off in 1852) was, in round numbers, thirty-five millions of bushels. This was about one-fourth the entire amount raised in the Union. The State contains two millions of people, and the consumption of breadstuffs was, therefore, twelve millions of bushels; and the surplus, twenty-three millions. Now we find, by the actual exports, that the following was the result of the year's operations:—

Wheat crop of 1851	35,000,000
Actual exports to 1st Oct., 1852	19,600,000
Actual consumption	12,000,000
Remaining on hand.....	3,400,000

About 10 per cent of the wheat crop of 1851 remained over to the next year. At Toledo there is a considerable amount of wheat and flour, arrived from Michigan and Indiana by the public improvements centering there. If we allow 1,600,000 bushels for this, then the actual exports of Ohio wheat, of the crop of 1851, was eighteen millions of bushels. Now, it appears by the Treasury Report on Commerce, that the entire exports of wheat and flour from the United States to foreign ports was much less than the exports of those articles from the State of Ohio! In other words, Ohio alone supplies all the breadstuffs exported from the United States, and a portion of that consumed North and South besides. Nor is this all. Ohio exports more agricultural products, and manufactures from agricultural products, than is exported from the whole United States, with the exception only of cotton and tobacco!

It comes to this, then, that though other Western States send much produce to the Atlantic, yet, if the exports of Ohio were taken out, or destroyed, there would not be *one bushel of breadstuffs or pound of meats to send abroad.* This, then, settles one point, that Ohio stands alone in regard to the Union, as the great producer of surpluses for foreign markets. The details of this general fact will be found in the tables below. In addition to the Reports of the Board of Public Works, we are indebted to the *Sandusky Register*, the *Cincinnati Price Current*, the collectors of Harmar and Portsmouth, the *Toledo Blade*, and private authorities. The general result will be found nearer the exact truth than is usually found in such tables:—

CINCINNATI.		SANDUSKY.	
Flour	408,211	Flour	310,483
Corn	51,231	Corn	266,569
Cheese	150,689	Wheat.....	2,485,412
Potatoes	23,844	Oats.....	31,043
Seeds.....	33,321	Clover seed.....	18,191
Oats.....	2,718	Timothy seed.....	16,209
Tobacco	15,200	Flax seed.....	15,320
Butter	1,639,000	Butter	500,000
Beef	33,026	Beef.....	330
Tallow	200,000	Hogs.....	90,477
Pork	139,458	Pork.....	10,569
Pork	3,912,943	Lard oil	3,290
Lard	355,145	Lard	12,022
Lard oil.....	241,830	Tobacco	3,200
Whisky	276,124	Whisky	12,240
Wool	683,783	Wool	2,023,785

HURON, VERMILLION, FREMONT, AND CLINTON.		Corn.....	360,446
Flour.....	bbls. 9,301	Oats.....	45
Wheat.....	bushels 591,155	Pork.....	bbls. 11,819
Corn.....	185,001	Lard.....	kegs 48,514
Oats.....	69,982	Whisky.....	bbls. 8,612
Beef.....	bbls. 856	Clover seed.....	bushels 2,806
Pork.....	904	Flax seed.....	330
Lard.....	kegs 625	Bacon, in bulk.....	lbs. 6,006,600
Whisky.....	bbls. 95	Tallow.....	28,301
TOLEDO.		Candles.....	15,674
Flour.....	bbls. 415,817	Cheese.....	69,355
Wheat.....	bushels 2,812,216	Wool.....	38,428
Corn.....	4,107,839	HARMAR.	
Flax seed.....	bbls. 6,077	Flour.....	bbls. 72,175
Pork.....	51,177	Wheat.....	bushels 7,115
Lard.....	kegs 134,155	Whisky.....	bbls. 815
Cattle.....	number 2,791	Corn.....	bushels 45,952
Beef.....	bbls. 23,198	Oats.....	25,351
Tallow.....	2,807	Pork.....	bbls. 239
Tobacco.....	hhds. 3,458	Lard.....	lbs. 155,216
Whisky.....	bbls. 53,704	Tallow.....	290,150
Hogs.....	41,295	Beef.....	bbls. 19
Wool.....	lbs. 748,600	Wool.....	lbs. 210,312
CLEVELAND.		Bacon, in bulk.....	812,120
Flour.....	bbls. 760,000	GALLIPOLIS.	
Wheat.....	bushels 3,500,000	Flour.....	bbls. 10,000
Corn.....	967,320	Beans.....	5,000
Seeds.....	3,000	POMEROY.	
Tobacco.....	hhds. 100	Flour.....	bbls. 5,000
Pork.....	bbls. 19,655	EASTERN COUNTIES.	
Lard.....	kegs 24,132	Tobacco.....	hhds. 5,000
Bacon.....	lbs. 1,500,000	Flour.....	bbls. 20,000
Beef.....	bbls. 20,000	BEEF CATTLE DRIVEN.	
Cattle.....	number 5,000	Pickaway county.....	7,000 head.
Hogs.....	50,000	Ross county.....	7,000 "
Butter.....	lbs. 1,500,000	Crawford, Marion, Pike, Huron, and other counties...	46,000 "
Cheese.....	1,000,000	Total.....	60,000 "
Whisky.....	bbls. 50,000		
Wool.....	lbs. 2,200,000		
PORTSMOUTH.			
Flour.....	bbls. 44,620		
Wheat.....	bushels 46,338		

The above comprises very nearly the total exports of agricultural products from Ohio, but is exclusive of manufactures and of mineral productions, which are also in large amounts. It will be observed, that we have reduced variable measures and quantities of the same article to a common standard, for convenience sake.

GRAND AGGREGATE.			
Flour.....	bbls. 2,055,607	Lard oil.....	bbls. 28,126
Wheat.....	bushels 9,392,236	Tallow.....	lbs. 521,258
Corn.....	6,193,127	Tobacco.....	hhds. 26,958
Beef.....	bbls. 82,429	Seeds.....	bush. 86,411
Cattle.....	number 67,791	Butter.....	lbs. 3,254,320
Pork.....	bbls. 233,871	Cheese.....	3,569,355
Lard.....	kegs 575,498	Whisky.....	bbls. 401,660
Hogs.....	number 181,772	Wool.....	lbs. 5,914,908
		Beans.....	bbls. 5,000

The above table does not include oats, potatoes, and other small articles; nor does it include articles manufactured from the products of agriculture or the forest—such

as soap, candles, potash, buckets, furniture, &c. These, in the aggregate, make several millions in value. Reducing the above to values, estimated at a medium price between the producer and the buyer, the result is:—

Flour and wheat	\$15,738,216
Corn	3,100,000
Beef and cattle	2,394,750
Pork, lard, lard oil, and hogs	7,994,290
Whisky	2,850,000
Wool	2,100,000
Tobacco	1,617,480
Butter, cheese, and tallow	750,000
Seeds	172,000
Miscellaneous	500,000
Manufactured articles from products of agriculture	3,000,000
Aggregate value	\$40,216,736

The correction of errors, if any, in the above table, would, we believe, increase the amount. This export is a surplus above the wants of the State, and therefore, in regard to the State, a clear profit. If we suppose the landed property of Ohio to be worth five hundred millions, (near, we think, the truth,) the net profit made upon it in 1852, was eight per cent.

In addition to this, the farmer receives the support of his family, rents, &c., so that, in fact, the actual returns of money invested in good farming land in Ohio, is considerably more than eight per cent.

Another fact, which will probably surprise most persons, is that the exports of agricultural produce from Ohio exceed that from the entire Union, except that of cotton and tobacco.

The following is the statement of agricultural exports from the United States, for the year ending June 30, 1852:—

Products of animals	\$7,399,655
Vegetable food	16,877,844
Manufactures of soap, candles, leather, boots, shoes, and furniture	1,734,821
Total	\$26,012,320

The exports (as above) from Ohio exceed those of the whole Union to foreign countries (of these articles) fully 6 per cent.

