HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME XXX. JUNE, 1854. NUMBER VI.

CONTENTS OF NO. VI., VOL. XXX.

ARTICLES.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW:

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

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE BOOK TRADE.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JUNE, 1854.

Art. I.—THE CAMEL AND ITS COMMERCIAL VALUE.*

THE camel has been associated in all past historical ages with the Commerce and civilization of mankind. The record of its services commences with the patriarchal epoch, and its earliest performances are recorded in Genesis, the earliest of books. The Commerce of Central and Eastern Asia—from the Mediterranean to the mouth of the Amour, and from Northern Tartary to the confines of China and the coast of the Persian Gulf; and of Africa—from the Mediterranean to the Equatorial line, and from the Red Sea to the Atlantic Ocean—is dependent for its existence upon this animal. To the advantages which would attend its introduction into the Western deserts and plains of this continent, the attention of the public has of late been somewhat drawn. Our predecessors in the vast territories recently acquired by us were content with the horse which was introduced by their forefathers, the *Conquestadores*. The American conqueror, aiming to accomplish his mission of civilization by Commerce and its train of consequences, will introduce the camel, and thus fix the second great epoch in the history of the domestication of animals useful to man on this continent. Symptoms of this are manifesting themselves in various quarters. Before the close of the past year, the acclimation of the camel was submitted to the consideration of Congress by one of the principal departments of the government, whose chief—a gentleman of great capacity and very comprehensive mind—earnestly and forcibly recommended the introduction of the animal; and still later, we find the Legislature of the State of New York giving its aid and sanction to the same project, by the passage of a liberal and favorable act of incorporation of the "American Camel Company." Mr. Erastus Brooks, one of the representatives of this city in the Senate of the State, well informed on the subject of commercial history, and whose

* Secretary of War's Report, Dec. 1, 1853. Act of the New York Legislature to incorporate the American Camel Company, April 15, 1854.

active intelligence enabled him to appreciate the advantages of camel transportation, introduced the bill, and under his auspices it became a law.

As the present time, therefore, would seem to be a juncture at which an outline of the natural history of the camel may gratify legitimate curiosity and interest, some pains have been taken to collect, from numerous sources, the following facts, showing very conclusively that the camel is the animal of all others best adapted for facilitating and extending commercial intercourse over the deserts and plains intervening between the Mississippi and Pacific Ocean.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE CAMEL.

General Characteristics. The camel, belonging to the class of ruminants, is one of the larger quadrupeds, being six or seven feet from the ground to the highest part of the back, and carrying its head, when erect, about nine feet above the plane of its position. The carcase weighs about three or four hundred pounds; but the size and weight are far from being alike in all. The neck is long and slender, and seems to grow out of the lower part of the body, between the fore legs. The head is small, and the ears short; the eyes are of various colors—from a black to almost a white—bright, and sparkling with instinctive intelligence, and placed on the sides of the head in such a manner that the animal can see before, behind, and on every side. The tail is short and hangs down, with a small bunch at the end. The legs are long and slender, though their points are stout and strong. The feet are divided somewhat like those of an ox, with hoofs on the extreme points of the toes; the soles are soft, yielding, and remarkably broad, and, being made like little cushions, produce a very trifling impression upon a vacillating surface.

Notwithstanding, however, this softness of its foot, the camel can walk over the roughest roads, stones, sharp thorns, and roots of trees, without being hurt. Under such circumstances the animal is sometimes provided with shoes of sheepskin.

The camel is generally of a light color, from which it varies to a dark-brown, and sometimes reddish-brown. It is also marked with white spots or stripes on the forehead and on different parts of the body. It is subject to the mange, to cure which the Arabs bedaub it with *kitran*, or tar. Physiologists, in accounting for the peculiar property of the camel in resisting the want of water, have supposed that it is provided with an additional stomach, of particular conformation, to retain what is imbibed. But it does not appear that there is a particular reservoir for the purpose; and there is reason to think that the same end is attained by the singular structure of the second stomach, being composed of numerous cells, several inches deep, the orifices of which are apparently susceptible of muscular contraction. It is conjectured that when the animal drinks, it has the power of directing the water into these cells, instead of allowing its passage into the second stomach. From the structure of the second stomach, it neither receives food in the first instance, nor does it afterward pass into its cavity. The orifice of the cells composing it are so constructed as to prevent the entrance of solid food into them.

Of all animals, the camel is the most ancient, the completest, and the most laborious slave. It is the most ancient slave, because it inhabits those climates where men were first polished. It is the most complete slave, because of the other species of domestic animals, such as the horse, the dog, the ox, the sheep, the hog, we still find individuals in a state of nature, and

which have not submitted to man. But the whole species of camel is enslaved, for none of them exist in their primitive state of liberty and independence. Lastly, it is the most laborious slave, because it is never kept for pomp, amusement, or the use of the table, like other domestic animals, but is always made a beast of burden; its body being regarded as a living carriage, which its master may load or overload even during sleep. Buffon, *Histoire Naturelle;* Col. Hamilton Smyth's Supplement to Cuvier; Jardine's Natural History of Ruminating Animals; Huc's Recollections of a Journey in Tartary; Pananti's Residence in Algiers.

Fleece—Fabrics. The camel annually casts its hair, in the spring, and it all goes, to the last fragment, before the new comes on. For about 20 days it is as naked as if it had been clean shaved from head to tail. While in this state, it is extemely sensitive to cold, rain, and the annoyance of flies, from which latter its keeper is careful to preserve it by the application of tar. But by degrees the hair grows again; at first it is extremely fine and beautiful, and when it is once more long and thick, the camel can brave the severest frost. The fleece of an ordinary camel weighs about ten pounds; but its color and abundance depend entirely on the particular species of camel and the climate which it inhabits. That of the Arabian camel is thin and whitish; that of the Bactrian camel, thicker and darker-colored. From the hair a coarse kind of clothing, almost impermeable to water, is made for camel drivers and shepherds; and the same commodity, for an analogous purpose, is used as wrappers of merchandise long exposed to wet in heavy rains. But in Persia and the Crimea more valuable manufactures are produced in narrow cloths of different colors, and fine stockings, of which white are the highest priced. It is wrought into shawls, carpets, and coverings for the tents of the Arabs. The Tartar women of the plains manufacture a kind of warm, soft, and light narrow cloth from the hair of the Bactrian camel, preserving the natural colors. The hair, of different colors, is an article of export from Asia and Africa; its value is proportioned to the fineness and depth of color, that which is black being the dearest. Huc; Griffith's Animal Kingdom; Pallas' Travels.

Milk—Flesh. The Arab generally rises before early dawn, and his first task is to milk his camels, who have been prevented straying away from his tent during the night, by tying up one of their legs and fastening it with a noose; while at the same time he removes a net which is placed so as to prevent the young camels sucking the mothers, until a certain portion of the milk is drawn for the use of the tent. The milk is excellent, both for butter and cheese. The natives of Africa esteem camel's flesh more than that of any other animal. It is related that Heliogabalus had camel's flesh served at his banquets, and that he was especially partial to the foot. This latter dainty the emperor had the honor of discovering. Huc; Pananti; Lord's Algiers; Moll, *Agriculture de l'Algerie.*

Food—Sustenance. Properties which are denied to the greater portion of quadrupeds are possessed by the camel, and in their fullest extent converted to the use of mankind. It feeds on thistles, on the stunted shrubs and withered herbage of the desert, and can pass successive days in total want of water, thus seeming as if purposely designed by nature for the most cheerless and inhospitable regions. It is exceedingly fond of the huge succulent leaves of the cactus, the strong, needle-like thorns seeming to act upon its leathern palate as an agreeable stimulant. It also munches with great gusto the dry bones with which the routes in the desert are

strewn. On long journeys over a desert destitute of herbage, a few beans or flower-balls, or a little barley, suffice to enable it to perform its task. Pliny's observation of camels disturbing the water with their feet is very just, and it may further be observed that they are a long time in drinking —first of all, thrusting their heads a great way above their nostrils into the water, and then making several successive draughts in the same manner as pigeons. Over large expanses of desert, where the soil is dry and powdered with saline matter, the water, when water there is, is brackish. This want of fresh streams is very unfavorable to cattle, but occasions no suffering to the camel, which delights in salt in every shape. Huc; Moll; Richardson's Travels; Blofield's Algeria; Kennedy's Algeria and Tunis.

Motion. The motion of the camel is unlike that of most other animals. Both the feet on the same side are successively raised, and not alternately like those of a horse. As it thus advances two common paces of the horse at a time, it costs it less exertion to go over the same distance. Pananti; Keatinge's Travels.

Intelligence, Docility, Training. The camel grows up like a child under the tent of its master, partakes of his plenty as well as his penury, enjoys his songs and understands his bidding. Its docility springs from habit and reflection—nay, we may almost say from moral feeling; for it rebels when its temper is not sagaciously managed. When the French went to Algiers and got possession of camels, they thought that their obedience might be enforced like that of mules and asses, by simple beating; but they soon showed their conquerors that they were not to be so treated, and that both their kick and their bite were rather formidable. The Arabs assert that the animal is so sensible of ill-treatment, that when this is carried too far, the inflictor will not find it easy to escape its vengeance. Eager, however, to express its resentment, it no longer retains any rancor, when once it is satisfied; and it is even sufficient for it to believe that it has avenged its injury. When an Arab has excited the rage of a camel, he throws down his garments in some place near which the animal is to pass. It immediately recognizes the clothes, seizes and shakes them with its teeth, and tramples on them in a rage. When its anger is thus appeased, it leaves them, and the owner may then appear and guide it as he wills. There is no trouble in littering or feeding the camel. As soon as its load is taken off, it is turned out to graze on whatever it can find around its owner's tent, and never looked after until it is again required to continue its journey. At other times it shelters the weary traveler stretched along the sand, watches over his slumbers, and like the faithful dog, warns him of the enemy's approach. Its instinct enables it to smell the distant water, and it recognizes the spot with wonderful precision; it is the very type of patience, fortitude, and perseverance; charged with a heavy load, constantly traveling over the sand—from which its nostrils, shaped like narrow oblique slits, and provided with a sphincter muscle like the eyelids, are defended with hairs at their margins—exposed to hunger, thirst, and the hottest rays of the sun, it suffers the fatigue and pain with incomparable meekness; it lies down on the burning sand, without betraying the least degree of impatience; while at all able to support its load, and continue the journey, it strains every nerve to proceed; it neither flags nor relaxes, until absolutely worn out, when it falls, to rise no more: thus rendering its last breath on the very spot it ceases to be useful. The camel is occasionally employed in the plow and other agricultural pursuits, like oxen or horses; and in many

Tartar countries, it is used to draw the coaches of the kings or princes; but physiologists remark that when used in the yoke or harness, the elevation of its shoulders is cause of a waste of strength; besides, for the purpose of traction, it can only be used at all upon flat ground, its fleshy feet, which are two in number, and not externally separated, not permitting it to ascend hills, and draw a carriage after it. It is as a beast of burden that the camel is chiefly valuable; and its qualities in this capacity are improved to a great extent, by the mode in which it is trained. At the earliest period, the legs are folded under the body, in which position it is constrained to remain. Its back is covered with a carpet, weighed down with a quantity of stones gradually augmented; it receives a scanty portion of food; it is rarely supplied with water; and in this manner is brought to endure privation. When the time of trial has elapsed, and it is broke into subservience, it kneels at the command of the master, who either mounts it himself, or loads it with a heavy burden; and then trusting to its strength, and the privations it can suffer, he ventures to traverse the trackless desert. When it lies down to receive its load, it rests upon the callosities of its breasts and limbs. It is ridden upon, loaded, or unloaded, either with or without the pack-saddle; if without, the rider rides behind the hump, using no manner of bridle, guiding the beast only by striking gently with a stick on his neck. The saddle, when used, is placed upon the withers, in front of the hump, and the legs of the rider, when mounted, rest upon the animal's neck: when razzias are made, two men are mounted on each. In rising from its crouching posture, the camel, which is in general so deliberate in all its actions, mounts on its hind legs first very briskly, as soon as the rider leans on his saddle to spring up, and throws him first forward and then backward; and it is not until the fourth motion, when the beast is entirely on its legs, that the rider can find his balance. The camel signifies that it is sufficiently loaded either by a hiss or a shake of the head; it will refuse to rise if laden with even a half pound beyond its exact burden. A drove of camels will all rise or lie down, at the word of command, as if struck by the same blow. They are made to eat in a circle, all kneeling down, head to head, and eye to eye; within this circle of heads is thrown the fodder; each camel claims its portion, eating that directly opposite to its head. Kennedy; Huc; Richardson; Pananti; Griffith; Lord; Animal Biography; Campbell's Letters; Morgan's Algiers; Denon's Travels; Ali Bey's Travels.

Travel. The progress of the camel is in general slow, especially when collected in numbers to compose a caravan; but its pace is regular and uniform, and constitutes no inaccurate measurement of distance over desolate regions, where there is no guide. It does not appear that the load of the camel materially affects its progress; the chief difference, in that case, lying in the daily duration of its march. The camels are tied one after another, held together by strings in their nose, and are not allowed to graze during the march. This is an advantage; for much time would otherwise be lost by the camels cropping herbage by the way. The files are twenty and thirty in number, and sometimes these files are double. In mountainous districts, they are untied; otherwise one camel slipping would draw another after it, and so the whole line would be thrown into confusion. The operation of piercing the nose and passing through it a piece of wood, which is to serve as a bit, is painful, and causes the animal to utter loud wails. "Slow and sure," has in no case whatever so good an application as it has to the

progress of the camel's march. It is in the desert it gives proof of its peculiar advantages; its long neck, perpendicularly erected, removes its head from the sand waves; its eyes, which it keeps half shut, are well defended by thick eye-lids largely provided with hair; the construction of its feet prevents its treading deep into the sand; its long legs enable it to pass over the same space with only half the number of steps of any other animal, and therefore with less fatigue. These advantages give it a solid and easy gait on a ground where all other animals walk with slow, short, and uncertain steps. In fact, it is only in mounting or descending, or upon a wet and marshy soil, that it becomes unsteady and unwieldy. Sometimes, when there are many camels traveling together, the drivers beat drums, and attach small bells to the knees of the leading camels, and if it becomes necessary to quicken their pace, the Arabs strike up a kind of song which has the effect of cheering the whole party and urging them forward. Ali Bey; Pananti; Huc; Richardson.

Foal—Longevity. Though the camel produces but one at a time, or rarely two, the care which is observed in their multiplication renders them numerous. A caravan will exhibit a thousand, nay, four or five thousand collected together, and a single individual will be the master of four or five hundred. The Dey of Tunis, singly, owns thirty thousand. The period of gestation brings no rest to the camel; the female is delivered by the way, at a halt in the desert; the foal may be seen stretched on the ground as if lifeless, the mother standing over and looking at it. But the foal does not remain so long; for in one or two days it will be up on its legs; in four or five days, it will be able to run after its dam a part of a day's march; and in seven or eight days it will be able to continue a whole day's journey. The cry of the foal is very much like that of a child; in marching it is tied upon its mothers back; it remain's with its mother and sucks a whole year; it sucks its mother within four hours after its birth; the mother sometimes makes a great noise over her young one. The foal frolics in awkward antics a few days after its birth, but apparently soon loses its infant mirth. This is not surprising; for in the first place it has to walk as long a day as its mother—enough to take the fun out of the little thing; next, it sees all its more aged companions very serious and melancholy, and soon imbibes their sombre air. The she-camels have a foal every other year, but some few every year. It is five years before the camel attains maturity. The training of the foal commences when about a year old; when first laden with light weights it will cry, groan, grumble most piteously, and run off like mad, trying to throw off the load. The camel lives between forty and fifty years, but it is not unlikely that the duration of its life depends upon the treatment it receives. Hamilton Smyth; Richardson.

Varieties. Notwithstanding our familiarity with the camel, the different species and varieties are by no means well understood; which produces some inconsistency in the accounts of the properties which it possesses. There are two species so distinct, however, that they cannot possibly be mistaken; the one, the Bactrian camel, having two humps on its back; the other, of somewhat smaller size, called the Arabian camel. The hump, which is of a fleshy or glandular consistence, but not produced by a curvature of the spine, is a prominent character of the whole race. Griffith; Jardine.

Bactrian Camel. This variety is characterized by two humps—one on the rump and another above the shoulders. It is larger, stouter, longer of body and shorter of limb than the Arabian camel. It is able to carry one

thousand pounds, and is even sometimes made to carry fifteen hundred pounds for short journeys, or to escape the tribute which is levied upon single burdens; an object which is attained by putting the loads of two or three camels upon one, when about to enter towns where tribute is collected. The usual burden in long expeditions is from five hundred to eight hundred pounds, so disposed that half the weight hangs on each side. Yet under such a heavy load, if care be taken to feed the animal in proportion to the fatigue to be supported, it is afterwards sustained on an inconsiderable quantity of beans, or a few balls of barley meal daily, thrown on the ground when it halts. Whole days, however, may elapse without the animal tasting either food or water. Travelers frequently speak of having experienced this in long marches. Laden with eight hundred weight, it can travel forty miles a day. It often happens that travelers do not give themselves the trouble to dismount at night in order to sleep. When a caravan has reached a fat pasture, the camels disperse themselves this way and that and begin to graze, while the travelers, astride between their humps, are sleeping as soundly as if they were in their beds. A single driver will conduct a number of these camels, tied one to the tail of the other. It is stated that this animal cannot swim, and that it has such a terror of water as to make it sometimes impossible to get it into a boat; with a raft there is less difficulty.* This animal abounds in northern, central, and eastern Asia. It was introduced by the Grand Duke Leopold into Tuscany, where it continues to breed in the maremmas of the Pisan territory. Immense numbers of these animals are bred in the Tell of Algeria, a region of country which includes the tablelands adjacent to the Mediterranean, and the gentle slopes of the lesser Atlas. In parts of this region snow falls every year, and lies on the ground several weeks. In Algeria, the price of a camel of this variety ranges from eighteen to thirty dollars. In the city of Algiers, the trade in camels is chiefly in the hands of the Mozabis, a resident tribe. Hamilton Smyth; Griffith; Moll; Pananti; Blofield; Kennedy; Huc; Malte-Brun's Geography: Shaler's Sketches of Algiers.

Arabian Camel. This variety has only a single hump on its back. It is of smaller size, less hairy, and still more enduring than the Bactrian camel. In the rutting season it is subject to fits of rage and violence, and it is necessary to muffle it. In the same season a species of bladder hangs from its mouth, out of which issues a quantity of foam. These animals often fight among themselves, and their hostility affords great amusement to the Moors and Turks. The Arabian camel is able to carry, for long journeys, from three to six hundred pounds. It is supposed the hump serves for its nourishment, as it disappears in the days of starvation and hunger. It makes about two thousand two hundred of its double steps in an hour. This double step covers about five feet and a half of our measure. It will march eight hundred miles in three hundred and twenty two hours, which is at the rate of two miles and-a-half per hour. It never stumbles or falls. There is no necessity either to beat or direct it. Its pace is slow, but it makes long strides and will march fifteen or sixteen hours at a stretch. It carries the women and children of the Arabs in paniers adjusted on either side. The Moors and Arabs are bad loaders of camels, and their contrivances for ad-

* This terror of water is occasioned by want of familiarity with it as a resisting element, and under the same circumstances is observable in a horse, which has no greater structural ability for swimming than the camel.

justing burdens are deficient in ingenuity. Its pace is very steady, and the traveler may sleep, eat and drink, read and write, on its back; by spreading his bed-clothes on the saddle, he will be enabled to change his posture, and to rest himself so as to avoid the direct force of the sun's says. As the animal walks with long and regular steps, the rider feels the motion no otherwise than if he were rocked in a cradle. When travelers on horseback are weary and faint from the fatigue of riding and the excessive heat, the rider of the camel will find himself as little exhausted as if he had ridden all day in a chaise. The saddle is always open above, that it may not hurt the hump of the animal. Denham describes it as swimming rivers, with its head fastened to a raft. The female is more valuable than the male, as it contributes more, by its milk, to the sustenance of the tribes. The Arabian camel has spread from Arabia all over the northern parts of Africa, and has long been essential to the Commerce of those dry and desert regions. Richardson; Kennedy; Griffith; Pananti; Moll; Blofield; Lord; Morgan; Campbell; Shaler; Major Rennell, in the Transactions of the Royal Society; Denham's Travels; Lamping's Soldier of Fortune; Niebuhr's Travels; Wilson's Campaign in Egypt; Russel's Barbary States; Murray's Discovery in Africa; McQueen's Geographical Survey; Conder's Travels.