The forty millions of dollars received in 1852 by Ohio for her products, is almost entirely added to her capital, and will represent the year's increase in the actual value of property. Such a State, while such a state of things continues, is in the highest condition of commercial prosperity.*

THE CULTURE OF TOBACCO IN ALGERIA.

The culture of tobacco has been successfully introduced into the French colony of Algeria. Two crops a year are raised, at no distant intervals of time between them; the second, however, being generally inferior to the first, in consequence of the premature rains of autumn. That season last year was remarkably fine, however, and the second tobacco crop was of a superior quality, and in abundance. The amount purchased, according to custom, by the French government, and that set aside for local consumption and for exportation, give the total amount of tobacco produced in the colony, in 1852, as 1,400,000 kilogrammes. Of this quantity 700,000 kilogrammes will be used by government, taking the place of the same amount previously purchased in Hungary and America.

The present state of the crop, as indicating what it will be this year, promises a large increase on that of last year. The government, it is expected, will purchase 1,500,000 kilogrammes.

* We are indebted for these statements to the *Railroad Record*, published at Cincinnati, one of the ablest and most valuable publications of its class in the United States.

CINNAMON FIELDS OF CEYLON.

Our morning was, as usual on our first arrival, taken up by visits; in the afternoon we drove in Sir E. Barne's sociable through the far-famed cinnamon gardens, which covered upward of 17,000 acres of land on the coast, the largest of which are near Colombo. The plant thrives best in a poor, sandy soil, in a damp atmosphere; it grows wild in the woods to the size of a large apple tree, but when cultivated is never allowed to grow more than ten or twelve feet in height, each plant standing separate. The leaf is sometimes like that of the laurel in shape, but of a lighter color; when it first shoots out it is red, and changes gradually to green. It is now out of blossom; but I am told the flower is white, and appears when in full blossom to cover the garden. After hearing so much of the spicy gales from this island, I was much disappointed at not being able to discover any scent, at least from the plants, in passing through the garden; there is a very fragrant smelling flower growing under them, which at first led us into the belief that we smelt the cinnamon, but we were soon undeceived. On pulling off a leaf or twig, you perceived the spicy odor very strongly, but I was surprised to hear that the flower had little or none. As cinnamon forms the only considerable export of Ceylon, it is of course preserved with care. By the old Dutch law, the penalty for cutting a branch was no less than the loss of a hand; at present, a fine expiates the offense. The neighborhood of Colombo is particularly favorable to its growth, being well sheltered, with a high, equable temperature; and as showers fall frequently, though a whole day's heavy rain is uncommon, the ground is never parched.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS IN VIRGINIA.

OF PRODUCTION IN CORN, WHEAT, AND TOBACCO, AND AREA OF ACRES IN EIGHT COUNTIES OF EAST TENNESSEE, TRIBUTARY TO THE VIRGINIA AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

Counties.	Whites.	Blacks.	Total Population.	Bushels of Corn.	Bushels of Wheat.	Pounds Tobacco.	Area in Acres.
Carter.....	6,943	353	6,296	178,541	19,307	2,718	160,000
Cock.....	7,581	719	8,300	544,516	15,168	160,000
Granger....	11,335	1,035	12,370	488,968	29,452	15,196	199,680
Green.....	16,731	1,093	17,824	784,381	99,970	2,071	327,680
Hawkins...	11,680	1,690	13,370	550,136	43,381	3,021	285,720
Jefferson...	11,576	1,628	13,204	659,187	40,446	4,745	166,240
Johnson ...	3,499	206	3,705	87,801	6,925	1,801	163,200
Knox.....	16,560	2,193	8,755	861,703	39,611	20,231	317,440
Totals...	84,401	8,917	93,324	4,155,233	294,240	49,783	2,050,960

FLORIDA PAINT ROOT.

This root grows in great abundance in the flat woods, near the streams, and in the savannahs of the counties of Levy, Marion, and South Florida. It has a top similar to the flag, and a root about the size of a man's thumb, of various lengths, running horizontal, not far below the surface. It is very juicy, and of a deep red color. Hogs are exceedingly fond of it, and fatten on it rapidly, if they are black, or have black hoofs. It is said by the old settlers that hogs with white hoofs seem to founder, and their hoof comes off, which causes them to perish, unless fed well till they recover. Even when the animal has only one white hoof, and the others black, the white hoof comes off. The root colors the flesh, bones, and marrow of hogs that feed upon it, and the urine becomes of the color of blood. There is no doubt this root may be substituted for madder, and become a source of no inconsiderable traffic to the people of Florida. Like the arrow root or compta—it grows spontaneously in great abundance, and may be cultivated, if thought advantageous.—*Ocala (Fla.) Mirror.*

THE COTTON PLANT.

Professor Schouw traces the history of the diffusion of the cotton plant and cotton with a tolerable degree of probability to periods before the birth of Christ, when it was confined to India. Herodotus, who lived in the fifth century before Christ, relates that the Indians made their clothes of a wool grown on a plant.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

"THE MERCHANT PRINCE,"

We like poetry, although we deal largely in statistics. We can't say, however, that the following lines are exactly poetical, although versified after the manner in which true poets have written. Perhaps there is too much truth in the topic to admit of poetical license. We don't mean to say that poetry is a lie; for it not unfrequently conveys to the mind the highest truths, and is an inspiration from the "Good, the Beautiful, and the True." But, for the lines from "*Punch*," touching the "Merchant Prince," *not* of America, but England:—

"THE MERCHANT PRINCE."

The Merchant Prince of England,
What a glorious name he bears!
No minstrel tongue has ever sung
The deeds the hero dares.
Enlist that soldier in your cause,
No dangers bar his way,
But gallantly he draws his—*check*,
If the cause will only pay.

Where Freedom waves her banners,
He stands, her champion bold,
The noble English Merchant Prince
For her unlocks his gold;
For her the Prince's pulse
With generous ardor thrills.
If only sure that Freedom
Will duly meet her bills.

When scarce the gory bayonet
Upholds the Despot's throne,
The Merchant Prince, all chivalry,
Springs forward with a loan;
And vain a nation's cry to scare
That dauntless friend-in-need,
Provided only that the loan
Is safely guaranteed.

See, where a sovereign's crown rewards
A venturesome Parvent,
Crouches the Merchant Prince to kiss
His royal brother's shoe.
For trampled law, for broken vow,
No dolt his Princeship cares,
If that salute can raise, an eighth,
His gain on railway shares.

You, Christian of the slop-shop,
And you, usurious Jew,
Assert your royal blood, for both
Are Merchant Princes, too.
One common creed unites you,
Devout professor of it,
"There's but one Allah—Mammon,
And cent per cent's his profit."

What! blame some petty huckster
That his vote is bought and sold:
What! chide some wretched jurymen
That he blinked at guilt, for gold:
What! whip some crouching mendicant,
Who fawned that he might eat—
With the Merchant Prince of England
At the Third Napoleon's feet?

HOW TO PROSPER IN BUSINESS.

In the first place, make up your mind to accomplish whatever you undertake. Decide upon some particular employment, and persevere in it. All difficulties are overcome by diligence and assiduity.

Be not afraid to work with your own hands, and diligently too. "A cat in gloves catches no mice." "He who remains in the mill grinds, not he who goes and comes."

Attend to your business; never trust to another. "A pot that belongs to many, is ill stirred and worse boiled."

Be frugal. "That which will not make a pot, will make a potlid." "Save the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves."

Be abstemious. "Who dainties love shall beggars prove."

Rise early. "The sleeping fox catches no poultry." "Plough deep while slugs sleep, and you will have corn to sell and keep."

Treat every one with respect and civility. "Everything is gained and nothing lost by courtesy." "Good manners insure success."

Never anticipate wealth from any other source than labor; especially never place dependence upon becoming the possessor of an inheritance. "He who waits for dead men's shoes, may have to go for a long time barefoot." "He who runs after a shadow has a wearisome race."