Dromedary. This animal is a sub-variety of the Arabian camel, to which it stands in the same relation that a thorough-bred racer does to a cart horse. The hump is without fat, and very small, and its whole shape exhibits an appearance of strength and spirit. Its habitual pace is a trot, which it is able to sustain the whole day at about the same speed as the ordinary trot of a horse; but over rough or slippery ground the rate of speed is much reduced. The saddle is like a horse's and covers the hump. The dromedary is managed by a bridle, which is usually fastened to a ring fixed in its nostrils. It is unquestionable that this animal can travel one hundred and even two hundred miles in twenty-four hours. Like the camel it kneels to receive its load or a rider on its back. At a certain signal, it droops its head and neck, so that one can alight and remount, whenever there is occasion, without making the animal stop. When once fixed in the saddle, the rider has only to give way to the motion of the beast, and he soon finds that it is impossible to be more pleasantly mounted for a long journey; especially as no attention is requisite to guide the animal, except in turning it out of its straight-forward direction, which very seldom happens in the desert, and in a caravan. Its pace is light, the opening angle of its long legs, and the flexible spring of its lean foot rendering its trot easier than that of any horse, and at the same time full as swift. The sand is truly its element, for as soon as it quits it, and touches the mud, it can hardly keep upon its feet, and its repeated trips alarm the rider for the safety of himself and baggage. The young dromedary is born blind, and continues so for about ten days. The dromedary is found in Arabia, in the great African desert, and in all the Barbary states; but it is chiefly in the Eastern Sahara that it abounds. Mounted on his dromedary, dressed out fantastically in various and many-colored harness, with his sword slung on his back, dagger under the left arm, and lance in his right hand, the Touarghee warrior sallies forth to war. A very fine dromedary is six-and-a-half feet in hight. The price of this animal is from ten to two hundred times that of the ordinary camel. Niebuhr; Denon; Keatinge; Kennedy; Richardson; Blofield; Lord; Morgan; Shaler; Jackson's Morocco; Lyon's Travels.

Military uses. In northern India, the English use camels for the transportation of munitions of war. A corps of mounted dromedaries is also employed. In Algeria, field-pieces are carried by camels; the battery devised for artillery service in the desert is a model of its kind; guns, *caissons*, and carriages are folded up in the most compact form, ready to be fastened on the backs of these animals. Sick men, in their beds, are carried by camels. The *ambulance* used by the French army in Africa is a most ingenious contrivance. This *ambulance*, called *cacolet*, is a species of pack-saddle, made of wood and iron, and adapted for the backs of camels. The *cacolet* has on each side two iron chairs, which fold up within a very small compass; so that a camel may depart with a column, carrying boxes of biscuits, barrels of meat, flour, and other provisions, and may bring back sick or wounded soldiers, to whom these chairs afford a safe and commodious conveyance. It is necessary that the men should be seated so that they may as nearly as possible counterbalance each other's weight. Some of these iron chairs are made to spread out at sufficient length to enable a sick or wounded soldier to lie down. Camel caravans will be unapproachable by mounted Indians, as the camel, when first seen by horses, inspires uncontrollable terror. Kennedy; Niebuhr; Hamilton Smyth; Bodichon, Surgeon-General in Africa, in the *Memoires de la Societe Geographique;* St. Marie's Visit to the French Possessions in Africa.

Acclimation. The natural abode of the camel is in regions abounding with sand or gravel, where food is scanty, and exposure to long-protracted privations unavoidable; and as deserts exist in cold as well as warm climates, so does the camel. Like man, it adapts itself to every clime, nature enabling it to endure with equal fortitude the extremes of heat and cold. Widely as it is now dispersed over Asia and northern Africa, there is historical evidence to show that there was a period when it was a stranger even in Africa, and when its sphere in Asia was comparatively limited. Now, its geographical diffusion is equal to that of most other domesticated animals, It has followed the radiations of war, Commerce, and emigration over a stupendous segment of the earth's surface, stretching across the whole of Asia. and extending as far north as Lake Baikal in Siberia, in the sub-polar climate comprehended between latitudes 56° and 58°. It is much used in eastern Europe. In Africa, it resignedly plods its weary way across its entire breadth, and from the shores of the Mediterranean to the region of the tropical rains. These facts demonstrate that the camel is easily acclimated, and that its *habitat* is not limited by climate, but by the nature of the soil, which must be suited to the peculiar configuration of its foot. Hamilton Smyth; Griffith; Jardine; Humboldt's Views of Nature.

American Camel Region. Recent explorations demonstrate that the high table-lands of Texas, New Mexico, Utah, Sonora, Chihuahua, Durango, and portions of Central Mexico are fitted for camel travel; for over those lands the varieties of the cactus abound, and the soil is gravelly and sandy; the climate being at the same time isothermal with that of the Tell of Algeria. This remarkable adaptation did not fail to attract the attention of Mr. Bartlett, late commissioner for running the boundary line between the United States and Mexico, and the advantages that would be gained by using camels, instead of mules and horses, as a means of transportation, often occurred to him. From proof-sheets of Mr. Bartlett's forthcoming work, now in the press of the Appletons of this city, the following extracts are made, with the author's courteous permission. Mr. Bartlett thus expresses himself in one place:—

From my experience of nearly three years with horses, mules, asses, and oxen, and with wagons, carts, and packs, I do not hesitate to hazard the opinion that the introduction of camels and dromedaries would prove an immense benefit to our present means of transportation, that they would be a great saving to animal life, and would present facilities for crossing our broad deserts and prairies not possessed by any other domestic animals now in use.

Elsewhere Mr. Bartlett adds:—

The entire route from the Mississippi to California, particularly that south of Santa Fe by the Gila, where there are no mountains to cross, and also the great highway over the table-lands of Mexico, are well adapted to his habits. But he would be most useful on those long jornadas and deserts where there is either no water, or where it is so brackish that mules and horses will not drink it. There are peculiarities in the arid plains and deserts of North America which seem to fit them for the habits of the camel. His favorite food in Africa is beans and chopped straw. Now it is a well-known fact that, however barren our deserts, they abound in mesquit bushes, or chapporal, which shrub bears a most nutritious bean. Whether this plant attains a hight of three feet on the desert or twenty in the bottom lands, it is equally prolific. Mules and cattle feed on them when they cannot get grass or corn; yet they never thrive on them, but on the contrary, lose flesh. Other peculiarities are the salines and salt lakes which abound on the arid plains, as well as on the slopes towards both oceans. When driven to great extremities mules will sometimes drink this salt or brackish water; but I have driven them fifty or sixty miles without water, yet on reaching a saline not one in ten would touch it. To camels, brackish water is as acceptable as if from the purest fountains.

Humboldt's New Spain; Bartlett's Report; Humboldt's *Tableau des Bandes Isothermales.*

National importance. In view of the vast plains, destitute of herbage and water, which stretch across the American camel region—of the inefficiency of the means of transportation now in use—of the obstruction and frequent defeat of the pursuit of mounted Indians—and of the superior and peculiar capabilities of the camel, the Secretary of War, in his late report, presses with great urgency upon the attention of Congress the expediency of making an appropriation from the national treasury for the importation of a sufficient number of the different varieties of this animal. The report says:—

The absence of navigable steams in a large portion of our recently acquired territory, and the existence of the vast arid and mountainous regions, described in another part of this report, have entailed upon the government a very heavy charge for the transportation of supplies, and for the services of troops stationed along our new frontier, and operating against the predatory and nomadic Indians of those regions. The cost of transportation within that country for purposes connected with military defence, amounted, in the year ending June, 1853, to $451,775 07.

The modes of transportation now used—wagons drawn by horses, mules, or oxen—besides being very expensive, are necessarily circuitous on the routes traveled, slow, and generally unsatisfactory, as to prompt inquiry for means which may be attained with better results. In any extended movement, these wagon trains must depend upon grass for forage, and their progress will seldom average more than twelve miles per day; and it often happens, in traversing the country just referred to, that long spaces are encountered in which there is neither grass nor water, and hence the consequence must be severe privation and great destitution of the animals employed, if not the failure of the expedition. These inconveniences are felt in all movements between the distant parts of that section, and seriously obstruct, sometimes actually defeat the pursuit of the mounted Indians of the plains who, by their intimate knowledge of the places where the the small supplies of water and grass are to be found, are ably to fly across the

most arid regions after having committed depredations on our frontier population, or upon the trains of merchants and emigrants.

Beyond the difficulties here contemplated in connection with transportation to the interior, it is proper to look to those which would arise in the transportation of supplies for the defence of our Pacific coast in a contingency of a war with a maritime power. Our experience has been confined to a state of peace and to the use of routes of communication which pass beyond the limits of our territory. Reasoning from the difficulties which have been encountered in supplying points where it was necessary only to traverse a part of the space which lies between the Pacific coast and the points of supply, it may be claimed as a conclusion that it would not be practicable with the means now possessed to send across the continent the troops, munitions, and provisions which would be required for the defence of the Pacific coast. A railroad, such as has been contemplated to connect by the most eligible route the Mississippi River with the Pacific coast, would but partially remove the difficulties. It would serve to transport troops, and to supply depots along the route and at the extremity of the line, but there would still be vast regions of the interior too remote from its depots materially to feel its effects.

On the older continents, in regions reaching from the torrid to the frozen zones, embracing arid plains and precipitous mountains covered with snow, camels are used, with the best results. They are the means of transportation and communication in the immense commercial intercourse with central Asia. From the mountains of Circassia to the plains of India they have been used for various military purposes, to transmit dispatches, to transport supplies, to draw ordnance, and as a substitute for dragoon horses.

Napoleon, when in Egypt, used with marked success the dromedary, a fleet variety of the same animal, in subduing the Arabs, whose habits and country were very similar to those of the mounted Indians of our western plain. I learn, from what is believed to be reliable authority, that France is about again to adopt the dromedary in Algeria, for a similar service to that in which they were so successfully used in Egypt.

For like military purposes, for express, and for reconnoissances, it is believed the dromedary would supply a want now seriously felt in our service; and for transportation with troops rapidly moving across the country, the camel, it is believed, would remove an obstacle which now serves greatly to diminish the value and efficiency of our troops on the western frontier.

For these considerations, it is respectfully submitted that the necessary provision be made for the introduction of a sufficient number of both varieties of this animal to test its value and adaptation to our country and our service.—*Gen. Jefferson Davis's Report, Dec.* 1, 1853.

Transportation of the camel in ships. The camel is much more manageable in ships than the horse, not retaining, as the latter animal does, a rigid position, but going down on its knees, and yielding to the motion of the vessel. The late Mr. Raymond, of menagerie celebrity, imported over five hundred camels in his life-time into the United States. He never lost a single camel, by accident or disease, at sea.

In conclusion, we think that the facts adduced in this article demonstrate the superior organization of the Camel, and that, as a beast of burden, it is better fitted to subserve the wants of man over a large extent of the national domain, than either the horse or the mule, the only means of transportation now in use, or likely to be, for many years to come, unless well considered private enterprise shall assist in carrying out the views of the projectors of the domestication of the Camel on this continent.

Art. II.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NO. VIII.

NEW ENGLAND: PROGRESS IN POPULATION, TRADE, AND IMPORTANCE—ENGLISH HOSTILITY TO HER NAVIGATION INTEREST—EXCISION OF THE NEWFOUNDLAND COLONY—NAVIGATION LAWS—WHALE FISHERY—PHILIP'S WAR—STATE OF THE MIDDLE COLONIES—THE SOUTH: EFFECT OF TRADE BURDENS IN VIRGINIA AND CAROLINA—CHARLESTON—THE MISSISSIPPI AND FRENCH PROGRESS AT THE WEST—SPANISH TREATY—HONDURAS—EXPORT DUTIES—FRENCH COLONIES, ETC.

WITH the year 1670, half a century had elapsed since the commencement of the settlement at Plymouth. The growth of New England, and of the other colonies settled within that time, is presented in the following comparative series of actual enumerations, combined with proximate statements, which we have made out from various data, of their population for the several periods indicated:—

	1624.	1630.	1637.	1654.	1673.
Plymouth	180	300	549	2,941	9,410
Massachusetts	....	1,800	7,912	16,026	35,644
Connecticut	....	....	200	3,186	8,000
Rhode Island	....	....	....	1,959	3,500
New England	180	2,100	8,661	24,112	56,554
New York	50	200	500	1,300	3,500
Virginia	2,500	4,000	10,000	25,000	42,000
Maryland	....	....	200	1,000	20,000
Carolina	....	....	....	....	.....
Total*	2,730	6,300	19,361	51,412	122,054

Some estimates give a much higher population to Connecticut and Rhode Island, in 1673; but the report of the Governor and Assembly of those colonies in 1680, to the Board of Trade, and all the documents of the period, sustain the amounts stated above.

The commercial progress of New England had begun at this time to excite much attention in Britain. The term *New England* was understood, we would remark, at this time, and for a period long subsequent, indeed down to the time of the Revolution, to refer almost exclusively to Massachusetts, which embraced the territory of Maine within her limits, and to which New Hampshire had, by the voluntary action of her people, united herself. Her preponderance in extent, population, Commerce, wealth, and political power, was such as to give entire character to the section, and cast its other members into the shade.

Plymouth, the present colony, was almost entirely confined to the near fishery, pursued in boats and ketches, and farming. It had no foreign or distant trade whatever, and but a small coasting trade, a small part of which was along Long Island Sound, and as far even as New York; but it was confined mostly to Boston and the extended Massachusetts shore. The country a little back of the original settlement was still a wilderness.

* Barbadoes, the most populous of the British West India colonies, was said to contain, in 1670, about 50,000 whites and above 100,000 negroes. This estimate was undoubtedly exaggerated; yet the island was very thickly populated—more so, indeed, than most parts of Europe, exclusive of large towns. The area of Barbadoes is but 106,470 acres. Cuba had, in 1680, about 40,000 inhabtants.

Of Connecticut, the statement of the authorities in 1680, gave a population of 10,000, slowly increasing, divided in 26 towns. There were about 30 slaves. The trade at that period was mostly with Boston and New York, and was carried on by 20 petty merchants in 24 small vessels, and the imports did not exceed £9,000. The property of the whole corporation was valued at £110,000.

The answer of Rhode Island to the inquiries of the Board of Trade in 1680, states that that colony had no foreign Commerce, and no trade with the Indians. Their coast was little frequented, and not at all at that time, by pirates or privateers. With their neighbors they had some little intercourse. The principal place of trade was Newport; they had no shipping except a few sloops. Like Connecticut and Plymouth, they received the little amount of foreign articles imported mostly from Boston. The principal exports of the colony were horses and provisions, which went to the West Indies; and the imports were a small quantity of the produce of Barbadoes, for their own use. There were several persons who dealt in buying and selling, but they could not properly be called merchants. The want of these, of men of considerable estate, was the great obstruction to trade. They were sensible that the fishing business might prove very profitable, were there men of property willing to carry it on. There were about 500 planters, and as many men in other pursuits. There were of late few or no emigrants, except that a few negro slaves had been imported. The population was divided in 9 towns.

It was undoubtedly the case, that the colonies endeavored in the reports at this, as at other times, to put their importance at as low a standard as possible, in order to avert the establishment of a revenue system and other interference in their concerns, by England. It is said that the sloops alluded to were larger than the average size of brigs of the present day, and that at this time, or later, a considerable business was carried on by the Rhode Islanders in the slave-trade between Africa and the West Indies. It is certain, however, that all the three colonies named were yet in a condition very humble compared with the progress that had been made by Massachusetts. To the importance of the latter, the addition made by New Hampshire was, except territorially, quite inconsiderable, the security of the latter being the whole object of the union on their part. They, however, contributed most of the masts and timber exported to England. Live oak and other kinds of oak, white and red oak staves, hoops, shingles, and clapboards, were prepared by the New Hampshire farmers in large quantities, during the winter, and were exchanged for manufactured goods.

Although England rejoiced in the possession of a colony in this section so well advanced, and promising to be of so much benefit to her as Massachusetts, there were serious drawbacks to her gratification. Although it should seem the commercial progress of the colony would have been matter of unalloyed satisfaction, there were points therein involved which excited anything but a pleasing humor. Massachusetts had already a large and rapidly growing navigation interest, and was evidently aiming—in spite of the efforts of the home government to limit her progress in this direction—to become a great navigating power; to save to herself the freights paid on the export of her own or other products abroad and on the return of the foreign products obtained in exchange. Her commercial seemed on a level with her political aspirations, which, it had already been noted, looked directly toward independence. She would finally rival England in the carry-

ing trade, and, if not restrained, would entirely drive her ships from the ocean. Sir Josiah Child, a leading political writer of the day, pointed out to the government and to the merchants, the jealousy of both being very easily excited, the direful result in view. In a work published by him, on the state of the colonies, about 1670, he remarks:—

"Of all the American plantations, his majesty has none so apt for the building of shipping as New England, nor none comparably so qualified for the breeding of seamen, not only by reason of the natural industry of the people, but principally by reason of their cod and mackerel fisheries; and, in my opinion, there is nothing more prejudicial, and in prospect more dangerous to any mother-kingdom, than the increase of shipping in her colonies, plantations, or provinces."

The general progress of the colonies in importance, but more especially the jealousy excited by the appearance of a navigating interest within them able to withstand, and to exhibit even a remarkable vitality, in face of the discouragements placed in its way, induced the formation of a permanent Board of Commissioners of Trade and Plantations in 1671. The first act of this new commission was to send out a circular to the governors of all the plantations, territories, and islands of the West Indies—a name still in common use for all America—belonging to Great Britain, demanding to know the condition at that time of the several dependencies under those officials in regard to all their material concerns. What they particularly insist upon is, "to know the condition of New England, which, appearing to be very independent as to their regard to England or his majesty, rich and strong as they now were, there were great debates in what style to write to them, for the condition of that colony was such that they were able to contest with all other plantations about them, and there was a fear of their breaking from all dependence on this nation."

The various measures to which the fears thus excited gave rise for greater restraint upon colonial Commerce, together with privileges conceded for the joint purpose of advancing the prosperity of England and of exercising a soothing influence upon the colonists, irritated by these restraints, will be noticed in the order of time, as likewise the effect by them produced upon the mind, the action, and the material prosperity of America.

The progress of New England in the Fisheries had heretofore been regarded with high favor, as the blindest could not but see that this resource had been the means not only of lightening the expenses of colonization here upon its patrons in England, but that it had furnished the settlements an efficient means of self-support, where else the possibility of at all maintaining them would have been very equivocal. Neither could it escape attention, that although the interest established in this pursuit was the great basis of the objorgated shipping interest of the colonies, the wealth derived from the former was becoming of benefit to England and her other colonies, and was likely, if unrestrained, to raise their trade with the fishing colonies to the utmost importance. So much too were all the present concerns and the prospects of New England wound up in this pursuit, that the English government, unestablished in its supremacy on either continent, would not have dared, had it wished, to abolish or restrain the privilege, knowing as it did the peculiar readiness of the New Englanders to resist the least encroachment upon their rights or liberties, and being already impressed with a fear that their aim was at ultimate independence. The measures of restraint were therefore directed solely against the outward employment of the

shipping thus created, leaving its great source unaffected. Yet even had it not been the occasion of building up for her a navigating interest, the advancement of New England in the fisheries must at this time have excited the uneasy reflections of the home government. The fisheries had been regarded as a main support of *their* shipping interest also; but the rapid progress of the colonies in this pursuit, simultaneously with a remarkable and continuous decline on their own part, threatened entire annihilation to this school for British seamen. From 400 English ships employed in the cod fishery at Newfoundland in 1622, the number had decreased in 1670, to 80 ships. New England meanwhile had been encouraged by her success to push her efforts beyond the banks of Newfoundland; and in the latter year some of her vessels, for the first time, visited the coast of Labrador, where the avocation was thereafter regularly carried on.

Other causes, as well as the advance of New England, however, contributed to the decline of the English fishery in America. One of these was the increasing liberty in Catholic countries to eat flesh in Lent and on fish-days. Another, was the successful rivalry of the French fishery at Nova Scotia. But the cause to which the English writers mainly attributed their misfortune, was the increasing boat fishery carried on by their own people settled at Newfoundland. Here was a point at which they could safely strike. The English merchants had for a long time been generally ill-disposed toward any attempt at legitimate colonization of that island, and were as little willing to favor the squatter fishermen occupying a portion of its shores. Both interfered too much with their ship fishery. An appeal of these settlers to the government for a colonial charter and protection against the ship fishermen, who paid no respect to their rights or interests, had been successfully opposed by the merchants. They were quite ready to second the views and efforts of Child, who in the same work already alluded to, depicted the evils to England of the establishments at Newfoundland. "Without a remedy, it would happen to us," he said, "in a few years in that country as it hath done with regard to the fishery at New England, which so many years since was managed by English ships from our western ports, as the Newfoundland fishery at present chiefly is; but as the plantations of New England increased, that fishery fell entirely to the people there."

He feared the total extinction, from the Newfoundland settlements, of the British fishery and of their nursery of seamanship, the loss of which would really have ruined forever their commercial and naval, and, of course, their political supremacy. For the injury thus done and threatened, the settlements in question afforded, it was declared scarcely the slightest compensation. The provisions and clothing required by them were supplied wholly by New England and Ireland. In view of this state of things, Child coolly advised the excision of the settlements at Newfoundland. So all previous efforts to colonize that island were to be regarded as attempts made by England to undermine her own prosperity, and all the money expended in these purposes, as treasure worse than thrown away. The same considerations, carried to their legitimate conclusion, should have suggested also the good policy of undoing all that had been accomplished in New England, and of giving over that region again to the undivided possession of the heirs of Massasoit and Canonicus.

The lords of the sagacious Board of Trade and Plantation, whose only interference with the affairs of America seems to have been to inflict mutual

injury upon England and her colonies, adopted the benevolent scheme thus presented to them. The order to depopulate Newfoundland was given in 1670, and Sir John Berry was sent with a sufficient force to perform the noble work of driving out the fishermen and burning their dwellings; and to make the desolation effectual, emigration thither from that time forward was forbidden. The order was maintained in effect for six years, the devastation not being within that time made complete, as the task was not so easy a one as had perhaps been anticipated. The island was large and refuge easy. The work of ejection required to be perpetually done over, as those who were driven out in great part returned again, and found little trouble in raising new huts for themselves as good as they had occupied before. Of course, the troublesome proceedings against them in no wise increased their disposition to befriend and assist the ship fishery and fishermen of England. Those fully expelled, resorted to the French settlements adjacent, or to New England, and continued the business. The affair was the means also of drawing the attention of those disposed to emigrate toward Newfoundland, a desire was excited to share in the supposed profits of the interdicted settlement and fishery, and complaint was made that, in spite of the order, the emigration to Newfoundland continued unabated.

The vessels in the Newfoundland fishery from England had increased from 80 in 1670, to 270, carrying 10,800 men, in 1674. In 1677, 102 vessels, value of catch £1,738,000. New England had in the distant fisheries, in 1676, 665 vessels of 25,650 tons, and 4,405 men, the amount of their annual catch being 400,000 cwt., valued at about $1,000,000. The increase of English vessels may have been in some degree due to the depopulation of the island of Newfoundland, so far as it had been effected, but was the result, undoubtedly, in a much greater measure, of the Dutch war, and of the failure of the herring fishery on the coast of Sweden, by which events the southern countries of Europe were mainly deprived of their large supplies usually received from Holland and Sweden, and an opening to their markets made for the English. New England also profited largely from the same cause, and began that trade to Spain, Portugal, and Italy, which became afterward so considerable, and continued in full activity until after the opening of the present century.

Child mentions as an effect of the Navigation Laws at this time, that the shipping of England in the trade with America had become greatly increased, two-thirds of all the English tonnage being thus employed, and affording the means of sustenance to about 200,000 persons in England. Yet, while gaining thus rapidly in a single direction, an event sure to happen from the growth of the colonies in no inconsiderable degree, if at all less than under the present system, had no attempt been made to force trade thither, England was as a consequence of her unfriendly policy towards Europe, losing her markets in France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turkey. The first named of these countries, which had also been vigorously engaged for some years in a policy regarding her manufactures corresponding with that of England concerning her shipping, was rapidly supplanting her in the market of the others. Nay, she intruded so far into the market of England herself, that in 1678, Parliament found it necessary to comply with the urgent solicitations of the merchants, and to *prohibit all trade with France*, unless they were willing the protective system of France should triumph over that of England. In order, therefore, to stop what was in those times considered a loss to England, in the apparent balance of trade against her in the account

with France of £1,000,000 yearly, such an inhibition was declared for the period of three years.

The effect exercised by the colonization and growth of America upon the Commerce of both England and France, is seen in the increase of their shipping, &c., within that period, mainly due to this cause apart from all restrictive policies. Between 1626 and 1676 the tonnage of England had trebled or even quadrupled. She had now above 40,000 tons employed in the African or slave trade between Guinea and the West Indies; her customs had multiplied three-fold, and her postage, it was said, twenty-fold. The French had 40 trading vessels for every one twenty or thirty years previously. America might have conferred much greater benefit upon both powers than they had realized. Instead of being a cause of limiting the intercourse of the European nations with each other, she should have been the fertile occasion of its increase. Had such a system prevailed, England in the healthy development of her great interests would have had no reason for the alarm which the mere appearance of a shipping interest in Massachusetts occasioned, after she had sacrificed her Commerce with the continent of Europe, to force it to a concentration upon America.

The whale fishery of Massachusetts commenced about the opening of this period. Whales abounded on and about the shores of the island of Nantucket, and some few had been taken by the residents of that island. In 1672, the town of Nantucket made a contract with one James Lopar, by which the municipality and Lopar became a joint monopoly for the pursuit of the business. The agreement insured to Lopar one-third the profits, also ten acres of land, commonage for two cows, twenty sheep, and one horse, with necessary wood and water. A fine of 5s. for each whale killed was imposed upon all persons infringing the monopoly right. Such an assumption and grant by a small village was certainly in contravention of the charter of the colony of Rhode Island, if not of that of Massachusetts. Holland had at this time about 200 whaling ships, England about 100. The latter paid 6s. a ton bounty on oil taken by her own fishermen, and was favorable to the pursuit in the colonies, oil being then much in demand and of high value.

In 1673 the first *post-rider* between Boston and New York commenced, leaving the latter city once every three weeks. The population of Boston was then about 4,000, of New York about 2,500. This event indicates the progress of emigration from New England to the middle region, and the increase of Commerce between these sections. The first *Post-Office* in the colonies was established by the Massachusetts General Court, at Boston, in 1677, Thomas Heyward being appointed postmaster. It will be remembered that a *Mint* had also been established in Massachusetts, which Charles was disposed to suppress. The royal dislike of this institution the General Court, in 1677, attacked through his esophagus, by the present of ten barrels of cranberries, two hogsheads of samp, and three thousand codfish. The royal epicure was vanquished.

In 1675 the scourge of Philip's war fell upon New England, lasting generally till late in 1676, and in some parts till 1678. A leading cause of this dreadful contest was the unfair dealing practiced by a great many of the whites employed in trading with the Indians. On the long and wild frontier behind the settlements of New Hampshire and Maine, the fur trade was extensively carried on, and there can be no doubt that by the generality of the white traders there, every possible advantage was taken of the Indians, in the purchase both of peltry and land, and in the prices attached to the

articles of payment. Rum was a leading commodity employed in the traffic, and its effects were as pernicious, in every aspect, as in every other case where it has been introduced into the Indian trade. The avidity for gain of many of the traders, and even of respectable merchants, had led to the supplying of the Indians, in violation of law, with fire-arms, which indeed enabled a larger supply of furs, but the gain thus effected to a few, the evil of the practice as afterwards felt, far more than compensated to the mass. The savages, thus armed, were far more formidable, notwithstanding the increased strength of the colonies, than in the Pequod and Narragansett wars. It seemed, indeed, problematical, so severe was the crisis, whether the Indians would not execute upon New England the fate to which the Lords of Trade and Plantation had consigned Newfoundland. Many towns were burned, and a vast amount of property in house and field destroyed. The diminution of wealth was seriously felt in all New England. The settlements in Massachusetts upon the Connecticut River, formed thus far outwardly for the advantage of communicating with the towns below and with the ocean, were nearly all destroyed. In Maine over 100 miles of coast was cleared of settlers, and a considerable number of vessels were captured in the harbors and rivers. Over twenty vessels, mostly from Salem, were captured by surprise in 1677, but were recovered. The people of New Hampshire were glad, after their best efforts to subdue the red men, to effect a peace with those vindictive assailants, on condition of paying to them what they would not concede to England, an annual *tribute*. The tribute was regularly paid until the next war in 1687. Such were the effects mainly due to the introduction of a vicious system in trade, and such the proof that in all intercourse with other men, the balance of profit is on the side of fair dealing.

At about the time of the close of this war, which was not entirely finished up till 1678, Charles revived his designs against New England. One of the most serious complaints proffered against Massachusetts was that of evading the Navigation Act, alleged by the English merchants. To this the colonial legislature had responded that the act in question involved taxation without representation, and was, therefore, unjust and illegal. It was determined, however, that the act should be enforced, and the delayed project was renewed by a special customs system with the proper officials, as in England, and of abolishing all the New England charters and uniting them under a royal government. Willing, in the meantime, to limit the influence of Massachusetts, the claims of that colony to the province of Maine were decided against her in England, in 1677, but she at once bought out the right of the heirs of Gorges, the successful contestants. In 1680, New Hampshire, much against the will of her people, was separated from Massachusetts, and formed into the fifth provincial government of New England.

Middle Colonies. The capture of the New Netherlands by the English in 1664, brought the whole Atlantic coast of the United States, for the first time, under British dominion. Since that period about one-third of the Dutch inhabitants, the total population being then about 3,000, had removed on account, mainly, of the tyranny exercised over them. Some had returned to Holland, and some had gone to other Dutch colonies, but a large portion accepted the invitation of the proprietors of Carolina, who gave them a free passage thither.

War again occurring, a small Dutch fleet, in 1673, easily retook New York, New Jersey and Delaware also submitting. Peace between England and Holland, in 1674, on the basis of mutual restoration of conquests, re-

consigned the province and its dependencies to the tender mercies of the avaricious duke.*

After coming into final possession of the English, the colony of New York began to prosper, notwithstanding misgovernment. Emigration, which had before set in from New England, continued, and other English subjects arrived, though the illiberality of the duke put a great restraint on the movement thither, and drove nearly all foreigners seeking the English settlements to other colonies. The culture of the soil was now greatly attended to, and Wheat became a leading product of the province. The amount of wheat exported in 1678 was 60,000 bushels; the other exports were peas, beans, pork, tobacco, and peltry, the trade with the Indians of the interior being still kept up. The chief markets were England and the West Indies, a growing intercourse existing also with New England. The imports in 1678, amounted to the value of £50,000 sterling. The improvement was soon made of converting the grain into flour, and thenceforward, the bolting, packing, and exportation of flour and meal became the leading business of the city of New York, supporting, indeed, much the greater part of the population. So dependent was the interest of the city felt to be upon this business, that an act of the provincial authorities secured to it the monopoly thereof, a measure causing afterward much collision between the urban and rural population, if we may so designate the two interests. The distillation of spirits from grain had been commenced prior to 1676, as in that year an order was adopted, forbidding the consumption of any grain for that purpose, unless unfit for other use. The city or town of New York had now twelve streets and 384 houses.

Cartoret, the governor of New Jersey, attempted in 1675 to establish a direct trade between that province and New England, wishing to effect the independence of the former of the Duke of York's colony. Andros, the tyrant of New York, however, warmly opposed the project, claiming for his master the right to render New Jersey tributary to New York, and that it should have no trade except that with or through the medium of the latter.

In 1680, however, the claims of the duke were decided in England unfavorably, and New Jersey became thenceforth the second province of the middle region. The settlers of New Jersey were mostly from New York and New England, and resorted more to agriculture than to Commerce, finding a soil so congenial to that pursuit. A large emigration of quakers from England now ensued.

Southern Colonies. Among the causes of dissatisfaction felt in Virginia, in regard to the course of Charles II., was his sanction of the aristocratic government of Berkeley and his peculiarly formed legislature. Unequal taxes, embarrassing to the interests of the colonists were laid, and the salaries of the royal officers were obtained by the odious measure of a permanent *duty on exported tobacco*, relieving them thus of all dependence upon the people. The act was felt with greater severity from the extreme low price at which tobacco had for a long time been sold, and which was alone enough to occasion uneasiness in the colony.

Perhaps in time of ordinary prosperity these taxes would have been quietly borne, or would have excited no more commotion than was exhibited

* In 1672 was formed the famous league between Louis XIV. of France, and Charles II. of England, to crush the Dutch Republic, which defeated their efforts and came out of the contest with real glory. England made peace in 1674, France continuing the war till 1678, Holland, after the English peace, being aided by Sweden.

in the equally or worse misgoverned province of New York. Under the circumstances the event—to which, indeed, the influences of political misdirection and an Indian war contributed, but none we believe so efficaciously as the depression of their staple product—was Bacon's civil war in 1676. During this formidable insurrection, Jamestown, the capital of Virginia, was burned by the popular party, and never again rose.

A year or two later, on the restoration of order, the assembly attempted the desperate expedient of entirely suspending the tobacco cultivation for a year, to give time for the stock on hand to be exhausted. The act was negatived by the crown out of regard, of course, to its revenues. The colonists, however, formed an association to enforce the act, despite the veto, by destroying all tobacco planted within the period of interdiction. The authorities interfered, and the excitement rose again nearly to the point of rebellion, but was subdued by some vigorous action on the part of the government. Independence, even, was at this time within the contemplation of the Virginians, who were becoming quite as disloyal as the New Englanders, whose turbulance they had formerly contrasted, as a basis for favors to themselves, with their own quiet and dutiful deportment.

Another act passed at this time by the Virginian assembly, aimed to promote the condensation into towns of the scattered population of the colony, for the purpose of introducing the business of manufacturing, in order to relieve the public distress by a variation of pursuit. Although this precise policy had in the earlier days of the colony been warmly encouraged by the English government and the old proprietary, as the means of lessening the expenditure upon them, and of making the plantation sooner remunerative, the scheme was now disrelished in England as calculated to injure their own manufactures, and Charles promptly negatived this act also. There would indeed have been little objection to manufactures of a certain sort, which England could not make, but the design of the colonists went beyond this point. Manufactures beside would not pay the revenue derived to the crown from tobacco, and it was therefore preferred that Virginia should continue absorbed in the culture of the weed which the first Charles and his father had endeavored to suppress; such species of rough manufacture as America could undertake, beneficially to England, being left to the northern colonies, which lacked the advantages of soil enjoyed by those of the south. The defeat of their scheme added much to the irritation of the Virginians, and was, no doubt, a means of essential injury. The forcible formation of towns would indeed have been impolitic, neither was Virginia in a proper state to attempt manufactures as a leading pursuit; the cultivation of the soil was then as now her natural and best resource. Yet, unquestionably, the colony was quite as able and felt quite as much of a necessity for the introduction of some kinds of manufacture as New England, and the withdrawal of a portion of its planters from the over-crowded production of tobacco, for which the market was then very limited, compared to its present capacity, would certainly have not only afforded a present relief, but would have permanently advanced all the other interests of the colony.

According to Governor Berkeley, the importation of slaves into Virginia, for the seven years preceding 1671, amounted to but two or three cargoes. The number of negro slaves, in 1673, he estimated at 2,000, in a population of 40,000.

The amount of customs derived in England from tobacco, imported from Virginia in 1676, was £135,000.

Maryland, in this decenniad, was in the enjoyment of internal tranquillity, generally, and was progressing in commercial and other prosperity.

The Carolinas. The northern province had been settled just about 1663, and the southern colony was formed in 1670. The early emigrants were mostly from Barbadoes and New York. In 1671, a number of slaves were brought to South Carolina, from Barbadoes, by the governor, Sir John Yeamans, slave-labor being thus introduced from the outset. This official was removed from his post, in 1672, on a charge of carrying on all the little trade of the colony, using the company's means, for his own private advantage.

The progress of these colonies, especially of the northern ones, was slow. The aristocratic constitution devised by John Locke was set up over both of them, in 1670, and remained in partial operation about twenty years, being all the while in extremely ill favor with the settlers. Both their interests and those of the proprietors were injured by the attempt to establish privileged orders, and by the excessive taxation, and the heavy restrictions upon trade.

The dissatisfaction of North Carolina reached the point of insurrection in 1677. The immediate occasion of the outbreak was, the attempt to enforce the revenue laws imposed by or under authority of this constitution, for the benefit of the proprietors, against a vessel from New England. The people took up arms in support of the smuggler, or rather in defence of free-trade, and imprisoned the president and six of his council. For several years thereafter, the government and the trade of the colony, was under the popular management, and tranquillity prevailed.

In 1680, the town of CHARLESTON was founded, and was immediately declared the capital of South Carolina. During the first year, thirty metropolitan dwellings were erected. A war with the Indians in that colony occurred at the same time, lasting a year. A price was set on Indian prisoners, by the colony, and many of them were shipped to the West Indies, and sold there as slaves.

THE WEST. The French in Canada, having of late become quite prosperous in regard to trade, agriculture, and population, were pushing their researches into the far West, in order to extend their fur trade, and to be beforehand with the English in the occupation of that vast region. They saw and determined to improve the immense advantages of trade offered by the grand Lake system, connecting with their own splendid river, the St. Lawrence. Advantages so palpable, so easily availed of, in their situation, could indeed have been scarcely neglected. The small-pox occurring among the Indians connected with them, in 1670, swept away with its destructive wing above half the numbers of these tribes, and for a while, in a great measure suspended the trade; but the French still pursued their schemes. In 1670, they ascended the Lakes as far as Michigan, and erected Fort Detroit, as a trading station, the only one, except that at Michilimackinack, existing in the whole West, at the site of the present city of that name. The position mid-way on the Lake extension, and contiguous to the great regions of Ohio and Indiana, was exceedingly well chosen for its purpose. It would seem indeed to have required little penetration to discern that whichever power should gain final possession of the West, that point, or one near, would be covered by a large city.