Above all things, never despair. "God is where he was." "He helps those who trust in him," or, as Cromwell would say, "trust in God and keep their powder dry."

THE FRAUDS OF RETAIL TRADE.

The *Day Book*, in daguerreotyping, in a series of numbers, New York, discourses rather savagely of the retail trade. With what degree of truth we leave our readers, and especially those engaged in it, to decide.

It would be treating our subject imperfectly if we did not among the mercantile interests class, as deserving of attention, the great world of retail trade. And here we approach a sphere of every day experience in which our readers will not be obliged to take for granted any part of what we say, but of the absolute truth of which they themselves are abundantly aware. It is not too much to say that the frauds of retail trade, as practiced at the present day, exceed in meanness, thoroughness of moral depravity, and disregard of the decencies of common intercourse between man and man, anything and everything that has gone before. The exactions of Robin Hood and Masaniello were not much more expensive to their victims, and a thousand times more honorable to themselves, than those of the retail traders of New York. This remark is general and sweeping, and applies with almost equal truth to every branch of trade of every kind of commodity and product necessary for the daily wants of the person and the household. We fully believe that, let a stranger take a thousand dollars in cash, and start from the top of Broadway or any other shopping street, calling at every store, and purchasing whatever he first gets hold of at the price asked for it, without chaffering or beating down, he would not have, when his money was exhausted, property to the absolute value of fifty per cent of his capital.

From the marble dry goods palace, thronged with the princesses of our Yankee aristocracy, squandering their husband's thousands upon unnecessary and worthless gewgaws, to the Dutch corner grocery, frequented by its humble customers, purchasing their Saturday night's dole of rancid butter, doubtful sausages, and burnt pea-coffee, the principle is the same. In the dry goods trade, flimsy and half-manufactured American articles are passed off, and politely sworn to by the obliging clerks, as the first quality and most expensive foreign importations; while, in every article and commodity that will bear it, adulteration is the universal law. Sanded sugar, pea-coffee, and corn-meal mustard have long been standing jokes; but they are jokes of a practical nature, for which the hard-working and money-earning consumers pay millions of dollars every year. A moment's common sense view of the case will show that this must be so; that there must be some means for the innumerable class of merchants, or those who sell what they do not produce, to make their enormous profits from. This could not be otherwise. In the present condition of society, the mercantile class who do not literally produce, manage, by buying the products of other men's labors and selling them out again, to make five times as much money as the producers themselves. Who are they that live in magnificent houses, and drive splendid carriages, and give their costly entertainments—who control public opinion, are always found at the head of public movements—who distribute reputation to their inferiors, and guide and control the whole action of public affairs? They are the merchants and traders—those who in a natural and right-side-up state of things would not exist at all. In a true natural organized state of society such a class as merchants and traders could find no field for the exercise of their functions. The idea of creating and sustaining a class numbering one-fifth of the entire active money making world and absorbing one-third of its products without adding to it an ounce, or feather, is monstrous. It is practical infidelity, atheism, devilism. It is the curse of society, the curse of the world, the disgrace of the race, the enormous ink-spot on the history of humanity, that benevolent Time is hastening to wipe out. We look upon a great city like this, which, despite of all its greatness, fosters and gives birth, and nourishment, and support, annually to hundreds of broods of new blood-suckers, lawyers, and doctors, and professional gentlemen of all sorts, and especially of mousing and cheating tradesmen, as a great moral ulcer, as cities have before now been called—an ulcer, too, which must disappear and be transmuted into clean white flesh, before the moral leprosy that enscales the body of society will disappear.

Nor are the absolute robberies and extortions of trade its worst evils. The moral effect of its practice and its teachings—the blight it shoots from infancy over the expanding, enthusiastic soul of youth—the cold, absorbing lesson it instills, drop by drop, into the heart of noble, sympathizing nature in its child-like phases—the practical teachings of shrewdness and knowledge of the world, which cautious fathers and cal-

culating mothers are so prompt to impart to their offspring—are monstrous enough to convert the whole human race into devils: and when we think seriously of all these things, instead of wondering that mankind are so bad, we wonder that any of them are better, and that all are not worse.

COMMERCIAL GROWTH OF THE PACIFIC STATES.

The New Orleans *Picayune* notices the wonderful progress of Anglo-Saxon development on the shores of the Pacific, and expresses a belief that the time when the Pacific States and their interests will rival those of their Atlantic sisters, is not far remote. Says the *Picayune* :—

The Commerce that must soon spring up between our own ports on that coast and Australia and China, admits of no calculation. The vast importance of our whaling fleet in those seas, now the sole scene of the whale fishery, is well known. The traffic between San Francisco and the many isles that dot the Pacific and Indian oceans, the Sandwich and Society Islands, the Ladrões and Philippines, Batavia, and many others, already form an important item in its commercial statistics. Under the stimulus of our enterprise in the Pacific, a new life has been infused into the Commerce of the whole western coast of America. From some returns published in a late San Francisco paper, we make up the following table of the Pacific trade which already centers at that port. From the 1st of January to the 29th of May, the following were the ships and their tonnage arrived there :—

	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.
Mexican ports	24	5,388	Russian Possessions	3	1,054
Central American ports	15	1,308	Oceania	36	5,650
New Granadian ports	25	26,390	China	31	13,000
Peruvian ports	9	1,719	Australia	3	1,059
Chillian ports	60	21,799	Domestic Pacific ports	44	26,521
Vancouver's Island	5	883			
Total				255	104,716
Atlantic ports				232	144,317

When we reflect that this is the trade of a State not yet in its teens, we can but be surprised at the rapidity of its growth, which will challenge all history without finding its equal.

Alongside of this great State are the two prosperous Territories of Oregon and Washington, just budding into life.

The *Columbian*, published at Olympia, Washington Territory, speaks in the following terms of its immediate future as a State of the American Union :—

Our caloric, electro-magnetic, and steam vessels, navigating Puget Sound and the Columbia River, and with huge flying clipper ships, and a thousand of the small crafts now in use, conveying our immense foreign and domestic Commerce, and the five hundred whalers of the North Pacific, will arrive and depart “without our special wonder.” We shall enjoy direct and reliable mail facilities, and instantaneous telegraphic communication around the entire globe. Fortifications and an arsenal, a military asylum and marine hospital, a navy yard and a dry dock, light-houses, fog signals, and all of the usual provisions made by government, will be appropriately located for the public protection and welfare. Agriculture, milling, manufacturing, and all the various branches of husbandry and the mechanic arts, will be profitably employed; and so of the professions, save that of medicine.

Turning to the southward, we find the American press at Panama urging in strong terms the necessity of a line of American steamers along the western coast of South America from Panama to Valparaiso. The whole line of coast between the two ports is daily rising in commercial importance under the new life imparted to it by Californian demand and activity, and it is confidently stated, that with the immense resources of industry and Commerce now lying almost dormant in those countries, profitable employment would be given to the line. The establishment of such a line of American boats, it is asserted, would awaken energies now dormant, develop resources now hidden, and cultivate tastes and wants now but little known, to supply and gratify which would prove a source of immense wealth to our enterprising countrymen.

Chilli, that for many reasons claims to herself the title of "the England of South America," has found a fruitful field in her trade with California, and already places her second in the list of her customers. During the year 1852, England took of Chilian products values to the amount of a little over two and a half millions of dollars, being mostly ores and metals mined by English skill and capital; while California took something over one and a half million of dollars, nearly all in cereal products that had employed thousands of Chilian laborers in their culture. The comparative value to Chilli of the two customers is evident at a glance.

ENGLISH BOOKS AND BOOKSELLERS.

The *Westminster Review* for April contains an article on "English Books and Booksellers," from which much valuable information may be derived, not only respecting the trade in Great Britain, but in regard to the intentions of publishers there, in case America should pass an international copyright.