In 1672, Fort Frontenac, now Kingston, at the union of Ontario and St. Lawrence, and the first post established upon the Lake, was erected both as

a trading station, and as a means of overawing the Iroquois, of New York, and other tribes thereabouts. The same year, Father Marquette and M. Joliet, a merchant of Quebec, were sent to examine the resources of the upper region, and if possible to reach the great *Mississippi* river, heard of from the Indians. They proceeded in a canoe up the St. Lawrence, and through Lakes Ontario, Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and Michigan, to Green Bay. The next year they pushed up Fox river, emptying into that bay, nearly to its head. Proceeding thence about a league by land to the upper waters of the Wisconsin river, they sailed downward, until their little canoe floated upon the waters of the Mississippi. It was considered that by ascending the stream the passage to China and the East might be effected, and that its lower terminus communicated with the other ocean, through the Gulf of Mexico. They took the downward course as the easiest, and passing the Ohio and Missouri mouths, reached the Arkansas, nearly two-thirds of the way from the Wisconsin to the embouchure of the Mississippi. Here they found the Indians possessed of some European articles, which they considered rightly must have been obtained by trade, at some not far distant point, if not here, with either the Mexican Spaniards or the Virginian English. The provisions of the adventurers being nearly exhausted, they returned with much difficulty against the strong tide, and reached Lake Michigan at Chicago, by way of the river Illinois.

The Mississippi was now neglected, until 1678, when the famous La Salle, who had gone to France to obtain aid in its exploration, returned, and at once set out with the utmost enthusiasm upon his undertaking. He thought, as a matter of certainty, that the great chain of lakes, or rivers running from them, must afford the means of a western passage to the South Sea, and consequently to China and India. To verify this belief was his grand object. On Lake Ontario he constructed a barge of ten tons, "the first ship that ever sailed on that fresh-water sea," and proceeded to Niagara, accompanied by Tonti, and Father Hennepin, worthy co-adventurers. Here he inclosed a small spot on the New York side, with palisades, and remained there for the winter, to attend to the fur-trade. A stronger fortification was afterward erected at this trading station, (the fourth within the range of the Lakes,) and the present American fort occupies its site. As his vessel could not pass the falls, La Salle built another on Lake Erie, in 1679, called the "Griffin," and proceeded through the other Lakes to Green Bay, where he established another, the sixth French trading station to the Lakes, at St. Joseph's river. Here he loaded his little vessel with furs, and sent her back, awaiting her return, but she was never again heard of. In December he proceeded westward to the Illinois, and down that river, erecting another fort at or near the present town of Peoria, in the center of Illinois State, which he called *Creve-Cœur*, the Broken-Hearted, in allusion to his misfortunes in the loss of the Griffin, and from the mutinous temper of his men. Here he remained till March, 1680, and then returned to Canada, for men and funds, Hennepin meantime passing up the Mississippi, to St. Anthony's Falls, and returning by way of the Wisconsin. The Mississippi had thus been explored from its source to the river Arkansas.

Outward Affairs of the Colonies. A treaty was effected at Madrid, in 1670, between England and Spain, explanatory of the American relations of those powers, as regulated by the last general treaty of peace; and from this exclusive reference to America, it being the first European treaty of that

kind, it has usually been known as the *American Treaty.* Some difficulties had arisen between these nations, regarding the trade of their colonies, the English bucaneering in the West Indies and the logwood colony of Honduras. It was stipulated that each should retain its present possessions in America, and that no Commerce should thereafter be carried on between one nation and the colonies of the other, nor between their respective ports in America, unless either king should see fit to grant future permission therefor in regard to his own dominions. The vessels of either might enter the colonial ports of the other, under stress of weather, on account of accident, or to escape the pursuit of pirates, and for these causes only, and when so entered, should be well received, protected, and allowed to purchase supplies. If three or four vessels came together, they were to inform the governor of the place of the reason of their entry, and to depart at his order. The protection which the bucaneers had enjoyed under the English flag and commission, for preying upon Spanish Commerce, (granted in period of war but still used,) was withdrawn.

This treaty had not the effect of cutting off trade entirely, as intended, between the English and Spanish colonies, though of course it increased the difficulties of its prosecution. In one mode it furnished that trade some additional security, by reducing the danger to be feared by the bucaneers, who, preferring the robbery of the Spaniards, both for its superior value and their enmity as Englishmen to that nation, were careless in peace, when all were their enemies, upon whom they preyed. While England chose to take no decided part against them, their profession was still sufficiently enticing to retain a large number in its pursuit. But as her active hostility, united to that of Spain, and other nations having possessions or Commerce in that region, was too powerful to withstand, they were now mostly obliged to seek a new calling. The treaty, by its general terms and its silence in regard to the particular case of Honduras, was considered on the part of the English, to confirm them in the possession of the territory occupied there, and to establish the right, wherever before used, of cutting and exporting logwood in that quarter. A large number of the pirates, therefore, on finding their occupation gone, considered this an eligible point of settlement, and affording the means of a lucrative pursuit, and following their former associates thither, much enlarged the settlements. There were engaged, at this time, in the exportation of logwood, cut by the settlers here, from England, Jamaica, and Massachusetts, about one hundred sail of ships annually. Sir Thomas Lynch, the governor of Jamaica, stated in 1670, that this settlement in Yucatan, "annually increased his majesty's customs and the national commerce, more than any other of his majesty's colonies."

The Spanish government, however, had never recognized the English as having any legitimate possession or occupation in these parts, regarding the logwood cutters as a few interlopers who might easily be expelled at any time, and not worthy of being the object of any serious negotiation. They had no intention to concede any such privilege as the English assumed to have been granted. When, therefore, the logwood settlements had become sufficiently important to merit attention, and the claims of the English were heard, Spain resolved to dispossess the intruders. She began in 1674, by seizing the English ships found near the Campeachy coast, laden with logwood, but did not directly disturb the settlers, until 1680, when they were forcibly expelled, and the Spanish dominion fully reclaimed. It was, how-

ever, only a few months before the ejected cutters had effected a relodgement in their old positions, and entered again upon the business as briskly as before.

Parliament considering the colonies now fit objects of taxation, determined to impose customs duties on all their outward trade with other parts than England. An act passed in 1672 provided that all vessels which may lawfully trade in the plantations, taking on board any commodities and not giving bond and proper security to unlade them in England, shall pay certain specified rates on sugars, tobacco, ginger, cocoa-nut, indigo, logwood, fustic, and cotton-wool. Tobacco alone, of these articles, was any considerable product of the colonies within the United States, the rest of the act applying mainly to the West Indies and Honduras. Tonnage and poundage duties had been imposed, and extended to every dominion of the crown, at the Restoration, but this was the first act levying a regular tariff of duties upon the colonies, and implying the establishment in America of a customs system.

The exclusive African companies, for the importation of negro-slaves into America, a few of which came to the continental colonies, while the vast bulk went to the West Indies, had been ruined in England, by war and misconduct. The fourth and last was established in 1672, the king and his brother and successor of York being stockholders. The amount of capital was fixed at $111,000. The great importation of slaves into the West Indies, effecting a rapid development of the islands there belonging to England, correspondingly enlarged the natural theater of trade, the wealth and importance of the continental provinces. Barbadoes, which had begun to export sugar in 1646, only, required in 1676, for the exportation of that article of her produce, 400 vessels, averaging 150 tons each, a total of 60,000 tons. The growth of the West India dominions of other powers, afforded also great advantages to those colonies, in the enlargement of the means of a most profitable contraband trade.

French Colonies. The progress of the French colonies in America, at this time, formed a striking contrast to that of the English. Although Canada was made the basis of such extensive aims in North America, little beyond mere exploration and the fur-trade was effected. Canada itself was prosperous only by comparison with her former condition, and was still a weak province. The West India settlements were expanding, but still the great West India Company had by its bad management, and the dishonesty of its agents, become inextricably involved. The government, therefore, in 1674, assumed its debts, amounting to 3,523,000 livres, ($634,140,) reimbursed its capital, of 1,287,185 livres, ($231,693,) and resumed proprietorship of all the French-American colonies. The charter of the Dutch West India Company expiring in 1674, a renewal of its privileges was granted.

Other Cotemporary Events. The English settled in the Bahama Islands, and the Danes St. Thomas, W. I., in 1672. The Spaniards, after many efforts, in 1679, conquered and settled Old California.

The English, as well as the French were at this period in search of the *Northwest Passage.* Captain Gillam had been dispatched on this object, in 1667, by a private company in London, this being the first attempt from England since 1633, and had opened the first trade of any account at Hudson's Bay. The prospect of profit thus opened in that direction, led to the formation, in 1669 of the *Hudson's Bay Company*, an association of lords,

gentlemen, and merchants, with a capital of £10,500. In 1670, the company sent out Gillam again on a voyage of trade and discovery.

The debate upon the *freedom of the seas*, was still going on in Europe, the antagonist disputants being Holland and England. The writers of the former still maintained the old and invincible principle sustained by their statesmen of former times—the complete right of all nations to make use of the great highways provided for them by nature; while the English controversialists upheld, with the usual tenacity of error, the claim of broad exclusions and selfish guardianships.

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

NO. XXXVII.

PITTSBURGH.

HER MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE, AND RAILROAD POSITION.

In the article published in the April number of the *Merchants' Magazine* we ventured the opinion, and endeavored to give substantial ground for it, that Pittsburgh was destined by nature, with the aid of capital and art, for three great purposes: 1st, as a manufacturing city; 2d, as a supplier of coal for all time to large portions of the North, South, and West; and, 3d, as a distributor to the West of the goods, manufactures, and merchandise of the East and foreign countries, and a distributor to the East of the produce, stock, and industrial products of the West.

This opinion, we think, is fairly, logically, and necessarily deduced from a consideration of the various elements which have always built up wealthy and powerful commercial and manufacturing districts; from a careful survey of her geographical position, climate, relations to the West, East, North, and South; her numerous and cheap water communications; and from the nature and varied character of the surrounding country, and the wonderful subsoil and surface resources for which, when fully developed, she will be the outlet and beneficiary.

We have already, at some length, considered the first two branches of our subject, and after having given some account of the amount and variety of her present multiform products, we will address ourselves to the discussion of the last branch.

And here, at the outstart, it is proper to observe that it is cause for regret that this city, or its merchants, have never deemed it necessary or useful to collect, record, and statedly publish exact and reliable statistics of her imports and exports; the establishment, extension, condition, and variety of her manufactures and Commerce; the consumption of raw material, and the kind, quality, and distribution of the various converted fabrics. It is by the periodical and persevering collection of such valuable statistics that public attention is directed and influenced, that population and capital are attracted, and that the full measure of a city's wealth and power is widely known and appreciated. The absence of such a system, while it makes the task of a volunteer more arduous, at the same time renders it more necessary. We are glad, therefore, to be able to announce the late organization of a Merchants'

Exchange, one of the earliest and most important duties of which will be to gather for publication important commercial and industrial statistics. It is *our* desire to present only a fair, moderate, and, we think, reliable account of the various branches of Pittsburgh manufacture.

Considering the abundance and variety of raw material, the many facilities for a cheap conversion into the merchantable product, the proximity and requirements of an ever-increasing and ever more accessible market, it is difficult to account for the neglect of many branches of manufacture there, which, it must be obvious to the slowest comprehension, must of necessity yield a speedy, sure, and very fair return. Capital is sadly needed, and *must* come from abroad. Pittsburghers see clearly and know well the advantages for and the profits resulting from the establishment of certain branches, yet such have been the business additions and money requirements caused by the completion of railroads, and the great increase of western demand, that every available dollar is actively employed. It is patent to all that present manufactures, multiplied in number and varied in amount as they are, will be as nothing to what there will be in twenty or thirty years. We have already mentioned the peculiar fitness there is in establishing locomotive, passenger, and freight car factories, for railroad bar and railroad supplying factories, for woolen and flour mills, for factories of wood-screws, heavy and fine cutlery and hardware, copper and brass wire and small work for carriages, wagons, &c., and in fact establishments of every description which require chiefly the employment of metals or wood, which are costly in manufacture, and which need near and good markets and cheap and speedy conveyance thither. If some of the many companies in New England, whose small dividends have lately been exposed in the public prints, would change the locality and direction of their investments, it would most assuredly be a profitable change.

There are now in Pittsburgh and immediate vicinity, 20 rolling mills, having 176 puddling furnaces, 121 heating furnaces, and 253 nail machines, consuming annually 82,500 tons of pig metal, 16,350 tons of blooms and scraps, and 6,275,000 bushels of coal; producing 395,000 kegs of nails and spikes, and an aggregate product of 80,800 tons of merchantable iron and nails, employing $4,775,000 of invested and working capital, and 2,720 hands.

Included in the above is one small rolling mill at Brownsville, which is owned and has a warehouse in Pittsburgh; one mill for rolling "imitation Russia" sheet-iron, situated on the Monongahela, which has an agency for the sale of its products at Pittsburgh; one very extensive forging mill, which rolls much of the iron it consumes, and three mills which chiefly produce spring, American blister, and plow steel, elliptic springs, hammered axles, vices, anvils, cultivator teeth, &c., &c., and one T-rail mill, consuming 9,000 tons of metal per annum.

The demand for iron products of every variety has been of late unprecedentedly large, and notwithstanding the excessive cost of pig metal and blooms, the various mills and factories are overpressed with work, and all the rolling mills, with but one temporary exception, are running "double turn," as it is called, or night and day. The quality and finish of the iron and nails manufactured excels most that are imported, and is fully as good as any that are made at home. From 20 to 30 puddling furnaces will be added during the coming summer, and a number of nail machines erected; and if Congress is not again troubled by the prosperity of American skill and in-

dustry, and is content to let alone the present *ad valorem* tariff, which, by an unforseen combination of accidents, has ceased to work harm, the iron trade will most probably continue active and prosperous for years to come. Most of the furnaces in Pennsylvania which were sold out by the sheriff on account of the paralyzing effect of a competition between foreign pauper and American free and well-paid labor, are now again in blast. Although not exactly a Pittsburgh interest, yet, as much of the stock is owned there, and it is situated near it, it may not be out of place to mention in this connection a mammoth rail mill which will go into operation about the first of May. The chartered capital is $1,000,000. The company own thousands of acres of timber, coal, and iron ore lands. They have eight coke furnaces, with capacity to turn out 720 tons of pig iron per week; have 60 puddling furnaces, 5 scrap furnaces, and 12 rail pile furnaces; they have 4 "squeezers," run by separate engines of 80-horse power, 4 sets of rolls run by separate engines of 150-horse power, one engine of 150 horse power for rail mill, and a fourth engine of 60-horse power for machine shop. The machinery is of the most perfect and ponderous character, and when in full operation will be able to turn out 120 tons of rails every 24 hours, which can be cheaply transported either East or West. This, we believe, is the largest rail mill in the world.

There is one copper smelting establishment, consuming 1,000 tons of Lake Superior ore, and producing over 500 tons of refined metal in the form of "cake" and ingots. In connection there is a copper rolling mill, producing annually 350 tons brazier's sheets, 25 tons locomotive "flue strips," and 40 tons of copper-pressed bottoms, all which, at the present prices of copper, would be worth $700 cash per net ton of 2,000 lbs. An extensive brass foundry has just been added for the manufacture of brass metal and sheets, but no estimate of course can yet be made of the annual yield. Pittsburgh is very largely interested in the copper business in all its varieties and relations. Her citizens claim to be the pioneers in Lake Superior copper mining. They, in connection with a few Boston capitalists, owned and worked the first mine, the celebrated "Cliff," which is now yielding such enormous quantities of copper. Many of the companies have been formed from Pittsburgh capitalists; and the appended table will show how many mines are, in great part, owned or controlled there:—

Company.	No. of shares.	Present value per share.	Amt. held in Pittsburgh.	Total.
Pittsburgh and Boston Mining Co...	6,000	$145	2,000	$290,000
North American	10,000	75	7,000	525,000
National	10,000	30	3,000	90,000
Ohio Trap Rock	6,000	28	4,500	126,000
North Western	10,000	18	4,000	72,000
Ridge	10,000	6 50	7,500	48,250
Meadow	10,000	4	4,500	18,000
Adventure	10,000	3	4,000	12,000
Iron City	10,000	2	7,500	15,000
Fire Steel	10,000	2 25	8,000	18,000
Colling	10,000	3	9,000	27,000
Eureka	10,000	1	5,000	5,000
Pittsburgh	20,000	1 50	15,000	22,500
Arctic	10,000	1	6,000	6,000
Bluff	10,000	1	7,000	7,000
Pittsburgh and Isle Royal	10,000	4	8,000	32,000
Held in Pittsburgh				$1,313,750
Held by Pittsburghers in other cities, about				418,250
Total, in round numbers				$1,732,000

There is in Pittsburgh an establishment called "Eagle Steel Works," manufacturing cast steel of all varieties, bar, shear, and sheet. They have three converting furnaces, five heating furnaces, and 18 melting furnaces. They employ about 60 hands, many of them imported from England, and consume annually 750 tons of iron, one-third of which is Swedish. The steel produced by these works has been repeatedly tested, and is found fully equal to the best English imported. Their extensive file factory has been abandoned, but many file shops are now conducted by their former workmen.

There are, as nearly as can be ascertained, 38 foundries which cast iron. They may be divided into two classes, those which make chiefly steam-engines, and those which make hollow ware, grates, and stoves, heavy and light machinery, car wheels, mill geering, iron fronts and railing, wagon boxes, sadirons, school furniture, plow castings, decorative and fancy work, and innumerable other useful articles. Of the former there are 9; some very extensively engaged in this branch, while others partake of the business of both classes. In the manufacture of steam-engines they consume yearly 3,200 tons wrought iron, 9,250 tons of pig, employ 640 hands, and produce 120 steam-engines every year. Net capital, $545,000. Five of these engine shops have boiler yards attached, producing not less than 250 boilers annually. There are besides five more boiler yards in the city, carried on as an independent business. They manufacture 240 boilers per annum, weighing on an average 5,000 lbs. each, employ 130 hands, and have a capital of $125,000. Of the second class of foundries there are 29, consuming yearly 19,275 tons of pig, employing 825 hands, and having a net capital of $775,000. Many of these are very extensive, manufacturing the heaviest mill geering, cotton and sugar mills and presses, copper mining machinery, railroad castings, chilled wheels, shafts, machines for punching, drilling, and planing iron, &c., &c. One owns the patent for drilled rollers, and is the exclusive provider for the whole United States. Another owns the right for Pennsylvania and Maryland to manufacture Fisk's metallic burial cases, which will employ a large number of skillful hands; three have, in connection with their foundries, freight-car factories, and produce 450 per annum; two or three are exclusively engaged in making cotton machinery, and a like number in making grates and stoves; two make locks, latches, scales, and malleable castings. The heaviest establishment of all is the Fort Pitt Works, and deserves a somewhat special mention. Besides their regular heavy and elaborate products, they have done much work for government. Some years since they built two iron steamships of 400 tons burden each, the "Geo. M. Bibb," submarine propeller for the Gulf of Mexico, and the "Jefferson" revenue cutter, which was taken apart and transported to Lake Ontario, and is, we believe, still living and in active service. From 1842 to 1847 there were cast, bored, and mounted at these works 633 cannon, weighing 1,787 tons, and 22,189 shot and shell for cannon and howitzers, weighing 541 tons. During the years 1851, 1852, and 1853 they cast and bored 76 cannon, weighing 305 tons, and are now engaged on a government order for 21 guns of the heaviest caliber, called "Columbiades," having a ten-inch bore, and throwing a 124-pound shot. Lieut. Rodman, of the army, and for some time connected with this establishment, is the inventor of a new and important principle in the casting of ordnance. The cannon is cast hollow, and a constant and ever-renewed stream of water forced in, thus cooling the interior first, instead of, as was the old plan, casting solid, and allowing the outside to cool first. The effects are more equal strain, and more density and tough-

ness where such qualities are most needed. Cannon cast by both methods have been subjected to most powerful tests, and the result has been that those cast on the new principle bear five and six times the number of charges of those cast by the usual method. In 1853 these works consumed 2,225 tons pig iron, 1,000 tons wrought iron, employed 260 hands, and produced 10 blast cylinders, 10 large, first-class steam-engines, 300 tons boilers, and 150 freight cars, besides other important work. There have been built also at other works two steam revenue cutters, one steam frigate, one submerged propeller for Lieut. Hunter, and one large river steamer, all of iron. Of the fates or condition of these various steamers we have no knowledge. The amount of pig iron, blooms, and scraps consumed in Pittsburgh would be, from the foregoing estimate, which is as close as can be arrived at—

Steam-engine foundries	tons.	9,250
All other foundries		19,275
Rolling mills		98,850
Total		127,375

It would be impossible to make any estimate even approximating the truth of the amount of wrought iron consumed by the various factories of Pittsburgh, but it would rise to many thousand tons.