It seems that the taxation on books, in England, is as heavy as the onerous stamp duty on newspapers. In the first place, the paper on which they are printed pays a duty to the government of one-and-a-half pence per pound, which amounts to one-fifth of the price on most papers used for printing, the tax weighing heaviest on the lower priced, or those intended for cheap books for the people. The effect of this tax is to prevent manufacturers of moderate capital from making paper, for the duty has to be paid in cash, while the returns are never at less than six months, and often at a longer period, the paper being usually sold on time. This gives a virtual monopoly to a few wealthy manufacturers. It is estimated that the total result of the tax, directly and indirectly, is an increase of 8 per cent on a book sold for two shillings and sixpence. The "Miscellany of Tracts," a useful serial published by the Messrs. Chambers, was abandoned when it had a circulation of eighty thousand copies, in consequence of the paper duty consuming what ought to have been the profits. At the time the work was stopped twenty-five thousand dollars paper duty had been paid on it.

With such a drawback on the publication of cheap books, it is not to be wondered at that the English are not a reading people, at least as compared with the Americans. But there is another serious obstacle in the way of cheap books in England. The booksellers there, instead of sending their books out on commission, as is the practice here, have no method of making known a new work except by advertising, the result of which is that the advertising of a book averages not less than one-fourth of the entire cost. The sums paid for advertising by some of the leading booksellers in London, appear almost incredible. The *Westminster* states that Messrs. Colburn & Buzby, during the years they were in partnership, expended nearly fifty thousand dollars annually in this way. The cost of advertising weighs heaviest on low priced books, the amount disbursed being the same generally, book for book, whether the price is two shillings or one guinea. As the government has a duty on advertisements, this item of expenditure is even higher than it would otherwise be. It has been calculated that the direct and indirect effect of this tax, in raising the total average cost of advertisements, is, at the very least, fifty per cent. Truly our British brethren have to pay at a round rate for the privilege of reading.

And yet, notwithstanding these drawbacks, a really well-printed book can be published in London cheaper than here. So fully satisfied are the English booksellers of this fact, that they propose, if ever an international copyright should be passed, to supply the American market with the London editions of all British works, by underselling the re-prints. The enormous capitals embarked in the publishing houses abroad will easily account for this ability to print books there cheaper than here. After paying the government duty on the paper, the London bookseller could yet turn out his volume at a lower price than his American rival, who has no duty to pay. The cost of composition would also be saved to the English bookseller, in issuing an edition to compete with an American re-print. It is evident, therefore, that an international copyright, of which we hear so much at present, would be a sad blow to the American trade, for it would virtually prevent them re-printing English books, even if they bought the privilege from the author. American publishers would soon find themselves confined to the issuing of original American works. This would take large sums of money annually out of the country, and would cripple printing, paper-making and many other branches of manufacture now pursued to advantage in the United States.

LECTURE FOR MISER MERCHANTS.

The *Louisville Journal*, in noticing the death of the late Robert G. Shaw, an eminent and most successful merchant of Boston, and commending the broad benevolence of his character and conduct to the consideration and imitation of all men of wealth, makes the following remarks on the folly of hoarding up the means of such vast usefulness:—

A man that hoards up his money, or uses it to make a vain display of wealth, such as his neighbors are not able to make, may be courted by toadies, or admired by the silly, but cannot be esteemed by those whose judgment is sound. Such a man has the means of doing extensive good, and he fails to do it. He neglects his essential duties, and, like all others who fail in the performance of duty, he becomes sinful, and his sinfulness must be expiated.

About the most pitiable and despicable wretch is he who labors to accumulate money for the mere sake of money, and who clings to it with unrelenting tenacity, until disease comes upon him, and death becomes a very certain result. Such a person, who has not the heart, although he has the means to be generous, is really very poor. He cannot spend money though he has it in abundance. He does not use it, and by his possessing it without making use of it, his moral feelings become corrupt, and his nobler and finer sensibilities are withered up. He is a wreck in heart and mind, with nothing but money on which to repose. He may be met with smiles, it is true; for, unfortunately, persons are to be found of such mean nature as to throw themselves at the feet of wealth; but the homage of such people is insulting, for it is directed to the idol's externals, and does not imply the existence of the quality that is not thoroughly contemptible. The worshippers of Mammon are afflicted with that poverty of spirit which a wise man would not have for the wealth of Croesus, and in comparison to which, poverty of pocket is a positive blessing. The victim of avarice would probably be the meanest worm that crawls along the pale of life, were it not for the fact that he has idolators, who are, if possible, still more degraded than himself.

A man who is making money ought to be most especially careful to guard against that incalculable curse, the intense love of money. If he at any time feels the hideous worm of avarice gnawing at his heart-strings, let him turn short about, and direct all his energies towards the extirpation of the fatal moral disease which has made its appearance in his bosom. Let him change his course without any hesitation or delay, for if there is any delay, avarice, like an oriental conqueror, will soon utterly devastate his whole nature, and leave him a thing to be despised and spit upon. Let him immediately become generous and charitable, and, by cultivating feelings which may be left, he will have nothing for avarice to prey upon. In this course his safety lies, and he cannot neglect it without irreparable, and blistered, and blackened heart of a victim of avarice all its hideous deformity, there is no man who would not loathe it, and who would not shun a like calamity as he would the plague. It is, indeed, worse than plague or famine, for the man who would accept a continuance of life on condition that he should surrender his heart to the dominion of avarice, would be the most absolute of all fools. Nobody ever saw a happy avaricious man. The wisdom and justice of Heaven have forever rendered the union of human comfort and avarice impossible.

ANECDOTE OF A CHINESE SMUGGLER.

The Chinese are, perhaps, the most cunning smugglers in the world. A California journal relates the following recent instance, which illustrates their system of tactics:—

A vessel had arrived from China, with a large number of Celestials on board. A revenue officer was placed on board, to see that no cargo was landed without authority. Among the passengers on board, one jolly looking old fellow attracted much attention by his extreme portliness. He had, in fact, a stomach of almost Falstaff's proportions. But some how or other he did not seem easy. His movements were ungainly and constrained; and the officer approached him and began to poke him jocosely about the paunch, when, to his surprise, a hollow sound was given back. He repeated his punches, this time for an object, and found John to have a prodigiously

hard and unyielding stomach. Here was a discovery. A custom-officer in pursuit of a smuggler is like a cat in pursuit of a dainty mouse. John was soon divested of his tunic and appurtenances, when lo, he appeared to have a tin stomach! A post-mortem examination was held upon the tin corporation, and strange to say, it was found full of opium! His entire tin stomach, contents included, were confiscated as contraband, and were sold at auction for the benefit of Uncle Sam's coffers.

SUCCESS AND ITS MEANS.

Individuals or communities who depend for prosperity in their fortunes on foreign aid, never thrive, says the *Belfast Signal*. True, for the secret of success in life is self-reliance. There is a sort of meanness in all dependence which is revolting to a magnanimous spirit; while it is a condition never incurred, except by those who are destitute of energy. Assistance may be sought after and received, but no man of manly principle will ever seek or become dependent upon another. Greatness of no kind has ever been achieved either by States or men, but through the diligent employment of inherent power and resources; and all observation attests that abject weakness and pusillanimity are ultimately the lot of such as derive whatever of happiness or strength they possess from external sources.

"In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread," though pronounced as a curse, has had, in its influence upon the material and social state of humanity, the virtue of a blessing, and it is fortunate that it is so. It was a wise and good Providence that imposed the obligation of labor upon mankind, and enforced it in every case by a law of compulsion none can violate with impunity. The natural necessity of personal industry and effort resulting from it, has compelled the exercise of human talent from the origin of the race, and produced that wonderful civilization to which we have advanced. All that has been accomplished by art and science in the progress the world has made—from the rude simplicity of primitive ages, to the refinement, power, and intelligence of the present time—is attributable to the inevitable need we are under to toil for every valuable addition to the comfort, elegance, and practical usefulness of life.