There are in Pittsburgh ten flint or crystal-glass factories, with fifteen furnaces, all in full operation night and day, engaged in the manufacture of all varieties of table and ornamental glassware, druggists' jars, tinctures, &c. They have a net capital of $650,000, employ 600 hands, and consume annually 600,000 bushels coal, 400 cords wood, 650 tons lead, 550 tons soda and pearl ash, 250 tons fire clay, 1,500,000 feet boards, 600 tons of straw and hay, and 1,300 tons of sand.

Fourteen window-glass furnaces, with a net capital of $400,000, employing 600 men and boys, consuming 725,000 bushels coal, 5,510 cords wood, 4,550,000 feet lumber, 1,750 tons soda, and producing annually 145,000 boxes glass, worth near $580,000. Included in the above are six furnaces situated at various distances from Pittsburgh on the Monongahela, but which are chiefly owned, their business transacted, and their products sold at Pittsburgh. The products of these latter furnaces generally go under the denomination of "country glass," and are inferior in quality to what is called, in contradistinction, "city glass." Some of the window-glass factories are at present making glass of great beauty and size, also fine varieties of plate, Boston, concave, and show-window glass.

Eleven phial and bottle factories, with a net capital of $260,000, employing 650 men and boys, consuming 275,000 bushels coal, 5,280 cords wood, 2,750,000 feet of lumber, and 880 tons soda; and producing annually 176,000 boxes of every variety of black and green bottles, flasks, phials, &c., worth, at present rates, $385,000. There are 8 window glass and 1 bottle factory, which, being at present out of blast, are not included in the estimate.

There are 5 cotton factories, running 29,300 spindles, 671 looms, and consuming yearly 6,350,000 lbs. cotton, 375,000 bushels coal, 120,000 lbs. starch, and 10,000 gallons oil; employing 1,350 hands, chiefly girls, and producing annually 7,794,000 yards cloth, 5,594,000 lbs. cloth, yarn, carpet chains, &c., of value equal to $1,231,000. About 200 looms will be added during the coming summer, which would make the annual consumption of cotton altogether equal to 16,000 bales.

There are 2 very extensive establishments manufacturing locks, latches, coffee, and paint mills, counter, hatch, hay, and railroad scales, malleable castings, &c., &c. Capital invested, $250,000; consume 1,600 tons pig metal, besides many tons of copper and zinc, in the manufacture of brass for keys, lock facings, &c., and a large amount of wrought-iron; employ 400 hands, and produce goods annually to the amount of $450,000, which are distributed from Mexico, on the southwest, to Nova Scotia, on the northeast, including both Canadas.

There are 13 forges and heavy blacksmithing works, many of them using steam and forging-hammers, consuming 15,000 tons of bloom and wrought-iron yearly; employing 350 hands, and a net capital of $400,000, and manufacturing large quantities of railroad axles, hog chains, anchors, chain cables, cranks, shafts for steamboats, and sugar mills, tobacco screws, bridge work, and heavy jobbing for steamboats and railroads.

There are 6 establishments, all employing steam, and of a largely increased custom and capacity every year, which manufacture in all axes, hatchets, shovels, spades, hoes, hay and manure forks, mill and cross-cut saws, picks, mattocks, &c. They have in all a net capital of $200,000; consume 200 tons of best steel, 2,500 tons of wrought-iron, and employ 300 hands. Of the two which make axes, one will produce 12,000 dozen, and the other 2,000 dozen yearly.

There is another factory making vices alone, and still another making solid box-vices, hammered axles, crowbars, sledges, hammers, timber, mill, cotton, and tobacco screws, &c.

There are 5 separate establishments for founding brass, which among them make bells, every variety of common and patent cocks, metallic packing, locomotive castings and moldings, decorative works, &c.

Eight more or less extensive factories for working copper, making copper tubing, pipes, vessels, engine and steamboat work, &c.

There are several establishments which are extensively engaged in making Britannia, japanned, sheet-iron, and tin ware, and which send their products throughout the West and South, and to the lakes.

Also, one large steam-shop for making heavy tools and machines, such as planing machines and turning lathes for dressing iron, punching and drilling machines, slide rests, &c.

There are 4 large factories for making fire and burglar proof safes, heavy locks, vault doors, and iron shutters, which employ about 150 hands, have a net capital of $160,000, and, beside their jobbing work, make annually 1,600 safes, which, at an average value of $60, would be worth $96,000. These safes are extensively distributed throughout the West, have been repeatedly tested, and are reputed to be as good as any made elsewhere.

There are 2 rifle-barrel factories, consuming 75 tons of best and toughest iron, and making, at an average of 12 lbs. for each barrel, 12,500 per annum.

There are 4 whitelead factories, with capacity to produce 240,000 kegs of lead every year, worth, at current prices, $500,000. Also, about 70 tons of litharge, and a large amount of redlead.

There are 2 soda factories in Pittsburgh, and 1 in Tarentum, near by, which sends its products there for sale. The largest of these has an invested capital of $80,000, employs 100 hands, consumes yearly 18,000 tons of material, coal, limestone, salt, sulphur, &c., and manufactures 60 barrels or 10

tons daily, 1,500 tons yearly. As over 3,000 tons of soda are consumed in Pittsburgh yearly, it does not send much of its product abroad.

There are 3 linseed oil mills using steam, consuming 30,000 bushels of seed per annum, at a cost of $1 40 per bushel, and yielding 1,500 barrels of oil, which is almost entirely consumed in the home market.

There are in all, without including 6 situated away some little distance, but which transact their business at Pittsburgh, 38 breweries, 17 of which employ steam. The net capital of the 38 would fully amount to $650,000, manufacturing, at the very lowest calculation, 90,000 barrels of ales and beers in this proportion—50,000 of ale and porter, 25,000 of lager beer, and 15,000 of light common beer. They consume annually 300,000 bushels of barley, and 1,000 bales, or 200,000 lbs. of hops. In addition to this product in liquid, 100,000 bushels of malt are made, and in great part sold in the Eastern market.

There are 3 flouring mills, with 19 run of stone, consuming 1,800,000 bushels of wheat per annum, and manufacturing 360,000 barrels of flour, which has a most excellent reputation, both in this country and at Liverpool. Capital, $300,000. The want of communications by which wheat in great quantities could be procured and the manufactured product transmitted to markets, has hitherto confined the number of mills to 3; but as Pittsburgh is posed right in the heart of the most magnificent wheat region in the country, as railroads passing through fruitful wheat districts are coming there, as power is very cheap, and as there is a chance of 5 Eastern markets, all nearly equidistant, and all quickly and cheaply reached on the completion of various lines of railroad now in process of building, that place would seem to be peculiarly fitted for the erection of steam flouring mills; and doubtless in the course of five years the present number will be quadrupled.

There are 5 mills for the extensive manufacture of crackers and pilot or navy bread; 3 employing steam, and 2 not. The aggregate yearly consumption would be at least 16,000 bbls. of flour, and the product would rise above 40,000 bbls. The water, bran, and soda crackers, sweet and butter biscuit, made by these mills have a wide celebrity, and are largely distributed both East and West.

There are at present in operation 7 steam tanneries, manufacturing into every variety of common and patent leather, 25,000 hides yearly, amounting in value to $212,000. The department of japanning is a new feature in the leather trade there, which, from a small commencement, now amounts to nearly one-half of all the leather manufactured, with a rapidly increasing demand. In addition, there are a number of smaller concerns, some that manufacture sheep, morocco, and calf skins, to the value of $70 or $80,000 more. Pittsburgh, as a market for the country-tanned leather, is increasing daily, offering to country tanners the most promising inducements, which bid fair to make her a chief Western center for leather and hides.

There are 13 planing mills operated by steam, with a capital of $260,000, producing flooring boards, &c., equal to over 10,000,000 feet annually. This planed and dressed lumber goes as far West as St. Louis, and as far South as New Orleans.

Thirteen steam saw-mills, which, at an average yield of 1,500,000 feet, would produce nearly 20,000,000 feet of sawed lumber per annum. Pittsburgh is now the cheapest lumber market, for all varieties, in the whole United States; and every railroad which will be built through Western

Pennsylvania will largely increase her supply and variety. The lumber trade of the Alleghany is now immense. The whole valley which is watered by that river and its tributaries is covered for hundreds of miles with the densest and most luxuriant forests, chiefly of white and yellow pine, spruce, hemlock, and poplar, with a fair interspersement of ash and hickory. When this region is fully cleared of its almost limitless and valuable surface growth, it will become one of the most exuberantly fruitful districts in our country—distinguished as that country is for its fertile soil and prodigal production—and offers very many inducements to settlers from the East and from foreign countries.

Land, on account of its being hitherto shut out from markets and so closely covered with forests, is ridiculously cheap; the country is beautiful, and the climate healthful and temperate.

The Alleghany Valley, Sunbury, and Erie, Warren and Franklin, and Erie and Pittsburgh roads, which will shortly be built, will intersect and lay open the iron ore, limestone, coal, and lumber stores of this magnificent region throughout its whole extent, and cannot fail to cover it at no distant day with a crowded, thrifty, and industrious population. The Alleghany Valley road alone will largely increase the lumber trade of Pittsburgh, and will also convey much of it to New York and Eastern Pennsylvania. A few lumbermen alone in North Ridgeway township offer, if freights be favorable, to send over 10,000,000 feet. The amount of sawed lumber coming down the Alleghany and its tributaries, the Clarion, French Creek, Tionista, Conewango, and others, is estimated at from 150 to 175,000,000 feet annually, chiefly white pine, 200,000,000 pine shingles, 30,000,000 lath, and 20,000,000 cubic feet of square timber. The lumber rafts are prepared at the saw mills, which will number over 200, running from one to eight saws; they are then floated down with the spring freshet. About one-third of them are stayed and distributed at Pittsburgh; the remaining two-thirds are sold to the different towns and cities on the Ohio, as far down as the mouth.

The Valley of the Monongahela, which is now being opened throughout its entire extent by the Connellsville Railroad and by slack-water navigation, grows a different and more solid character of timber, chiefly the tougher varieties of oak, hickory, ash, cherry, poplar, locust, and bird's-eye maple; so that almost every variety of wood used for manufacturing can be obtained at Pittsburgh at little more than half the cost which its scarcity compels elsewhere. This is a very important consideration in the establishment of such branches of manufacture as consume large quantities of wood, and must, as soon as Pittsburgh resources and advantages become better and more widely known, attract there many large workshops in branches of production not yet conducted.

The time appears to be rapidly passing away when peculiar favor should attach to a product because it is of Eastern make; and Western merchants are beginning to find that they are as well served nearer home. The saving in freight and in cost of construction of very many Eastern products, such as carriages, wagons, cars, locomotives, &c., &c., when they can be built just as well and cheaper, and when they can be immediately launched on a very cheap water route, *must* eventually lead to the establishment of many varieties of manufacture which are now found nowhere west of the Alleghany Mountains. Among the branches which consume much wood, are—

1st. The cabinet furniture business, which is carried on extensively at

Pittsburgh, and forms an important interest amounting annually to over $500,000, and employing 420 hands. There are very large establishments of the most complete description, with all the modern appliances of steam, in the construction of common furniture and chairs. Their principal markets are Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. There are at least 15 smaller establishments, which, although they produce largely, yet have a more limited and local market. There are many additional factories, with and without steam, which consume an immense amount of wood, and which distribute their products throughout the West, as well as W. Pennsylvania—barrels, kegs, boxes, tubs, buckets, looking-glass frames, trunks, detached carpentry and joinery work, &c., &c. Details would require entirely too much space.

There are 7 carriage manufacturers who send their products abroad, chiefly to Tennessee and Kentucky. They have a net capital of $320,000, employ 325 hands, and produce about 1,200 of omnibuses, coaches, carriages, phaetons, barouches, and buggies per year. Many specimens of their fine work, which have been purchased by citizens of Louisville, Nashville, and other Western cities, have given great satisfaction, and are fully equal in style, finish, appearance, and endurance, to the best of Eastern manufacture. This branch of business, on account of cheapness of iron, wood, conveyance, &c., is destined to a large increase.

There are 2 very extensive wagon factories, where are manufactured every year an almost incredible number of light and heavy wagons of every description, drays, carts, trucks, &c. Most of their products go far West—many of the wagon and timber wheels to Texas and the South. The larger of these establishments supplied our army while in Mexico with most of the camp and baggage wagons, gun-carriages, &c.

There are at present only 2 pork and packing establishments, but these capable of the slaughter and curing of 75,000 hogs per season. The slaughter and packing during the last season was small, owing (besides other causes) to want of confidence in prices; and over 60,000 head that should have been packed there, were sent to various points East. For the same reasons which have operated against the establishment of so many new branches of business there, viz., the absence of Western and Eastern communications in every direction, this great department of Western trade has as yet been trifling; but there are now indications that it will be in future a very prominent branch. There are certainly many advantages to induce large investments. The climate is in the highest degree favorable; the cost of delivering large numbers of hogs there by the various roads now rapidly being hurried to completion, will be small; and we are credibly informed that hogs can be brought to Pittsburgh from Western Ohio at an expense of only 5 cents per head more than to Cincinnati; cost of handling and transhipment is less than it is at points farther West; salt is nowhere else so cheap; Pittsburgh market is the best for the sale of offal, grease, ribs, feet, &c., and it is a most excellent distributing point, as the cured product can be shipped at all seasons of the year, either by canal or railroad, to various Eastern markets.

There are 21 rectifying distilleries, which prepare for market over 40,000 barrels of whisky per annum; also 1 establishment for the manufacture of alcohol, and 1 of neutral spirits. The main supply of raw whisky, which in times past was obtained from the Monongahela region, is now chiefly derived from the Ohio Valley and Cincinnati, although the product still bears the name of "Monongahela Whisky."

On the Alleghany River and tributaries, and throughout the whole country surrounding Pittsburgh, are situated numerous salt works. As near as can be ascertained, there are now in operation about 40 wells; annual product for the best and most flourishing, about 30,000 bushels; for the least productive, 6,000. Besides these, there are 70 which are at present lying idle. To prove productive, they are bored near a plentiful supply of bituminous coal, of which large quantities are used to evaporate the water and to crystallize the salt. The quality of the salt thus produced is equal to any other, whether obtained at home or abroad, as the annexed analysis by Prof. Booth, of salt taken from the works of Mr. Peterson, in Alleghany County, Penn., will testify:—

Varieties.	Chloride of sodium, or common salt.	Chloride of magnesium.	Muriate of lime.	Sulphate of magnesium, or Epsom salts.	Sulphate of lime, or plaster of Paris.	Impurity, chiefly sand.
Fine salt, Alleghany Co., Pa..	98.87	0.51	0.62	none	trace	trace
Liverpool rock	98.55	0.08	none	0.16	1.21	.....
Turks Island.....	93.85	3.47	....	none	2.68	little sand

Besides the numerous factories and branches of manufacturing interest enumerated and described somewhat at length above, there are others which may deserve some special mention, without, however, any detail. To wit:—

One factory with over 60 complicated machines, and employing 50 hands, for making blue cut tacks, brads, shoe, clout, and finishing nails, iron and copper rivets, &c. One for making nuts and bolts of all varieties and sizes.

One star candle factory and mill, employing 18 hydraulic presses, for the purpose of expressing from lard the oleine and stereine. Over 10,000 barrels of lard are used annually, the oleine of which is converted into lard oil, and the stereine into star candles.

One which makes all sizes of wrought spikes, small and large rivets, &c. One factory situated at Brighton, but having stock and warehouse at Pittsburgh, for making all sizes of wire, rivets, sieves, safes, &c. Three or four factories of agricultural and gardening implements.

Six paper-mills at Pittsburgh and neighborhood. Six rope-walks for the manufacture of hemp and manilla rope, twine, &c. Three extensive establishments for sawing, cutting, and dressing stone, making burr millstones, &c.

One establishment exclusively engaged in making railroad spikes, by a lately patented and wonderfully efficient machine, turning out from 5 to 7 tons of spikes every day. One very large mill for the manufacture of oilcloth, window shades, &c.

Two chemical works for the manufacture of nitric and sulphuric acid. Two extensive gas works, one in Pittsburgh and one in Alleghany, charging only $1 80 per 1,000 cubic feet. Three water works, two for Pittsburgh and one for Alleghany.

All of the above employ steam in their operations.

Also, we may pass with a mere mention, many minor establishments, which in the aggregate add much to the value of Pittsburgh products. From 10 to 20 furnaces for the conversion of coal into coke. Factories for woolen goods, woven garments, and crash; for cards used in cotton and woolen machinery; for harness, trunks, riveted hose, and saddlery hardware; for sickles, surgical, dental, and surveying instruments; for earthen,

stone, and yellow Rockingham ware; for fire, building brick, tiles, and marble work; for the manufacture of Chilson's furnaces, and for copperizing iron; for the manufacture of gas and water pipes, chandeliers, oil, lard, and fluid lamps; for bellows, Venetian blinds and shutters, lead pipe—and, finally, yards where are made in large numbers flats, canal, and keel boats, barges, steam tugs, and boating work generally.

Steamboat building, though mentioned last, is one of the most important branches of Pittsburgh manufacture, and in their construction, equipment, and management, employs an immense number of artisans of many different trades. The effect of railroads thus far constructed has been greatly to increase, rather than diminish the river trade. Numerous steamers arrive daily, laden to the guards with the cereals and other produce of the South and West.

Contrary to expectation, and owing to the great demand for river shipment at points on the Western waters, freights are high, steamboats are selling at a greatly advanced price, and the numerous boat builders are driven to the wall with work, and are hotly pressed to fill their orders. Chiefly on account of the great abundance of the required varieties of timber, and of other materials usually employed in building, steamers are built better and cheaper at Pittsburgh and vicinity than at any Western port, and, in consequence, more are built and fitted out there than at any other two or three cities in the West.

For the year 1853, 59 were enrolled on the custom-house books of Pittsburgh; and in 1854, the number of new boats launched, some of them of unusual size, power, and carrying capacity, will rise above 80. The improvements which have of late years attended the construction, the adornment, and the appointments of river steamers, for burden and for passengers, have been numerous and of great value. The very large and powerful boats which have lately been launched as passenger packets between Pittsburgh and Cincinnati, are superb specimens of workmanship, with furniture and decorations of the most gorgeous and elaborate order, and complete in all that can administer comfort or pleasure to the traveler. These splendid floating palaces are over 250 feet in length, have an actual carrying capacity of from 800 to 1,000 tons, cost from $60,000 to $80,000 each, and move with great ease and swiftness. A boat is now being built at one of the yards for the St. Louis trade, of 1,080 tons burden by custom-house measurement, but of an actual carrying capacity of full 1,700 tons. This immense boat will cost, finished and equipped, no less than $80,000. There are other boats now in process of construction, which are designed and built on an entirely new plan, with the purpose of carrying large amounts of freights on very little water. They will have each two wheels at the stern, two powerful double engines, will be of unusual breadth of beam, and so arranged as to carry from 3 to 500 tons on 3 feet of water. If this experiment should prove successful, of which there can be little doubt, it will be of inestimable aid to the Pittsburgh carrying trade in seasons of low water.