At no previous period has inventive genius been more busily employed in the cause of art. Almost every day witnesses some important contribution by it adapted to economize the operations of Commerce, and draw closer, by practically shortening time and space, the various relations of distant governments and communities. The world, in effect, is constantly contracting its dimensions under the magical influence of steam and telegraphs.

The age when "mountains interposed, made enemies of nations," has already passed away, and lands which once, "intersected by a narrow frith," abhorred each other, are now, through the agency of modern conveniences of communication, like kindred drops, mingling into one.

As a result of this growing intimacy, trade, with all its dependent industrial interests, is being continually stimulated; while its great metropolitan centers are daily multiplying in number, and respectively enlarging their capacity to receive the accumulated tides of wealth pouring into them through the thousand channels of traffic. Each, in a spirit of laudable ambition, is striving for ascendancy. Advantages of position are measured, local pride is excited, and the energies of municipal populations are strained to reach the highest possible pitch of relative prosperity. From this eager rivalry of cities emanate increasing and magnificent improvements; while by the same means labor is kept perpetually active, mechanical skill perfected, invention exercised upon new plans of operative utility, and riches, instead of becoming amassed in the coffers of the few, are forced into wholesale circulation and distributed, with some fair and safe proportion of equality, among the toiling millions of a State.

The race for commercial empire among community has, therefore, its salutary uses, and should be encouraged for their sake. Nowhere on the earth, at this time, is this generous kind of competition carried on with more ardor and greater vigor than in the United States. The abundant elements for progressive growth, and the elasticity of our youthful nation, have changed the savage wilderness into a republic in an incredible short space of time, and thickly covered it with towns, cities, and splendid rival estates, embracing nearly thirty millions of people. It is with redoubting zeal and ability developing physical resources, exhaustless as they are diversified, and is destined to build up upon this continent the most colossal dominion, civil and commercial, of which history has any record.

HOW TO IMPROVE A BUSINESS.

Col. Maurice, who has recently opened his splendid store in Chestnut-street, below Fourth, ascribes his success in business to judicious and liberal advertising. In a speech which he made to the press, on the occasion of opening his new store, he said: "I appropriate every year fifty per cent of my net profits to the use of 'Printer's ink.' Many of my old fogy friends attempted to reason with me on what they considered the folly of throwing away so much money on silly advertisements—for, gentlemen, some of my advertisements were a little funny, and rather out of the old stereotype style. I found, however, that they were not only read, but remembered. This was just the effect which I wished to produce. I always listened respectfully to their remonstrances, and then told them that in five years, if God spared my life and health, I would outstrip them in the race, unless they cut themselves loose from their old fogy and Rip Van Winkle notions, and keep up with the spirit of the age. My business grew up around me like a little child, each succeeding week being better than the last, until now I can boast of having, what is considered by many of my friends, the Model Blank-book and Stationery Establishment of Philadelphia. It is my intention to keep a large assortment of the best quality of goods, and then, with the mighty power of the press, which I consider second only to Omnipotence itself, let the 'whole world and the rest of mankind' know where they can be procured; and, by selling at the lowest market prices, hope to keep my little bark sailing before the wind, with all her colors flying.

"It is a great satisfaction for me, gentlemen of the press, to know, and I have no doubt but it will be equally gratifying for you to learn, that in the thousands of dollars I have appropriated to advertisements, I have never had occasion to dispute a single bill from any of your offices, nor have I ever suffered a bill to remain unpaid after it was due. I give you, in conclusion, the following sentiment:

"ADVERTISING!—What oil is to machinery, and oxygen is to the existence of animal life, judicious but liberal advertising is to success in business."

A VERY SHREWD DEALER IN SMALL WARES.

There lives, says the *Journal of Commerce*, not a thousand miles from Gotham, a dealer in small wares, whose greatest fear is of being overreached. He goes without milk in his coffee, in dread of buying a spoonful of Croton, and never pays for a newspaper, lest it should not be published to the end of the year. His little shop is without gas, for he has no faith in the meter, and he even dips his own candles, to insure that they are all tallow. In one thing he is liberal; he makes large purchases of counterfeit detectors, and buys an Extra if there are any whisperings of a broken bank. A neighbor of his was imposed upon the other day with a bank note which had been ingeniously altered from one to five; and our dealer has been on the watch ever since, for fear of a similar imposition. The other day, a young girl from the country stepped into his store and purchased a pair of stockings, offering a one dollar note in payment. The old man eyed the girl so sharply that her face became suffused with blushes, and this was, to him, an acknowledgment of guilt. "How dare you offer me this?" he asked, in an angry tone. "I thought it was good," she replied, timidly. "What is the matter with it?" asked a bystander, who had been attracted by the dispute; "it looks like a genuine note." "Genuine enough," said the shopkeeper, his face crimson with passion, "but, don't you see—its a one altered from a twenty."

THE SALMON FISHERY OF CALIFORNIA.

The *State Journal* says, there are four hundred boats on the river between Fremont and Suisun Bay, numbering two men and one gill-net to each boat. These boats are valued at \$150 each, giving an aggregate value of \$60,000. The gill-nets are valued at \$200 each, or \$80,000 in the aggregate. Besides these there are about 20 hauling seines valued at \$300 each, with an average of five men to each. The fishing season lasts from the first of February to the first of August, during which time the estimated average of each boat per day will be \$30, or an aggregate of \$12,000. The hauling seines \$100 each per day, or \$2,000 in the aggregate. From these data, one can easily judge the importance and magnitude of the salmon fisheries in California. The largest market at present for salmon is San Francisco.

THE THIRST FOR WEALTH.

We have taken the same liberty with the following homily from the *Episcopal Recorder*, that compilers of hymn books for public worship do with the authors of devotional piety, that is, altering, or varying a few of the phrases, and adapting the remarks to the unsectarian character of a Magazine which, like the Merchants', discourses from its monthly pulpit to "merchant," rather than "Christian" hearers.

How wise is the prayer of Agur! And how few there are who imbibe its spirit, and discern the perils of riches! Insensibly the desire of wealth grows upon us, and while our convictions are all the other way, we find our hearts clinging to the world's possessions as to their best good, and our hands are busily engaged in performing what the heart, wrapped in the love of the world, designs.

Our thoughts have been led into this channel by the account which the newspapers bring us, of the death of a very wealthy man—a person whose income was \$36,000 per annum, or three thousand dollars per month, of which he was in the regular receipt. We know nothing of his previous life, or of the mode in which he acquired his property, but as he is said to have been a returned Californian, it is to be presumed that he was one of the few who amassed immense fortunes in that country. His immense wealth caused the defronement of his reason, and having just purchased and fitted up a house in New York, in palatial style, he committed suicide by throwing himself under the wheels of a locomotive. The whole train passed over him, and he was almost literally ground to atoms.

Here, then, is an evidence how little wealth the most unbounded can do in conferring happiness. Thousands who read this account will only express their surprise, and declare that wealth could not thus have prostrated them. But none can tell what effect unexpected prosperity, or unlooked-for adversity, would have upon their mind and characters. The only One who knows all our hearts can decide what is best for us; and many a man lives on against his wishes, in comparative poverty and obscurity, to whom prosperity might prove a trial greater than he would be able to bear.

The desire for wealth, "covetousness, which is idolatry," is one of the most dangerous and deadening influences which can affect our Christian life. It cools our charity, and dampens our zeal. It closes our hearts against the appeals which must constantly be made to us, while the world is still filled with ignorance, poverty, vice, and crime. If all that is unwisely hoarded, and all that is worse than foolishly expended, could be turned to the great object of improving the moral, mental, and material condition of mankind; if men were more intent upon building up the reign of justice and benevolence, and less devoted to their own selfishness and pleasures, how different would be the report from the ends of the earth—and how would ignorance, vice, and suffering diminish in our midst.

COMMERCIAL VALUE OF HONESTY.

An old trader among the Northern Indians, who had some years ago established himself on the Wisseva, tells a good story, with a moral worth recollecting, about his first trials of trading with his red customers. The Indians, who evidently wanted goods, and had both money (which they called *shune ah*) and furs, flocked about his store, and examined his goods, but for some time bought nothing. Finally, their chief, with a large body of his followers, visited him, and accosting him with, "How do, Thomas; show me goods; I take four yard calico, three coonskins for yard, pay you by'm-by—to-morrow;" received his goods and left. Next day, he returned with his whole band, his blankets stuffed with coonskins. "American man, I pay now;" with this he began counting out the skins, until he had handed him over twelve. Then, after a moment's pause, he offered the trader one more, remarking, as he did it—"That's it." "I handed it back," said the trader, "telling him he owed me but twelve, and I would not cheat him." We continued to pass it back and forth, each one asserting that it belonged to the other. At last he appeared to be satisfied, gave me a scrutinizing look, placed the skin in the folds of his blanket, stepped to the door and gave a yell, and cried with a loud voice: "Come, come, and trade with the pale face, he no cheat Indian; his heart big." He then turned to me and said: "You take that skin, I tell Indian no trade with you—drive you off like a dog—but now you Indian's friend, and we your's." Before sundown I was waist deep in furs, and loaded down with cash. So I lost nothing by my honesty.

THE LIVERPOOL DOCKS,

The docks now in course of construction, as we learn from the *Liverpool Mercury*, at the extreme north end of the port of Liverpool, (the New York of Great Britain,) are rapidly approaching completion. The Huskisson dock, which is one of the largest in the world, is constructed for the accommodation of ocean steamships. The locks at the south end are finished. The dock itself is ready to receive vessels, water having been let in at the last spring tides; and workmen are busy paving the pier and parts of the quay, and constructing the locks at the north end. Large as the Bramly-Moore, Nelson, and other of the northern docks, finished in 1848, are, they are outtrived by this new evidence of what the genius and enterprise of Liverpool can effect. The width of the east lock-gates is 80 feet, 10 feet wider than the lock-gates of any dock hitherto constructed at this port; the west lock gates, 45 feet. The water area of the dock, 14 acres 3,451 yards, with quay-space to the extent of 1,122 yards. The water area of the east lock is 4,682 yards, with quay-space of 242 yards; and water area of the west lock, 3,650 yards, with quay-space of 330 yards. No sheds have at present been erected on the dock-quay, which is still in an unfinished state; but sheds have been constructed on the lock-quay, where arrangements have been made for unloading vessels and for the reception of cargoes. A large space of the west end of the lock-quay is set apart for a timber-yard, and the remaining portion by the side of the locks, will be used as the sites for sheds in which to stow away dry goods. The total water area of the wet-docks along the margin of the Mersey, belonging to the corporation of Liverpool, is now 177 acres 3,684 yards, with a quay-space of 12 miles and 1,412 yards; and of dry-basins, an area of 20 acres 892 yards, with quay-space of 1 mile 712 yards; making a total of 197 acres 4,576 yards of water area, and 14 miles 712 yards of quay-space; with a length of 5 miles and 20 yards of river wall. Independently of this large extent of dock space, other docks are yet to be formed, and excavations in reference to this object are going forward. The walls surrounding the Huskisson dock, as well as the north dock which have recently been constructed, and the Normanlike towers, to serve as offices to the gate-keepers, are built of granite, and combine considerable beauty and neatness with extraordinary durability and strength.

THE PURCHASE OF A BABY'S BONNET.

"One cold winter morning," says a gentle-hearted lady-writer in the *Home Journal*, "I looked into a milliner's shop, and there I saw a hale, hearty, and well-browned young fellow from the country, with his long cart whip, and lion shag coat, holding up some little matter, and turning it about in his great fist. And what do you suppose it was? A baby's bonnet! A little, soft, blue satin hood, with a swan's-down border, white as the frill of rich blond around the edge. By his side stood a very pretty woman, holding, with no small pride, the baby, for evidently it was *the* baby. And one could read the fact in every glance, as they looked at each other, and at the little hood, and then at the large, blue, unconscious eye, and fat dimpled cheeks of the little one. It was evident that neither of them had ever seen a baby like that before! 'But, really, Mary,' said the young man, 'is not three dollars very high?' Mary, very prudently, said nothing, but taking the hood, tied it on the little head, and held up the baby. The man looked and grinned, and without another word, down went the three dollars, (all the last week's butter came to,) and, as they walked out of the shop, it is hard to say which looked the most delighted with the bargain. 'Ah,' thought I, 'a little child shall lead them.'"

HOW THE DIME HIDES THE DOLLAR.

Dr. Buckley, in one of his lectures, made use of an illustration:—Holding a dime close to his eyes with one hand, and a half dollar at some distance with the other said he, "Now, I cannot see the half dollar with this eye, for the dime is so near, it obscures my vision. So it is with mankind; in their eagerness to save one dollar, they often lose sight of the fifty within their reach." This is a very apt illustration of the benefits the merchant would derive from a careful perusal of the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*. As an illustration, a merchant informed us a short time since, that an article in one number had saved him more than the subscription price of the work from its commencement, and that he could well afford to pay the subscription out of that saving for a generation to come.

PATENT SHIP FIRE-ENGINE.

"We some time ago," says the *North Wales Chronicle*, "noted the performance of Merryweather's ship patent fire-engine Prince of Wales, on the Liverpool Exchange flags, before a numerous assemblage of agents for fire-insurance companies, chairmen of our corporate bodies, their engineers, shipowners, and others equally interested, and we are induced again to revert to it in consequence of the many recent catastrophes occurring through fire on shipboard at sea. It was certainly a wise regulation of the government, compelling all ships to carry a fire engine, but the generality of those used for the purpose are so ill adapted, that in sudden and fearful emergencies they are almost useless. Where these little "Sampsons" have been at hand and properly applied, they have invariably proved successful, and saved both life and property. The manufacturer (who as an engineer has had vast experience) claims for his patent the merit of combining great power of propulsion in a small space, and when we consider that it is capable of throwing a continuous stream of water, an inch in diameter, in an upright or vertical direction, seventy feet, and horizontally ninety feet, we think he is fully justified in publishing his achievement. In certain or suspected cases of fire at sea, by a trifling alteration, and the covering of a smoke-proof dress, a man is enabled to go below and seek out its locality, working an air-pump to assist him in applying the hose to its origin, and had the unfortunate *Ocean Monarch*, or the ill-fated *Amazon*, been able to have availed themselves of such a machine, what a blessing it would have created. The recent burning of the *Independence* is another instance of the necessity for such services. When the fire rages to an extent that people can no longer stand the decks, and hope gives way to despair, it may be hoisted into the ship's longboat, and applied at a distance, and even thus effect salvation. Finally, for sanitary purposes, or wetting sails in hot latitudes, for which the feathered jet is so admirably invented, it is pre-eminent. We have expatiated thus largely from impartial and philanthropic motives; for what is there in the world more harrowing or dreadful to contemplate than a ship on fire in the bosom of the briny ocean, far from the reach of human aid, or without anything to counteract the devastating element, than perhaps a solitary bucket, or the mockery of an inefficient engine? What an emollient to the feelings, under such circumstances, to know that a safeguard is on board.

PUNCH'S ELUCIDATION OF THE INCOME TAX.