Pittsburgh boats are all built on the high-pressure principle, and will average about 300 tons by custom-house measurement, to which fully one-half must be added for actual carrying capacity, making an average of 450 tons each.

Owing to the irregular method by which in this department Western custom-house books are kept, it is almost impossible to arrive at, with any

accuracy, the aggregate *living* steam tonnage of Pittsburgh. The official report on Commerce and Navigation, published by the Treasury Department, for 1852, records the steam tonnage of various Western cities thus:—

	Permanent ste'm ton'ge.		Permanent ste'm ton'ge.
Louisville	11,818	St. Louis	32,646
Wheeling	4,280	Pittsburgh	57,782
Cincinnati	10,238	Baltimore (Eastern)	12,764
Chicago	11,993		

This table is manifestly disproportioned and full of error. The amount of steam tonnage registered on the custom-house books at Pittsburgh is—

To June 30, 1853	70,268 tons
To January 1, 1854	75,505 "
Add one-half for actual carrying capacity	113,257 "

Which we understand to be the aggregate steam tonnage of boats originally built and owned there. If, as is the duty of the custom-house officer, the tonnage of boats condemned, sunk, or sold out of the district, were deducted from the above amount, the aggregate tonnage would be very materially reduced.

Our account of Pittsburgh would be incomplete, did we not mention some few of the public edifices which add beauty to the city, give many conveniences to citizens, and many of which serve also as mementoes of the generosity of the benevolent.

There have been lately completed two covered market-houses, which for propriety of design, excellence of arrangement, and general commodiousness, are not surpassed anywhere.

A new custom-house, built in the Greek style, of freestone, with a beautiful post-office and United States court-rooms, and costing $115,000, has just been occupied, and Pittsburgh importers have their duties levied from their own custom-house.

A United States marine hospital has been finished two years, and is now occupied. Three hospitals, erected and sustained by private charity, have lately gone into operation. A very beautiful house of refuge, capable of lodging with comfort 450 inmates, is now receiving the finishing touches. Excepting a moderate appropriation by the State, this fine edifice will be a monument of private munificence.

Three costly Gothic churches will be completed during the present year —one for the Presbyterians, one for the Methodists, and one for the Roman Catholics. This last will be a structure of unusual splendor and size, and capable of containing 8,000 persons.

At convenient distances from the cities on the Alleghany and Monongahela, are situated the Alleghany and Pittsburgh poor-houses, while a third for the country will shortly be completed.

The court-house, with county jail attached, is a noble and imposing building of stone, and has been very much admired. Its cost was over $200,000.

The penitentiary for West Pennsylvania, looking like some old feudal castle, with its turreted walls, is a State institution, and is situated in Alleghany City.

The United States arsenal and government machine shops, with officers

houses attached, occupy some beautiful and tastefully decorated grounds near the city lines, on the Alleghany River.

Each city has also very extensive rural cemeteries, with delightful shades, running waters, commanding prospects, and rare and costly shrubbery. In the absence as yet of shaded public grounds, these cemeteries are the frequent resort of both citizens and strangers. There is a reasonable hope that a large area of waste common, now lying in the center of Alleghany, will be shortly converted into shaded public parks. In event of a consolidation of the two cities and adjacent boroughs, a bill for which is now before the Pennsylvania Legislature, it is probable that the bridges between the cities will be free, and these grounds immediately improved.

The third position, that Pittsburgh is destined for much Commerce, and as a *distributor*, both for the East and West, the limited space yet remaining for us, compels to treat as briefly as possible.

A careful study of the map of the United States, a survey of the great natural highways of the North, South, and West, and of the directions and tendencies of advancing population and trade; a consideration, moreover, of the position of the chief seaboard cities, and the related directions of the growing centers of Western population and Commerce, between which two groups of cities there must always be an interchange of commodities and values, will most clearly demonstrate the commercial value of the position of Pittsburgh. We do not fear claiming too much. Occupying a central point between the North and South, situated at the base of the western slope of the Alleghany Mountains, at the conjunction of three navigable rivers, which give her command of 20,000 miles of cheap navigation, and that too at a most convenient distance and proper direction from five important Eastern cities, Pittsburgh stands *the door of the West.* Where she does not lie in a direct line between Eastern cities and their opposites in the West, her cheap water navigation, which terminates with her, and gives choice of five markets, will procure her large quantities of freight and much travel for points beyond her.

The various railroads which will shortly be completed, and which will connect her in the directest line with every important city, either East or West, as low down in latitude as Washington on the one side, and Memphis on the other, are expected to benefit her in divers ways. It is apparent that railroads may go through even a large place which has no local advantages, where freight breaks no bulk, and where there is no object for any stoppage in transitu, and still receive no large accession of population, or increase in value or influence; but where a city has already become a trade center and busy mart of Commerce and manufacture, and the market of a large region of country unusually abounding in agricultural and mineral wealth, every completed road increases her population, her wealth and power, makes an additional section of country dependent on her, enlarges the market for her produce and manufactures, and advances her material welfare in many unexpected ways.

Most undoubtedly, to her position at the one extremity of river navigation, Pittsburgh, without (until very lately) a single railroad, owes whatever commercial importance she is possessed of, and is the main cause why railroads have been projected and built with reference to her; and if that river were navigable the whole year round for heavy draught steamers, no number of railroads that could be built would ever be able to approach it in the carriage of freight or in value to Pittsburgh.

Their position, with reference to water navigation, is building up Chicago and Buffalo at each extremity of the lakes; it has built New Orleans and New York in part.

At seasons of good water, heavy freights are carried from Pittsburgh to St. Louis and Nashville for 25 cents per 100 lbs.; to New Orleans and Dubuque, for from 30 to 40 cents per 100 lbs.; and no railroad, no matter how cheaply it may be constructed or how low its running expenditures may be reduced to, will ever be able to compete with water navigation at such rates. It is a fixed and well known law of Commerce, that unless certain influential causes operate in attracting trade out of regular courses, it will seek the nearest and cheapest way to market, and so intelligent and sensitive is it that, other things being equal, as soon as better and cheaper transportation facilities are afforded, as soon as freight can be carried one cent cheaper per 100 lbs., and more especially if time, rates, and distance be favorable, so soon will it give immediate recognition of the fact, and commence to flow in those courses.

Cheapness, certainty, and safety, are alike required by shippers and receivers. Pennsylvania and her chief cities, Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, have been exceedingly negligent in providing those commercial avenues which would secure to them the vast trade of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys; nor did they prepare to move until the far-seeing sagacity and far-reaching enterprise of New York and Baltimore, were preparing to enter with their roads and drain the domain belonging of nature to them. Because cheap freight and travel communications were not provided through Pennsylvania, much of the passengers and produce of the country west of her were diverted from their direct courses to New York, via Toledo, Sandusky, Cleveland, and Buffalo.

The effect of one road, although not yet completed and scarce yet in working order, in drawing back this trade into its lineal directions, is already manifested in the last published import and export reports of those lake cities.

The Ohio River is the great channel in which most of the produce and bulky freightage of the great Western valleys would flow, provided it offered a regular, certain, and cheap navigation at all seasons of the year, and if at its terminus such artificial avenues are afforded as would carry from it that which is destined for the East, and to it that which is destined for the West. It is great cause for wonder that so little has as yet been done to improve the navigation of that great national highway.

When we know the large results that would ensue from an improved condition of that and other western rivers—that ten populous, wealthy, and influential States, six large western cities, and, on the completion of roads now being built, five great eastern cities are more or less immediately interested in its constant and unembarrassed navigation, it is a legitimate subject for astonishment that no more earnest, united, and persistent endeavor has been made to secure for it the attention and favorable legislation of Congress. When single States or western corporations can procure whole millions of acres for measures of only sectional importance and limited benefits, what valuable aid, if urgently and unitedly demanded, could not an organized and co-operative combination of such States and cities secure?

Pittsburgh, although the last first-class city to move in the matter of railroads—those wonderful agents for advancing civilization and Commerce, and for uniting in close and amicable connection distant sections—has yet so

speedily recovered her lost ground that there is nothing on that point, and no road proceeding from her in any direction left to desire. All that remains for her is to await the completion and beneficial consequences of the many roads now in process of completion, to observe the direction and relations of western Commerce, to carefully guard against all that may do injury to her interests or divert her trade, and to stimulate, cherish, and aid all that may prove tributary and of value to her.

Beside the River Ohio, Pittsburgh is the terminus of the Monongahela, now navigable as far as Brownsville, but which, when three more dams now being built are completed, will be navigable for first-class steamers as far as Fairmount, Va. The tonnage for 1853 passing over the Monongahela slack water improvement amounted to 577,941 tons, and the number of through and way passengers upwards of 100,000. When completed there must be a very large increase. She is also the terminus of the Alleghany River, now navigable at certain seasons as far as Franklin. A company has just been chartered this spring for its improvement by dams. The probability is that it will be made navigable at all seasons as far as the Kiskiminitas. If that river be then slackwatered to Johnstown, at the foot of the mountains, then commencing at Holidaysburg on the thither side of the mountains, and if the Juniata be slackwatered as far as the Susquehannah and Harrisburgh, it would offer a channel fully as cheap and far more commodious than the great New York and Erie Canal, the pride of New York.

Pittsburgh is also the terminus of the main line of State works from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, canal and railroad. A bill for the sale of this whole line has been most warmly and intelligently discussed, and has just passed the House by a vote of 64 to 30, and will most undoubtedly pass the Senate. The whole line will be sold for eleven millions of dollars, and the Central Road, in connection probably with some western roads, will become the purchasers.

There are other canals, both in Pennsylvania and Ohio, which give cheap channels for freight throughout a broad and populous country, and which connect Pittsburgh with the Lakes.

In order to estimate the value of the position of Pittsburgh as a railroad center and a distributing point, it will be necessary to take a hurried and comprehensive survey of the various roads which will converge to her from all directions, and which are now being rapidly pushed to completion.

There are altogether now nine distinct and independent routes which do or will enter Pittsburgh. Two of these, the Ohio and Pittsburgh Road and the Pennsylvania Central, are now completed. The Cleveland and Pittsburgh Road is completed to Wellsville on the Ohio, and at present employs between that point and Pittsburgh keel-boats for her freight, and steamboats for her passengers. The others have abundant means, and will be speedily constructed.

Five of these roads will be trunk lines, and will have many important tributaries and connections, and all will be good paying roads as soon as finished. Those stretching out to the West are—

1. The Ohio and Pennsylvania Road, in successful operation throughout its whole length to Crest Line, a distance of 187 miles, penetrating the rich wheat regions of Ohio, and forming many important connections. At Alliance it meets the Pittsburgh and Cleveland Road, at Londonville the Mt. Vernon and Springfield Road, at Crest Line the Sandusky and Cleveland Roads running to Cincinnati. Its continuations thence are in two important

directions, one by the Ohio and Indiana route to Fort Wayne, thence by an air-line road directly to Chicago, making the shortest possible route for the whole northwest country to Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and even to New York. Another road which it will meet at Fort Wayne, and of whose value to it and to Pittsburgh it is impossible to exaggerate, is the great Fort Wayne and Mississippi Road, proceeding due west from Fort Wayne, crossing the Mississippi River at or near Lacon, and terminating at the mouth of the La Platte River; a stupendous undertaking—traversing a country now but sparsely settled, but which, when fully populated and cultivated, will become the garden of the world. The other direction is to St. Louis by the Bellefontaine and Indiana Road to Terre Haute, thence in an air line to St. Louis, a charter for which link has at length been obtained from Illinois. This route, especially if the Pacific Railroad should terminate at St. Louis, will be a most important one for Pittsburgh. Although not yet stocked, and having few connections as yet, the business and travel on the Ohio and Pennsylvania Railroad is steadily increasing. In each instance, except in cost, the estimate of its managers has been exceeded:—

Receipts for March, 1853	$38,743	Receipts in 1st quarter of 1853.	$94,858
Receipts for March, 1854	81,150	Receipts in 1st quarter of 1854.	202,295
Increase	42,407	Increase, 113 per cent	107,436

2. The Pittsburgh and Steubenville Road, proceeding due west from Pittsburgh, crossing the Ohio at Steubenville, where it is continued by the Steubenville and Indiana Road to Columbus, where it becomes connected with a perfect network of Ohio and Indiana roads which radiate in every direction, and thence proceeding in the most direct practicable route to St. Louis. This road will be finished in about a year, and will be a most excellent passenger route, as it is the straightest line from St. Louis, and that immense tract of country lying due west from Pennsylvania, to Philadelphia, New York, and Boston.

Another very important branch will be the Maysville and Pittsburgh Road, which, at the former town on the Ohio, unites with a road extending by way of Lexington through Kentucky and Tennessee to Memphis, on the Mississippi. This road will evidently, from a mere survey of the route, be of great importance, and will, especially if a route to the Pacific start from Memphis, be fruitful in good results to Pittsburgh.

3. The Cleveland and Pittsburgh Road is already in operation to Wellsville on the Ohio River, between which Point and Pittsburgh keel-boats are employed to carry its freight, and a steamboat to carry its passengers. One branch is now being built from Wellsville to Bridgeport, opposite Wheeling, and another toward Pittsburgh, either to enter into Pittsburgh by a separate road controlled by its company, or by a junction with the Ohio and Pennsylvania Road at Beaver. This road and its branches cannot fail in bringing a large accession of business and travel to Pittsburgh, which will be felt in all her commercial relations, and add largely to her position as a point desirable for eastern connections. Even now, when yet unfinished, and having freight subjected to transhipment at Wellsville, it does a large and increasing business with Pittsburgh. The tonnage carried by it from that point alone for 1853 was 15,000 tons; the tonnage for 1854, estimating from its increase in the first quarter of the year, will be considerably over 30,000 tons, at least four-fifths of which will be Pittsburgh manufactured articles.

4. The Cleveland and Mahoning Road, now being built, will penetrate the fertile and populous region known as the "Western Reserve," will give a closer connection with Cleveland and the Lakes, and will for much of the distance diverge but gradually from the Cleveland and Pittsburgh Road, with which, however, it cannot interfere. It will be completely finished in 1855; it will create a very large local trade, and will secure a large portion of the trade and travel centered at Cleveland and destined for points east and southeast of it. It will either connect at Newcastle with a branch of the Ohio and Pittsburgh Road, or will come directly into Pittsburgh by a separate road now projected and discussed.

5. The Pittsburgh and Erie Road is a project which has had various and fluctuating fortunes, but is now supported by such energetic and responsible men, and has such a firm and generous financial basis, that it will be immediately pushed to completion. It will serve to develop a rich agricultural and mineral country, will give a most direct northern connection with the Lakes, and will be a duct for Pittsburgh coal and manufactures to the lake country and the Canadas. Its route has been finally located through Mercer, and it will meet the Ohio and Pittsburgh branch at Newcastle.

6. The Chartiers Valley road is a route 25 miles in length, which proceeds from Pittsburgh on the south, keeps along a valley widely celebrated for its picturesque beauty and mineral resources, and unites with the Hempfield Road at Washington, Pa. It has just been put under contract, will be finished in one year, and is considered of more importance and dignity than a mere local branch. It is built to counteract the injurious withdrawal of freight and travel by means of the Hempfield route, a road which issues from the roads centering at Wheeling, proceeds due east, leaves Pittsburgh to the north, and unites with the Pennsylvania Central at Greensburg. It will enjoy a large local trade, and will be beside a much-traveled link uniting Pittsburgh and the West.

7. On the northeastern side proceeds a road which Pittsburghers are accustomed to regard with peculiar favor, simply because—independent of its through travel and freightage, which will be immense, and its more distant connections, which will be many and important—it divides, from one end to the other, one of the most magnificent districts in our country, one which is richer in resources than any other; which has hitherto remained a wilderness only because it has been inaccessible and without market facilities, and which, above all, will make Pittsburgh its chief outlet. The vast stores of iron ore, coal, limestone, salt, &c., the boundless forests of many and valuable varieties of timber which are so bountifully deposited from one end of the Alleghany Valley even up to the New York line, we have already attempted to do some justice to. When cleared of its timber it will become a most luxuriant agricultural region; and a careful writer for the New York *Tribune*, who has traversed thoroughly the entire valley, predicts that, such are its capabilities for supporting a dense, thrifty, and industrious population, that before the year 1900 it will contain 2,000,000 inhabitants. From the numerous roads now projected and being built to drain this prolific valley, we think this no unlikely result. This Alleghany Valley Road meets the New York State line at Ceres, and the New York and Erie Road, of the same gauge, at Olean, and by another branch at Corning. The Buffalo and Pittsburgh Road will come into it at Johnsonburg. The Genessee Canal, Rochester and Pittsburgh, and Attica and Alleghany Roads will unite with it at Olean. A mere glance at the map will demonstrate the importance

and value of these connections, the immense range of country which they open to Pittsburgh, the excellent connection with the Ohio River which it offers to New York, Boston, Albany, Rochester, and Buffalo, as also the character of the rich and fruitful region which will in great part make Pittsburgh its entrepot.

On the east, the various roads, either contemplated or in progress, will, when finished, place Pittsburgh in the closest and straightest possible concection with Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston; and first in importance is—

8. The Pennsylvania Central, a most admirably constructed road, connects Pittsburgh with Philadelphia in the straightest possible line allowable by Pennsylvania geography, and with Baltimore by a course not so direct. This road, scarcely yet finished, with only one track, and controlled by two parties, is yet transacting an immense business. Its revenues for the year 1853, while yet unprovided with adequate rolling stock, with comparatively few connections, and with numerous old-fashioned inclined planes to be overcome, were over $3,000,000. Its results to Pittsburgh are already beyond the most sanguine anticipations of its friends, and its promise for the future is most brilliant. A few days since, 1,700 through passengers were received in Pittsburgh by two trains, while 1,500 has not been an unusual number. During the month of March there was transported from Pittsburgh to Philadelphia by this road 11,300 tons, to Baltimore, 1,801. It has not only succeeded in causing a reversion of freights and travel into their direct and natural channels, but it has also drawn them from courses in which they have long flowed, and which seemed to be their natural ones. Thus, in the month of March, this road carried east vast quantities of freight from St. Louis, which has heretofore reached the eastern markets through New Orleans, *via* Ocean. Thousands of barrels of flour marked "Peru Mills, Ill.," have also gone by this route. By a comparison of the March exhibits of some of the most important and flourishing roads in our country, some idea may be formed of the immense business which this road will shortly be able to accomplish:—

	Receipts for March, 1853.	March, 1854.
Hudson River Road	$119,803	$174,240
New York Central	324,511	416,847
Southern Michigan	87,144	149,495
New York and Erie	371,499	476,316
Central Pennsylvania	310,955	486,184

When it is remembered that this is a new road, with not a single branch, and that the receipts from way passengers and freight on the Columbia Road are not included in the above estimate, the result must be as surprising as it is gratifying to its friends. Before five years have elapsed, it is highly probable that two other excellent parallel routes will unite Pittsburgh with Harrisburgh, and three more Harrisburgh with Philadelphia. The former are, one by the Connellsville Road as far as Fairfield, thence by the Chambersburgh and Alleghany Road to the former place, and thence by the Cumberland Valley Road to Harrisburgh; and one by the Alleghany Valley Road as far as Brookville, thence by a new route, the Sinnemahoning and Pittsburgh, to the Sunbury and Erie Road, and by that road to Harrisburgh. The three roads to connect Harrisburgh with Philadelphia are, first, the Dauphin and Susquehannah Road, uniting with the Reading Road at Port Clinton; second, the Lebanon Valley Road, coming into the Reading Road

at Reading; and third, the Philadelphia and Pine Grove Road, coming into the Norristown Road at Norristown. These roads are all more than merely projected, and all of them will be needed for State and for inter-state trade and travel.