Punch says, the In-come Tax is a fun-ny Thing. It is a Tax up-on a Man's In-come. A Man's In-come is all the Mo-ney he gets in one year. Many a Man has no-thing else in the World than the Mo-ney he gets in one Year. He pays In-come Tax on all that Mo-ney. He pays Se-ven Pence out of ev-e-ry Pound of it. Mo-ney is Pro-per-ty. If a Man has No-thing else than the Mo-ney he gets in one Year, that mo-ney is all his Pro-per-ty. So, if he pays In-come Tax up-on it, he pays a Tax on all the Pro-per-ty he has got. But ma-ny Men have a great deal more Pro-per-ty than the Mo-ney they get in one Year. Some have Twen-ty Times as much Pro-per-ty as that. Yet they only pay a Tax on the Mo-ney they get in one Year. They pay no more than Se-ven Pence out of ev-e-ry Pound of that Mo-ney. They do not pay a Far-thing out of all their o-ther Pounds. So, the In-come Tax is a Tax on all one Man's Pro-per-ty and on on-ly Part of a no-ther's. Mr. GLAD-STONE says this is just. If Mr. GLAD-STONE had no-thing but what he could earn, he would not be so well off as he is now. And yet he might have to pay Se-ven Pence out of e-ve-ry Pound he was worth. Mr. GLAD-STONE would not be glad then. He would be Sor-ry. I do not think he would call the In-come Tax just a-ny longer; do you?

MACHINE FOR DETERMINING A SHIP'S LONGITUDE.

JOHN MOORE, of Wexford, Ireland, has taken out a patent for determining a ship's longitude. This instrument consists of two graduated brass circles intersecting each other, and a third circle equatorial to these two. The position of these circles is capable of being adjusted with reference to each other, and they are used in combination with a fourth circle, also graduated, which forms a great circle to the skeleton globe composed of the intersecting circles mentioned. The modes of using these circles vary with the nature of the particular position requiring to be solved.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Memoirs of the Life of the Right Honorable Sir James Mackintosh, Esq.* Edited by his Son, ROBERT JAMES MACKINTOSH, ESQ. From the Second London Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo., pp. 499 & 525. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

These volumes consist almost exclusively of extracts from the letters and journals of Sir James Mackintosh. Sufficient care, however, has been bestowed upon their arrangement and connection, to make them afford an extremely interesting representation of the workings of the mind of their distinguished author. The early life of this eminent man, his school and college days, his efforts as a young physician in the city of London, the growth of his tastes, his final abandonment of the medical for the legal profession, his sudden and startling notoriety in consequence of an able pamphlet in "Defense of the French," against the arguments of the eloquent Burke, his career as a lawyer, his Lectures on the Laws of Nature and Nations, his appointment as a judge, his voyage and administration in India, are presented as landmarks in his life, the great intervals of which were filled up by most interesting and instructive views of his thoughts and feelings, and his intercourse with distinguished literary and public men of his day. But properly to appreciate Sir James Mackintosh, properly to value the details of his letters and journals, he must be regarded through his philosophical works. When viewed in this light, that rare elevation of character which he possessed, that singular kindliness of spirit which diffused itself, like a benignant glow, through all the operations of his masterly mind, turning then to the contemplation of truth and virtue as the field of his rare delight, shine out in every passage and expression of his inmost thoughts. The distinctions which he obtained in public life, his parliamentary and judicial career, are, in these volumes, entirely lost sight of, in the prominence of the man and the scholar. We regard these volumes as among the most choice and valuable which have of late been issued by the American press. No one who knows the character of the original, can be without an interest in them. They are printed in that admirable style which marks all the publications of Messrs. Little & Brown, and are worthy representatives of the art in this country. We cannot withdraw from them without acknowledging our obligations to the publishers for bringing out such a meritorious work in such an excellent and substantial manner.

- 2.—*The Romance of Abelard and Heloise.* 12mo., pp. 266. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Under this title, the very successful translator of Cousin's Philosophy has furnished an original, authentic, spirited delineation of the most interesting experience of the Middle Ages. By a thorough study of Abelard's peculiar philosophy, Mr. Wight has seized upon the clue to the mystery of the hard usage which befell the great reasoner, the leading mind, the intellectual discoverer of his day. To the man, he does more than justice: because, more cold-blooded selfishness than that which exacted a convent life of Heloise after the outrage offered by Abelard, never existed in human form. The self-sacrificing wife shines through the whole narrative, making it a history of which a woman might well boast. Marriage is refused by her, at first, (necessary as it seemed to her fame,) lest it should injure his reputation; then it is concealed for the same reason and denied; last of all, in the fullness of her beauty and the splendor of her intellect, she buries herself alive in a nunnery, simply to save the priestly philosopher from jealousy about a woman whose charms electrified Paris. Abelard's end reminds one of Wolsey's, being as sad as his worst enemy could have asked, and an ample atonement for the sins of his early life, his pride, passion, and obstinacy. This biography supplies a want, sparkles with life, and is crowded with earnest thought.

- 3.—*The Old House by the River.* By the author of Owl Creek Letters. 12mo., pp. 318. New York: Harper and Brothers.

This volume contains fifteen sketches, gracefully written, many of which will "lead the minds of those who in the busy scenes of the world are forgetting their own histories, back to the gentler and purer days when the springs of life gushed cool, deep fountains, unstained and sparkling in the light of heaven."

- 4.—*Bishop Butler's Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature.* With an analysis, left unfinished by the late Rev. ROBERT EMORY, D. D. Completed and edited with a life of Bishop Butler, notes, and index, by G. K. Crooks. 12mo., pp. 364. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Butler's Analogy, as it is called, is well known to the public as a work of the highest merit. The new features of this edition are valuable. The Analysis, chiefly by Dr. Emory, is very clear and satisfactory, comprehending also all the important points of the work. The biographical sketch contains some new facts which have not heretofore been published in this country. The notes have been, in part, prepared by the editor, and partly selected from Dr. Chalmer's Lectures, and from the edition of the work by Professor Fitzgerald. They are designed mainly for the elucidation of the text, rather than for comment. An index was prepared during the lifetime of Bishop Butler, which was afterwards revised and approved by himself. The index of this volume is based upon that one. The work is issued in very good style, and forms one of the best editions before the public.

- 5.—*The Prophets and Kings of the Old Testament.* A Series of Sermons Preached in the Chapel of Trucolus Nino. By FREDERICK DENISON MAURICE. 12mo., pp. 466. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

This volume contains twenty-seven sermons, selected, we presume, from the author's regular Sunday performances. In these sermons Mr. Maurice attempts to show that the history of the "Prophets and Kings of the Old Testament," is as directly applicable to the modern world as any Covenant ever dreamed—but that it is applicable, because it is a continual witness for a God of Righteousness. However we may differ from the views of the author, we must acknowledge the earnest spirit in which he illustrates what he conceives to be religious truth and duty. His views of the Old Testament will not find much sympathy among the philosophical thinkers of our time, especially among those who make it their business to copy German models.

- 6.—*The Pedestrian in France and Switzerland.* By GEORGE BURRELL. Author of "Bubbles of Fiction." 12mo., pp. 312. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

This unassuming volume contains a very agreeable account of what the author saw during an extensive tour through France, Switzerland, and neighboring countries. Traveling on foot, in the garb of a peasant, Mr. Burrell had an opportunity of mixing with that portion of the population least seen by tourists. And the knowledge thus acquired is communicated in a manner that cannot fail of interesting all who feel an interest in the humanities of humble life.

- 7.—*The Child's Matins and Vespers.* By a Mother. 32mo., pp. 159. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

An excellent little manual of devotion, for every day in three weeks; embracing also reflections on the "Commandments of God." It is designed to help little children think seriously, and keep alive the feelings of love and confidence, towards their heavenly father.

- 8.—*A Pen-and-Ink Panorama of New York Life.* By CORNELIUS MATTHEWS. New York: John S. Taylor.

Mr. Matthews, though not an artist in the sense of Banvard and Frankenstein, the famous panorama painters, is a most humorous and graphic delineator of life in New York; and, with pen and ink, is probably without a compeer in drawing the oddities and peculiarities of home-life in Gotham.

- 9.—*Cranford.* By the author of "Mary Barton," "Ruth," &c. 18mo., pp. 329. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Those who read and admired the "Mary Barton" or the "Ruth" of the same writer, will need in the present instance no further inducement. They will find it contains most of the same characteristics of excellence in matter and in manner.