9. The Connellsville Road, part of which is under contract, proceeds from Pittsburgh in a southeastern direction, follows the course of the Youghiogheney through a valley unusually abounding in ore, limestone, coal, marble, and forests of most valuable timber, as far as Will's Creek, thence it takes an east, and then a south direction, and unites with the Baltimore and Ohio Road at Cumberland, a distance altogether of 147 miles. This road is justly considered by Pittsburgh as one of great interest and overshadowing importance, as it develops a very valuable portion of the State, for which she will be the outlet and market, and gives the most direct practical connection with the Baltimore and Washington. Two shorter routes to Washington City are projected, and will most probably soon be built. One, called the "Manassas Gap Road," diverging from the Connellsville at a point called "Myers's Mills," in Somerset County, Pa., and coming in at Alexandria, and the other called the "Metropolitan Road," commencing at Harper's Ferry, on the Baltimore and Ohio Road, and proceeding in a straight course to Washington. Both of these routes will be much straighter, and of course nearer than that by way of the Baltimore and Ohio Road. The Connellsville is heartily supported both by Baltimore and Pittsburgh, and will be pushed with vigor and speed to completion.

This is the ninth and last road of those converging at Pittsburgh; and these avenues, when finished, together with the natural ones so often alluded to, and those abundant supplies and supports of industry which lie so closely around her borders and within her ready and cheap control, must constitute Pittsburgh for all time to come a center and radiating point of manufactures, Commerce, and travel, scarcely susceptible of over-estimation.

There is a growing desire in a large portion of Pennsylvania to become more closely and directly connected with New York City, which will always be the great metropolis, financial, and trade center of this Union, and nowhere is that desire more heartily felt and more clearly manifested than in Pittsburgh, and the indications now are that the largest liberality and the most generous spirit will prevail in the State counsels, and that New York will have free and unembarrassed passage for her travel and her trade in all desired directions through Pennsylvania, and also unrestricted liberty to obtain in the least costly and most direct manner such of her mineral wealth as she may stand in need of. If the teeming and wealth-burdened soil of this State be owned by her citizens, and if, as has been said, "the future millionaires of the country are among the coal mines and ore deposits of Pennsylvania," the opinion must and will shortly, if it do not already obtain, that her true policy and wisest course is to lay open through all her borders the mineral wealth and resources of the State, to grant the most plenary license to all of whatever State, who, by increasing avenues, make sale of her products, and so to increase her markets and the facilities for reaching them in the most direct manner, as to stimulate and add vigor and activity to her mining and manufacturing industry. There are already many projects for giving free passage to New York through Pennsylvania—some in connection with the Central route, others with the Sunbury and Erie, and others again independent of both. These measures will soon mature, and will most likely receive the support of two-thirds of both houses of the legislature. Probably

the best route possible, all circumstances considered, is that by the New Jersey Central to Easton, thence to Allentown, thence, by the only link yet to be constructed, to Port Clinton, thence by the Dauphin and Susquehannah Road to Harrisburgh, and thence by the Central Road to Pittsburgh and the Ohio Valley. This road is completed all but 30 miles, and will be 160 miles nearer to Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis, than by the New York and Erie Road.

In conclusion, it may be in place to state that much of the future prosperity, usefulness, and influence of Pittsburgh will depend on the wisdom, liberal views, and enlightened policy of Pennsylvania legislation; and whatever could with truth have once been said of that policy, and notwithstanding the hasty and ill-advised complaints which have been lately made of it, yet it is clearly and abundantly manifest that the decided tendency of the people of Pennsylvania and their representatives now is to the utmost liberality and largeness of view in favor of the development of the resources of the State, and a consideration of the interests of the whole rather than those of a class or section—of allowing each city and locality to depend on its own energy, foresight, and natural or acquired advantages for its share of business, trade, and travel, and in opposition to burdensome restrictions and unreasonable shackles on Commerce.

The present Legislature is near the close of a most arduous session, and has established many measures of great public benefit and importance. The late sale of the main line of the public works—which, it is allowable to hope, is but the "beginning of the end"—will at once sweep off a large portion of the public debt and its concomitant taxation; and before another year, the decided probabilities are that a general railroad law, as liberal in its provisions as that of New York and other States—a more favorable mining and manufacturing law—an enlargement of banking capital and a sound currency, so as to meet the exigencies of a growing mechanical and manufacturing population, similar in its arrangement to the banking laws of New York and Wisconsin, and a repeal of the oppressive and odious usury law which, as it stands, is an unwarrantable interference between men having and men wanting money and a premium on law-breaking, will all be passed. All of which measures will be of much benefit to Pittsburgh, and will enable her to hold out more numerous and attractive inducements to non-residents and capitalists of other States.

Art. IV.—THE MAINE LAW A FIXED FACT.

ITS RESULTS—A NEW ELEMENT IN THE INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS OF OUR COUNTRY.

To Freeman Hunt, *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine*:—

Sir:—"The propriety of accommodation to the circumstances of the times, and of turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account," is a motto which has always constituted the rule of action of unprincipled, trading politicians, and of selfish, unscrupulous tradesmen. The Chinese have no special claim to the credit of acting upon that principle; it has been the pole star of rogues everywhere. Translated into plain Saxon, it reads thus: "Every man for himself, and the devil take the hindmost;" and in this shape it is recognized and acted on by rogues, of high and low degree alike—by the merchant, whose only object is the profits of trade, and by the "politician, who cares not a fig for navigation, Commerce, protection, free trade, sailors' rights," or any other right or interest, public or private, except so far as attention to them may promote his own personal ambition.

Men who act upon such a plan are necessarily incapable of entertaining any enlarged views in relation to the honor and prosperity of their country, or of the welfare and happiness of their countrymen; their motives, objects, and desires begin and end in self. They regard other men only as instruments to be employed in some way, *any way*, or to be sacrificed, if need be, to promote their own views, without regard to honor or the right.

Such men always look with dislike upon every attempt to benefit mankind by *changing* "the circumstances of the times;" and those who refuse to turn the appetites and passions of bad men, or the misfortunes of others —"the circumstances of the time"—to profitable account, are regarded and treated as fanatics. The professed gambler, as he plunders his victim; the base runner, who sells false passenger tickets to the newly arrived emigrant; the scoundrel who invades the sanctity of a neighbor's domestic circle; the robber upon the highway; the pirate upon the seas; the keeper of a grog-shop, as he panders to the depraved appetite of his fellow-men; and the no less unscrupulous politician, who "regards neither navigation, Commerce, protection, nor rights," in his lust for place and power,—act precisely upon this rule of "turning the circumstances of the time to a profitable account;" but no true man can ever adopt such a principle or act upon it.

The promoters and friends of temperance and of the Maine Law are not surprised or discouraged because many influential men regard their views and projects as unwise and unphilosophical. No man is fit to carry out any measure of reform, unless he is prepared to encounter many formidable objections, and to resist or endure any opposition which he may meet. Almost every stage of progress in the history of society and of civilization has been won and maintained in spite of the clamor of men who oppose any change "in the circumstances of the time," because they wish "to turn them to a profitable account."

The English acted upon this principle, when they engaged in the opium trade to China on an immense scale; and again in compelling the poor Hindoos, in large districts of Hindostan, to cultivate the poppy and to pro-

duce opium at a stipulated price, which is sold at an immense profit to the benighted inhabitants of the Celestial Empire. And again, when the Chinese government sought to avert the terrible evils brought upon its subjects by the opium trade—by the prohibition of that trade, and by the exclusion of that poisonous drug from the country, the English continued, in defiance of all law and right, openly to resist the will of the authorities, and to sell opium by the cargo, "turning circumstances to a profitable account."

And again, when Commissioner Lin, by a vigorous and manly exercise of a rightful power, seized large quantities of the contraband article in Chinese harbors, under well-known Chinese laws, and destroyed it—acting in accordance with the law of nations and with the universal practice of all civilized countries—the English "took advantage of circumstances," the weakness of the Chinese, and, after destroying great numbers of them, who were unable with their ivory fans and paper lanterns, to defend themselves against Waterloo bayonets, compelled these poor creatures to pay for the opium destroyed, for the expenses of the war, and to admit opium henceforth, all for the advantage of those who acted upon the principle of "turning the circumstances to a profitable account."

I have been led to these remarks by an article in the April number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, entitled "Experimental Legislation on the Opium Trade in China, and on the Liquor Trade of the United States," in which occur many errors of fact, as to the effect of that legislation on the liquor trade in Maine. Similar statements have been made in the political newspapers of the day by anonymous writers, which have been often refuted by responsible persons, and when repeated in such places are no longer worthy of notice. But any erroneous statements which appear in this leading and influential Magazine are calculated to make an impression upon the public mind for evil, unless they shall be speedily corrected.

The people of Maine formerly suffered more, perhaps, from the ravages of intemperance than have those of any other State. This result might naturally arise from their peculiar employments—the people of the interior being generally engaged in the lumber trade; those of the seaboard, in the fisheries and in navigation.

It might have been for this reason that the attention of philanthropic men in Maine was strongly attracted to intemperance as a *cause*, and that they labored with great assiduity and perseverance in enlightening the people as to the pernicious effects of the habit of liquor drinking. These efforts were attended with great success; yet intemperance continued, especially among the young; and the leading friends of the temperance movement began to consider the possibility of obtaining legal protection from the liquor traffic—the suppression, *by law*, of drinking-houses and tippling-shops, which at that time in Maine, as elsewhere, were protected by statute, licensed for "the public good."

They could not doubt the right of society to protect itself from this evil, as well as from any other. It is the chief function of government to provide for the happiness of the people; and especially in a government *by the people*—a republican government—is it their right and duty to protect themselves and their children—their interests generally, from any and every cause of injury. And, in fact, no trade or business was permitted, except the rum trade, which was believed to be inconsistent with the public good.

Gambling-houses, houses of ill-fame, horse-racing, lotteries, the sale of improper books and pictures, were absolutely prohibited, because they were believed to be demoralizing in their tendency. But drinking-houses and tippling-shops demoralized the people more in one year, than all the others collectively would do in many years. Where, then, is the doubt as to the *right* of society to put the liquor traffic into the category of prohibited trades?

The question of right then was settled; it was no longer debatable: the only question in relation to it was one of expediency. Is such an enactment possible; will the people sustain it? This was a great practical question, and its solution was indispensable before the measure should be attempted. In order to do this, the men whose hearts were set upon the accomplishment of the great work of protection from the liquor traffic, undertook the herculean task of educating the public opinion of Maine in relation to the terrible evils necessarily and inevitably resulting to the people, in all the relations and interests of life, from that traffic.

To effect this, they held meetings all over the State, in churches and halls; in open fields and groves; and especially in every country school-house, by the way side and on the hill side through Maine. In the school districts, "those biding-places of power," these meetings were carried home to every man's door; and thus the masses of the people of Maine were in a short time persuaded that the liquor traffic was an unmitigated curse in the community; that no good resulted from it under any circumstances to any one, while the evils flowing from it were innumerable and intolerable, and they resolved to exterminate it. They did not believe in the wisdom or the morality of the doctrine of turning the base appetites of their neighbors and friends for strong drinks "to a profitable account," and thereby become themselves instrumental in fastening the gigantic evils of intemperance upon their countrymen forever.

The success of these labors was complete. From every quarter of the State came up the cry of the people for "protection to themselves and to their children from the liquor traffic;" and with their petitions for a stringent and summary law, they were careful to send to the legislature those men only who would properly represent their wishes upon this subject, and the Maine Law was the result.

At the time of the enactment of the Maine Law, the liquor traffic was carried on extensively all over the State. By wholesale and retail, in cities, towns, and villages; by hogshead, barrel, bottle, and the glass, were intoxicating liquors sold freely to all comers. These liquors were manufactured in great quantities in Maine, and were imported from other States, by the vessel-load, and steamboat-load, into all our seaport towns, and into all the towns and villages lying upon our great rivers, from which points they were distributed in innumerable diverging streams into every hamlet in the State.

Immediately upon the enactment of the law, the wholesale trade in liquors ceased, and has never been revived. The large stocks in the hands of the dealers were sent off to those other States, the governments of which allowed them to be sold to their people. The strange spectacle was seen in all our cities and larger towns, of the flight of great quantities of liquors, from the operation of the Maine Law. The retail trade was immediately abandoned by every dealer in the State, who had any character to lose, or who desired the good opinion of his fellow-citizens. So far as the trade con-

tinued at all, it was carried on with great secrecy and caution, and was confined entirely to the hands of the lowest and vilest part of the people, chiefly to this class of foreign population. The change in the habits of great numbers of our people was instantaneous and wonderful; they were reformed of their intemperate habits, because temptation was put out of the way.

In the city of Portland, where the law was enforced with considerable rigor, the change was very great. It was apparent to the most casual observer, and was the theme of continual remark among all classes of our people. Our streets were as quiet by night as those of a country village, and our police and watchmen remarked, that their duties were nearly at an end. The effects of the suppression of the grogshops were immediately seen in diminished vagrancy, pauperism and crime, and increased comforts among the poorer part of the people.

The Mayor of Portland, at the end of the municipal year 1851–2, after the law had been in operation only nine months, in his report to the City Council, which was ordered to be printed and circulated through the city, gave an abstract from the returns of the departments connected with poverty and crime, as follows:—

There were committed to the Alms House from June 1, 1850, to March 20, 1851, (before the law) 252; from June 1, 1851, to March 20, 1852, (after the law) 146—☞ difference in nine months, 106. Number in Alms House March 20, 1851, 112; number in Alms House March 20, 1852, 90—difference, 22. Number of families assisted out of the Alms House from June 1, 1850, to March 20, 1851, 135; from June 1, 1851, to March 20, 1852, 90—difference in nine months, (just one-third,) 45. Seventy-five of the ninety in the Alms House March 20, 1852, came there through intemperance; four of the ninety were not brought there through that cause; the history of the remaining eleven is not known.

Committed to the House of Correction for intemperance from June 1, 1850, to March 20, 1851, 46; for larceny, &c., &c., 12—in all 58; from June 1, 1851, to March 20, 1852, for intemperance, 10; for larceny, &c., &c., 3—in all 13; a difference in nine months of more than three-fourths! Committed in April, 1851, 9; in May, 10—19. The "Maine Law" was enacted June 2, 1851, and from the 1st of that month to March 20, 1852, ten months, the number committed was only 10, although great activity was displayed by the police in arresting all offenders.

At the term of the District Court in Portland, March, 1852, but one indictment was found for larceny, and that was the result of a malicious prosecution; while at the March Term of 1851, seventeen indictments were found. These results have been obtained, notwithstanding an increased vigilance in arresting persons found under the influence of strong drinks.

It had been the practice of the police and watch, before the enactment of the Maine Law, to arrest no persons for intemperance who were quiet and able to make their way home; and generally the peaceful inebriate was helped home by the watchman. But after the enactment of the Maine Law this practice was changed, and all intoxicated persons were arrested wherever they were found, that through disclosures from them the secret grog-shops might be discovered. If in 1851–2, the practice of the preceding years had been continued, the commitments to the watch-house would not have been one-third so great as they were; while the adoption of the latter policy by the city administration of 1850–51, would have more than doubled the commitments during that year. The returns from the watch-house were as follow, being taken from the same report of the Mayor, to wit:—

There were committed to the watch-house from June 1, 1850, to and including March, 1851, 431 persons. For the corresponding period of 1851–2, after the enactment of the Maine Law, the number was 180, a deduction of almost three-fifths, notwithstanding the increased vigilance of the police in the latter period in arresting persons found in the streets in a state of intoxication.

The returns from the common jail showed as striking a contrast as do those stated above. The Mayor's report continues :—

Committed to the jail for drunkenness, larceny, &c, from June 1, 1850, to March 20, 1851, 279; for corresponding period of 1851–2, 135—difference, 144. Deduct liquor sellers (72) imprisoned in the latter term, and we have 63 for drunkenness, larceny, &c., &c., against 279 for the corresponding period before the enactment of the Maine Law, a deduction of almost seven-ninths in the short period of nine months! There were in jail on the 20th March, 1851, 25 persons; on the 20th March, 1852, 7 persons, 3 of whom were liquor sellers—without them, the number would be 4 against 25 of the corresponding day of 1851, a falling off of more than 83 per cent in the short period of nine months.

The jails of Kennebec, Franklin, and Somerset counties were empty, and that of Penobscot county nearly so, while the alms houses of the State were rapidly undergoing the process of depopulation. The alms house of Portland was built when the city contained about 10,000 inhabitants, and at 23,000, it was densely crowded. The authorities were considering the erection of a new one, to cost not less than $50,000. But after the Maine Law had been in operation a few months only, ranges of apartments were empty there; and the establishment as it now stands will be sufficient, under a vigorous enforcement of the Maine Law, until the city shall contain 100,000 inhabitants.

An anecdote or two will illustrate the actual effect of the law upon the grog-shops and upon intemperance. Within four months after the enactment of the law, a Portland gentleman introduced to the Mayor a brother of his, who had arrived in the city the evening before. He had come to attend to a law suit, and had taken with him a witness who was a very intemperate man. He feared his witness would become intoxicated, and would remain so, and that he would fail in his suit in consequence. When the cars stopped at seven o'clock, the witness gave him the slip and was off. The gentleman waited anxiously for him at the hotel until twelve o'clock at night, when he came there perfectly sober. The gentleman expressed to him his astonishment and delight, when he replied: "Well, to tell you the truth, I've traveled more 'n five miles, and could n't get a drop." And there he was, a sober man in spite of himself—the grog-shops were exterminated.

But it may be said that strangers would not be likely to find the *secret* grog-shops, of which there were some yet lingering in dark places and deep cellars, but that intemperate citizens could easily procure from them the means of intoxication. Great numbers of intemperate men were reformed, and every Portland man must have been cognizant of some cases of this. There was a man living in our immediate neighborhood who was well known as a very intemperate man. We inquired one day of an acquaintance who knew him, what had became of him, as he had not been seen for some weeks. The gentleman laughed when the inquiry was made, and said that Thompson had been boasting that "he could always get liquor enough, and if his grog should be stopped, it would be pretty dry times in

Portland, he guessed." But about a fortnight before, Thompson was in his shop, with his face bleached out like other peoples', and he said: "Ah, Thompson! what's the matter, that you have changed countenance so much?" "Oh," said he, "I find it such a darned bother to get it, I give it up." And he also was reformed.

Only two weeks ago, in one of our principal streets, we were stopped by a man whom we knew perfectly well as a skillful mechanic, who had been very intemperate. He commenced immediately speaking of his affairs and of his business. We asked where he lived. Step here, said he, and I'll show you. Moving off a rod or two, he pointed out a nice white house with green blinds—and, with pride in his look, he added, "It's mine, and all paid for, and two house lots also by the side of it; and the *old woman* has three hundred dollars in cash in the house besides—all my earnings. Three years ago, I had n't a cent in the——," and here his emotions choked him, that he could not finish the sentence. He had been a miserable drunkard, squandering all his earnings at the shops of those who turned his "circumstances to a profitable account;" but now he was a respectable man and good citizen.

The declaration of the article alluded to in the April number, page 429, "that never was the time, before the present, when so much of ardent spirits, and so bad in its quality for poisoning the human system, within this same city were daily consumed," is so glaringly and notoriously untrue, that I wonder any man can be found bold enough to utter it.

At the time of the enactment of the Maine Law, the number of open rum-shops in Portland was estimated to be from 300 to 400; now, *there is not one!* There is not a shop or place in the city where a respectable-looking stranger can go call for a glass of liquor *and get it.* The keepers of the secret rum-shops have a few well-known customers, and no stranger is admitted, except under the patronage of an *habitue.* These shops contain but small quantities of liquors, and are fitted up with an apparatus which, on touching a spring, will smash the bottles containing them, that they may not be seized by the police.