- 10.—*The Chapel of the Hermits, and Other Poems.* By JOHN G. WHITTIER. 12mo., pp. 118. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

The name of Whittier will be a sufficient recommendation to his admirers. Good sense, easy and graceful versification, and a true appreciation of the good and the true, characterize the poetical productions of the author.

- 11.—*The Society of Friends: a Domestic Narrative, illustrating the peculiar Doctrines held by the Disciples of George Fox.* By MRS. J. R. GREER, author of "Quakerism; or, the Story of My Life." 12mo., pp. 342. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The design of this work, as declared by the writer, is to direct attention to the peculiar doctrines held by the Society of Friends. Mrs. Greer entertains the very charitable opinion that the "Friends" "worship only nothingness," and she regards their silent meetings, "without Bible, prayer, praise, or thanksgiving," most appropriate homage to that idol. It is a sort of religious novel, designed to show, as Dr. Cox said in the title of a book published some years since, that "Quakerism is not Christianity." Those who agree with the author will doubtless be convinced that she demonstrated her positions. She, of course, appeals to the "Book, where each his dogma seeks, and each his dogma finds."

- 12.—*A Manual of Greek Literature, from the Earliest Authentic Periods to the Close of the Byzantine Era.* By CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D., Professor of the Greek and Latin Languages in Columbia College, Rector of the Grammar School, &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 580. New York: Harper & Brothers.

In the preparation of this volume, Dr. Anthon has consulted more than fifty different works; and it embraces in its plan the whole range of Greek Literature, from the earliest periods down to the close of the Byzantine era. Besides a brief account of each successive development in the Grecian mind, it contains lengthened sketches of all the most eminent writers who flourished in the limits just mentioned. It also embraces a rapid survey of the different schools of Greek philosophy, the medical systems of Greece, and the elements of the mathematical sciences.

- 13.—*The Teacher and the Parent: a Treatise upon Common-School Education; containing Practical Suggestions to Teachers and Parents.* By CHARLES NORTHEND, A. M., Superintendent of Public Schools, Danvers, Mass. 12mo., pp. 327. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

Twenty years' experience as an instructor in public schools in Massachusetts, has enabled the author to appreciate the nature of the teacher's work, and the qualifications essential to a wise discharge of its appropriate duties; and he has, in our judgment, produced a treatise replete with plain, practical suggestions, and one that cannot fail of proving valuable to the teacher in the performance of his important and arduous duties. We are not acquainted with a more useful work on the same subject.

- 14.—*Homeopathic Domestic Practice; containing also Chapters on Anatomy, Physiology, Hygiene, and an abridged Materia Medica.* By EGBERT GUERNSEY, M. D. New York: Wm. Radde.

With a proper understanding of the laws of nature, all possess the power, to a certain extent, of warding off disease, of preventing a vast amount of suffering, and prolonging their own lives. The work before us seems to embody just that kind of information which any family relying upon the homeopathic system of medicine should possess. It is clearly written by a man who is familiar with the anatomy of the human system, and whose faith in the remedial agents employed by the founder of the system, is based upon a large experience and more than ordinary learning.

- 15.—*Miscellaneous Writings on Slavery.* By WILLIAM JAY. 12mo., pp. 670. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

The present volume embraces a collection of Mr. Jay's addresses, letters, and essays on the subject of slavery. Mr. Jay, it is well known, takes strong anti-slavery ground, is opposed to the objects of the Colonization Society, and regards American slavery as "a heinous sin," and one that "ought to be immediately abandoned." He has labored long and arduously with his pen in the cause of Abolitionism, and what ever his opponents may think of the expediency or utility of his efforts in that direction, they must concede to him ability, with earnestness and honesty of purpose.

- 16.—*Abecadaire. Francais and Anglais. Illustre suivi d'un Vocabulaire Pittoresque, contenant environ 500 vignettes a l'usage des deux nations.* Par J. D. L. ZEUDER. 12mo., pp. 48. New York: John C. Riker.

- 17.—*Lorenté's History of the Inquisition in Spain.* By DON JUAN ANTONIO LORENTE, formerly Secretary of the Inquisition. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

- 18.—*My Home in Tasmania; or Nine Years in Australia.* By Mrs. CHARLES MEREDITH, author of "Notes and Sketches in New South Wales." 12mo., pp. 370. New York: Bunce & Brother.

Tasmania is the name the Dutch, who were the original discoverers, bestowed upon Australia. The recent discovery of gold in that country has served to awaken a very general and absorbing interest in regard to the country throughout the commercial world. The present volume abounds in graphic pictures, and will be read with interest by all who contemplate a "trip to Australia." It contains a fund of valuable information, and apparently reliable, conveyed in a most pleasing and intelligible manner, the results of a long sojourn in the land, and the reflex of a life peculiarly subject to all the vicissitudes attendant upon a settlement in a strange country.

- 19.—*The New Orleans Sketch Book.* By "Stahl," author of "The Portfolio of a Southern Medical Student." With original designs. 12mo., pp. 202, (paper cover.) Philadelphia: A. Hart, late Carey & Hart.

This forms one of the series of Hart's "Library of Humorous Books." Dr. G. M. Wharton, the author, who is now connected with the New Orleans *Delta*, has thrown, as he informs us, "physic to the dogs," and taken to the "grey goose quill," and we are inclined to think he has not missed his vocation, for, however skillful in the practice of medicine, his good humor and rare wit will, in our opinion, be more effectual in alleviating the ills to which flesh and blood is heir than nauseating drugs.

- 20.—*Notabilities in France and England.* With a Biography by Philarete Charles, Professor of the Paris Institute. 12mo., pp. 228. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

This is a translation from Charles' "Studies upon Men and Manners of the Nineteenth Century," and consists of recollections of youth, contemporary portraits, sketches of travel, and thoughts upon France. The subjects embraced in the present volume are an autobiography, residence in England, English society in 1817, scenes of life in Ireland, seashore scenes, &c., &c. Good strong sense and a gleam of moral feeling pervade every page and paragraph of Charles' writings.

- 21.—*Writings of B. B. Edmonds; with a Memoir* by EDWARD A. PARK. In 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 491 and 500. Boston: John Jewett & Co.

The larger part of the first volume is devoted to a memoir of Professor Edmonds, and the remainder, together with the whole of the second volume, is selected from the numerous published essays and the voluminous manuscripts left by Mr. Edmonds. The editor has aimed to select those which would exhibit most accurately the author's varied talents and acquisitions, and also his mental and moral growth. The two volumes will form a most valuable contribution to the literature of theology.

- 22.—*Liberties of America.* By H. W. WARNER, of New York, 12mo., pp. 280. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

The practical interest which every American takes in the topic of Liberty will make amends for its triteness. The subjects discussed in the present volume are:—Liberty as a Principle, Liberty of Place, of Pleasure-seeking, of Business, of Trade, of Conscience or Religion, Political Liberty, &c. There ought to be, says the author, a *literature of freedom*, accessible to everybody, and suited, if possible, to everybody's wants. Mr. Warner's essays may be regarded as a pioneer effort in that direction.

- 23.—*A Memorial of Horatio Greenough; consisting of a Memoir, Selections from his Writings, and Tributes to his Genius.* By H. T. TUCKERMAN. 12mo., pp. 245. New York: Geo. P. Putnam & Co.

This volume contains a beautiful and appropriate memoir of the life and character of the artist, from the pen of Mr. Tuckerman, a chaste and graphic writer, and one who understands and appreciates art in its highest and best sense. The remainder of the volume embraces some essays of the artist, and tributes to his genius and his memory by other well-known and popular writers.

- 24.—*Echoes of a Belle; or, Voice from the Past.* By BEN SHADOW. 12mo., pp. 196. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

This volume is dedicated to the late Fennimore Cooper, with whom the writer was on terms of intimacy and friendship. As an American tale it will attract the attention of all who prefer the freshness and vigor of home letters and home scenes. It is written in a chaste and agreeable style.