Liquors introduced into the city are disguised by being inclosed in boxes or flour barrels, and in comparatively small quantities, that they may escape the notice of the police. But a short time ago, two police officers were walking in the street behind an Irishman who had a flour barrel on a hand-sled; they soon overtook him, and were about to pass him, when he turned, and seeing them, exclaimed, "Och!" and fled, leaving the sled and its load. On examination, the officers found the barrel to contain a ten-gallon keg of liquor, and carried it off to the lock-up.

Formerly, liquors were brought to this city by the vessel load and sold at auction. There were many dealers here who sold immense quantities at wholesale, and in addition, there were seven distilleries running night and day every day in the year. Now, there is no distillery in the State; no liquors are sold at all, except secretly and with great caution, to persons only who are well known; yet it is boldly said "that more liquors are sold and drank in Portland now than at any former period."

We have formerly seen in our city long ranges of hogsheads of liquors sold at public auction; have seen large spaces on our wharves covered with pipes and barrels of liquor on sale: dray-loads innumerable of liquors passing through our streets; but now the cartage of a barrel of rum for mechanical purposes only, is a rare sight, and will always attract observation and

excite remark. The quantity of liquors sold in Portland now is immeasurably less than it was before the enactment of the Maine Law.

But we wish to add a few words on the effect of the Maine Law upon the business interests of the State, and, so far as it shall be adopted by other States, upon those of the nation. It was estimated that the people of Maine spent at least $2,000,000 annually for strong drinks, involving a loss directly and indirectly, of wasted time, misdirected industry, and in various other ways, of at least $2,000,000 more—making an annual loss to the State of $4,000,000. The thorough execution of the Maine Law, and the annihilation of the liquor traffic, would immediately result in the saving of this immense sum. Being no longer squandered upon the means of intoxication, it would be directed into legitimate channels of trade, and would be expended for food, raiment, shelter, and other necessaries and comforts of life, so far as they should be needed; and the balance would be added to the annual accumulating wealth of the State, and trade and manufactures would be stimulated to an extent of which we can have but very inadequate conception; while poverty, pauperism, and crime would be almost unknown among us.

The same result would follow to the trade, Commerce, and manufactures of the nation from the suppression of the liquor traffic in all our borders. The annual cost to the nation, in cash, of the liquor traffic, cannot be less than $150,000,000, involving an additional loss, directly and indirectly, of $150,000,000 more—making in all, a vast aggregate of $300,000,000, which is a dead loss to the nation, no valuable return whatever being derived from it. If the liquor traffic should be suppressed, this great sum would at once be employed in promoting the comfort of the people, and in augmenting the wealth, power, and resources of the nation, instead of leaving no other result, as at present, than poverty, pauperism, degradation, and crime.

The signs of the times seem to indicate a growing determination among the people of abandoning the antiquated practice of legalizing the rum traffic, and of trying the experiment of placing it in the category of forbidden trades and occupations. The result of this experiment in Maine, so far, has been every way satisfactory to the friends of the measure, and the results are as favorable as the most sanguine had reason to expect. The measure in this State has been eminently successful. The Maine Law is a fixed fact in Maine; has been adopted already by several other States; and the policy indicated by it will pervade the UNION.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

SHIP-OWNERS—DRAFTS FOR REPAIRS OF SHIP.

The United States District Court, April 18, 1854. In Admiralty, before Judge Ingersoll. William C. Pickersgill and others, *vs.* John G. Williams.

In the month of March, 1850, the respondent was the owner of the brig Selma, then lying in this port, and bound for San Francisco. Wishing to provide her captain with funds, in case he should need them on the voyage, he wrote to the libelants the following letter:—

NEW YORK, March 5, 1850.

Messrs. W. C. PICKERSGILL & Co.

GENTLEMEN:—You will please give me letters to your friends in Rio and Valparaiso, for Capt. John J. Dean, of the brig Selma, to enable him to draw drafts on me at one day's sight, if necessary, on account of said brig, which drafts will meet with due honor on presentation, and much oblige

Your obedient servant,
J. G. WILLIAMS.

Upon this request, the libelants furnished to Capt. Dean a letter of credit upon Messrs. Rostern, Dutton & Co., at Rio, and the brig soon after sailed. Early in May she arrived at Rio in a damaged condition. Capt Dean presented his letter of credit, and requested that the necessary supplies and repairs should be furnished, which was done. After the repairs were commenced, Capt. Dean died, never having drawn the drafts. The vessel was for a time under the charge of the mate, and afterwards a new master, Capt. Story, was appointed by the American consul, approved by Rostern, Dutton & Co. The repairs were prosecuted meanwhile, and when completed, drafts were drawn by Capt. Story on the respondent for the amount, being between seven and eight thousand dollars, which he refused to pay, whereupon this suit was brought.

The vessel sailed from Rio in August. She afterwards put into Valparaiso, in need of further repairs, where she was sold with her cargo by her master, and the avails of such sale, or a portion of them, were sent by him to the respondent, who received them.

The respondent claims that this letter was merely a special application to authorize Capt. Dean, and no one else, to draw drafts. He also claims, that on hearing that the brig had gone into Rio damaged, he made an abandonment of her to the underwriters on the 19th day of July, which abandonment took effect from the time the cause of abandonment existed, and that he was not, therefore, the owner of the brig when the repairs and supplies were furnished, and was not therefore liable for them. He did not, however, pay over or tender to the insurance company the avails of the sale of the brig received by him.

He also claims, that he is not liable to pay the claim, because, on the 30th of August, the then master executed a bottomry obligation for them, by which the original demand was merged. It was not, however, under seal, and was expressly stated to be a collateral security. He also claims that this security was recognized by the parties as a valid bottomry obligation by a subsequent agreement, dated December 27, 1850, entered into between the libelants and the owners of the cargo of the brig, the respondent being one of them. The agreement provided, that nothing in it should affect the bottomry obligation, or any rights which the libelants might otherwise have against the owners of the vessel, and the respondent promised that if the bottomry obligation should not be a full security to the libelants, he would pay them the balance that might be due.

Held by the Court, That the promise, in the letter of March 5th, to accept drafts was only secondary—the object of the letter being to secure funds for the necessities of the vessel, and that whatever repairs and supplies were furnished at Rio to the brig, were to be paid for by the respondent—such pay-

ment not depending upon Captain Dean's drawing drafts, as a condition precedent.

That the supplies were not furnished upon the implied authority of the master to bind the owner, whoever he may be, when in a foreign port, but upon the personal responsibility and at the special request of the respondent; that it is not, therefore, necessary to inquire whether, by his abandonment, he ceased to be the owner of the brig, although his retaining the avails of the sale of the brig would render that seriously questionable.

That the supplies being furnished on the personal responsibility of the respondent, without any agreement for a bottomry security, that security, executed after they were furnished, was without authority and void, binding neither the ship nor the respondent; and no prior valid demand could be merged in or discharged by it; that, being not voidable, but void, it could not be made valid by any recognition of it as valid; that, moreover, the master of the brig not being a party to the agreement of December 27, could not ratify the bottomry security which he executed; while the respondent in that agreement says that he was not the owner of the brig, and his ratification would not bind the brig, if that was so.

Decree, therefore, for libelants for the amount of the repairs and supplies furnished to the brig at Rio, with a reference to a commissioner to ascertain that amount.

THE RIGHT OF SHIP-MASTERS TO FLOG SAILORS.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, Mass., Marion *vs.* Moody.

This was an action by a seaman of the ship ———, against the master, for flogging and confining him. The evidence showed that the ship lay at anchor in the open roadstead, under a lee shore, and that orders were sent off to the master of the vessel to move his ship, as the wind had hauled. The crew refused to work, giving no other reason than that it was Sunday. The next morning they were again ordered to duty. They refused to go to duty unless the master would give them a writing exempting them from liability for their refusal of the day before. This their master refused to do, and called on each of the crew individually. Two consented to return to duty, and twelve still refused. Thereupon the master put six of them in irons. Having no more irons, he again called upon the remaining men, and they all returned to duty except the plaintiff. The master then had the plaintiff tied to the rigging, and gave him some five or six blows on the back with a small rattlin-staff, the plaintiff having on a shirt and frock. He then consented to return to duty. There was a good deal of conflict in the testimony, as to whether the order on the second day related to getting under way, or to the ordinary duties of the ship.

Wells, C. J., ruled that the statute of the United States of 1850, by which "flogging" is abolished in the naval and mercantile service, relates to punishment by flogging, and does not relate to the use of force, in any form, as a means of coercing men to the necessary performance of duty. That remains as at the common law, and is regulated by established principles. If, in this case, the flogging was administered as a punishment for a past offense or an offense then in the course of being committed, it was illegal, and the verdict must be for the plaintiff. If the jury should think that the chastisement was administered, not for punishment, but as a means of coercing to the immediate performance of a duty, then a further question must be determined. If the chastisement was administered in good faith, in the exercise of a reasonable judgment, and was appropriate in kind and degree to the end to be secured, the verdict should be for the defendant: but if, although not administered as punishment, it was yet excessive or unreasonable in kind or degree, the verdict should be for the plaintiff. In the case of a verdict for the plaintiff on either ground, the amount of damages must depend upon the relative conduct of the two parties, and the amount of the wrong and injury actually done.

The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff for one cent damages.—*Boston Advertiser.*

OF THE RIGHTS OF MARRIED WOMEN TO PROPERTY.

In the Supreme Court, (New York,) Special Term, 1854, before Judge ROOSEVELT. Mary A. Rusher and her husband *vs.* Peter Morris and others.

The defendants insist, by demurrer, that although Mrs. Rusher has a right, Mr. Rusher has none to sue, on a bond and mortgage given to her alone, since the act of 1848; that husbands have no longer any interest in the "actions" of their wives, and that wives for the future, in respect to their own property, are to be treated precisely as if, in the language of the day, they were "single females."

Married women's property, including of course her bonds and mortgages, is now, it is true, her "sole and separate estate," and not "subject (any longer) to the disposal of her husband, nor liable for his debts." The new law, dispensing with the usual special conveyancing in each particular case, has made a general marriage settlement for all. But has it gone so far as in effect, in matters of property, to establish an entire separation between man and wife, and has it made it unlawful to join him with her when she is suing to recover her property; and must she in all cases, whether she desires it or not, choose some person to be her "next friend" in his stead?

The new Code of Procedure and the new Married Woman's Rights' Act were both in course of preparation at the same time, and in the same Legislature; but by different and independent hands, and acting in concert. And therefore, although necessary, as it certainly is, it may be difficult to harmonize their provisions. For the mere fact that the date of the final passage of the Code, April 12, 1848, is five days later than that of the other statute, can furnish no ground, under the circumstances, for inferring an intention to repeal any of the provisions of the latter.

Now the code, treating of civil actions, lays down this broad general rule, that "when a married woman is a party, her husband *must* be joined with her"—thus recognizing both his duties and his rights. Certain exceptions, however, of obvious necessity or propriety, are annexed to the rule; namely, divorce, and actions "concerning her separate property." In the former, from the nature of things, she *must*, in the latter she "*may* sue alone." In the former, as her husband, he being against her, "cannot be joined with her," she must sue by her "next friend"—in the latter he not only may, but "must be joined," unless she elects, as she may, to "sue alone." Code, sec. 114.

There is nothing illegal, therefore, in the husband's becoming a co-plaintiff in this suit. But as the wife had an undoubted right—which at times may be of great importance to the better protection of her interests—to sue without him, it is the duty of the court to guard her in its exercise. And the question is, how is that to be done? How is she to be guarded against the possible consequences of suits brought, perhaps without her knowledge or consent, in the joint names of both, but really under the separate control of the husband alone?

When a wife joins with her husband in a conveyance of real estate, the law provides, as the proof of exemption from undue marital control, that she shall make an acknowledgment, before the proper officer, that she does the act freely; and his certificate to that effect is made legal evidence of the validity of the deed. I see no difficulty, in the absence of positive rule, in introducing a similar practice in these cases. Indeed, it is but following a well-established course, never abolished, of the late Court of Chancery. And the principle is also in effect recognized by the amendment made in 1849 to the Married Woman's Act, which places even trust property under the direct control of the wife, and annuls the trustees, in all cases of certificate duly obtained of a Justice of the Supreme Court, that he has examined and made due inquiry into the situation, capacity, &c., of the married woman, and is satisfied with the result.

The sole ground on which the defendants place their demurrer is the alleged "*defect* of parties;" whereas, according to the argument presented at the hearing, the real objection to the complaint is a supposed *excess* of parties, one of them, the husband, having, as is contended, no interest in the cause of action. The oral argument, it will then be seen, overrules the written demurrer. But there is, in fact, neither excess nor defect. Husbands, notwithstanding the act of 1848,

have an interest as against strangers, in enforcing the rights of their wives. Although deprived of the power of disposal, they are not exonerated or deprived of the duty and the right, at their wives' instance, of protecting their wives' property. The complaint in the present case prays, it is true, that the mortgage money, when received, may be paid to both. But the court is authorized to adapt its relief, not to that merely which is asked for, but to that which is just; and, should the wife not make the required acknowledgment of her wishes on the subject, the court can decree the payment to be to her separately, or to her sole and separate use.

At all events, I am not disposed to adopt, either as a consequence of the code or of the act, for the better protection of their rights, the harsh proposition that married women must be turned out of court merely because they come in arm-in-arm with their husbands. Whether the married woman is under restraint or not, may be inquired into. She may be examined as to her wishes, separate and apart from her husband. She may be so examined at her own instance, or at the instance of the defendants, or on the mere motion of the court itself. And if upon inquiry, it should appear that the suit was instituted against her wishes, a discontinuance could be compelled. But if she chooses, as in most instances she well may, to associate her husband with her in the prosecution of her rights, she does but exercise a right, which, if not possessed before, the law of 1848 and the code itself have given her.

The demurrer, therefore, must be overruled, and judgment of foreclosure and sale entered, with costs, and an allowance of three per cent, and with directions to pay the mortgage money, when raised, direct to the wife, unless she shall give a written consent, duly acknowledged before and certified by one of the Justices of this Court, to pay the same to her husband, or some other person, in her behalf.

JURISDICTION—LIEN—STEVEDORE—COSTS.

In the United States District Court, in Admiralty, 1854, Judge HALL. Owen Regan *vs.* The Bark Amaranth.

This was a libel *in rem.*, founded upon a claim for services rendered by the libelant and his workmen in removing ballast from the bark Amaranth, and in carting such ballast away after it had been cast upon the wharf.

On the opening of the pleadings, it was suggested by the court that the decisions which denied the right of a stevedore to proceed *in rem* against a vessel for his services in stowing her cargo, must, if sustained, be held conclusive against the libellant; for if the stevedore had no lien for his service—a service rendered wholly upon shipboard—the libelant must necessarily fail in sustaining a lien for services which had much less claim to be considered as strictly maritime in their character.

The advocate for the libelant nevertheless desired to present the question for more deliberate consideration, and at his request the libelant's evidence, to show that the services charged for had been rendered by the libelant, was taken by the court. The question thus presented has been since elaborately and ably argued, and these arguments and the authorities cited have been deliberately considered.

In the absence of any judicial decision, and especially in view of the very decided opinion in favor of the existence of a lien in such cases, which seems to have been entertained by a highly respectable elementary writer upon the subject of admiralty jurisdiction, (Benedict's Admiralty, sec. 285.) I should not have denied the relief sought in this case, without considerable hesitation and doubt. But the question, at least in this court, must be considered as settled by authorities which I have neither the right nor the inclination to disregard.

In the case of McDermot *vs.* The S. G. Owens, (Wallace, Jr.'s Rep. 370,) Mr. Justice Grier held that a stevedore had no lien for his services in loading and stowing the cargo of a foreign vessel, and he declared that the service was "in no sense maritime, being completed before the voyage is begun or after it is ended, and they (the stevedores) are no more entitled to a lien on the vessel than

the draymen and other laborers who perform services in loading and discharging vessels."

The right of a stevedore to proceed *in rem* was denied by the learned judge of this district as early as 1831, and the doctrine then asserted has, I understand, been ever since maintained in this district.

The authorities are decisive, if the stevedore has no lien. There was certainly none in the present case. It is impossible to make any distinction favorable to the libelant between the cases cited and that now under consideration.

It was insisted by the advocate for the libelant that if the service mentioned in the libel was not strictly maritime in its character, he nevertheless had a lien for the service under the provisions of the N. Y. Rev. Stat., vol. ii., p. 405, sec. 1; but I do not deem it necessary to discuss that question. In the cases already referred to, the existence of the lien was denied upon the ground that the service was not maritime; for if it had been maritime, the existence of the lien as against a foreign vessel would have been conceded without hesitation, and it necessarily follows that the contract and service upon which the libelant founds his claim in the present case were not maritime, or of such a character as to give jurisdiction of this court. If neither the contract nor the service was in its nature or character essentially maritime, it is not material to inquire whether the statute of New York gave the libelant a lien, as this court has no jurisdiction to enforce a statutory lien not founded upon a maritime contract, or growing out of a maritime service or marine tort. The jurisdiction depends upon the nature of the subject matter of the contract or controversy, and not upon the existence or non-existence of a lien. The latter only affects the form of the proceedings and the character of the remedy, and if in this case the statute gave a lien to the libelant, he should have sought his remedy under the statute before the officers or tribunals of the State.

The libel in this case must be dismissed for want of jurisdiction, and with costs.

It was strongly urged by the advocate for the libelant, that if the libel should be dismissed for want of jurisdiction, no costs should be given to the respondents, as they omitted to make the objection by their answer, and the libelant had shown that he had an honest claim—his only fault being a mistake in the form in which he had chosen to assert it. I should have been much inclined to refuse costs, if such a course could have been justified upon the principle under which costs are given or refused in this court. But costs in admiralty, though given or denied in the discretion of the court, are always to be awarded to a respondent who succeeds in his defence, unless strong equities exist to justify a different course. The doctrine upon which I have deemed it my duty to dismiss the libel for want of jurisdiction, has been the settled law of this district for more than 20 years, and the decision of Mr. Justice Grier was reported in 1849. Under such circumstances, I have felt bound to award costs to the prevailing party.

AFREIGHTMENT OF MERCHANDISE.

In the United States District Court. In Admiralty, April 11, 1854. Before Judge Ingersoll. James Connor and William O'Connor, *vs.* the steamship Sarah Sands.

About the 10th of December, 1849, the libelants shipped on board the Sarah Sands, then at this port, bound for San Francisco, forty-two boxes, barrels, and packages, containing type and printers' materials, to be carried to Panama and there delivered in like good order, to be forwarded to San Francisco, and there delivered to Messrs. De Witt & Harrison, or their assigns, at the ship's tackles alongside, and a bill of lading in that form was signed. The ship arrived at Panama, and afterwards, with the goods on board, sailed for San Francisco, where she arrived in June, 1850. Three of the packages, containing important parts of the invoice, were not found on board to be delivered.

All that could be found were lightered from the ship by the direction of some one besides the consignees, and landed upon the beach. Eight of these were,

by the consignees, placed in a storehouse belonging to Everett & Co., the consignees of the vessel, and afterwards the goods were sold by invoice, at auction, for $8,500, but the purchaser, finding that all were not delivered from the ship, refused to complete his purchase. Negotiations were entered into between him and the consignees in reference to the delivery of the missing packages, but before the negotiations were terminated, a fire, on the 14th of June, destroyed all the goods which were then deposited at the landing place. The libelants thereupon brought suit to recover the whole value of the invoice.

Held by the Court, That an entire contract for the transportation and delivery of several articles is not performed at all unless all are delivered; that if the consignee refuses or neglects to receive them when all are offered, the carrier may discharge himself by storing them; that if a part only are delivered, and the consignee accepts them as a performance of the contract in part, he cannot afterwards claim damages for the non-delivery of the whole, but is limited to the damages which he has sustained by the non-delivery of that which he has not received; that if the consignee receives a part, with the understanding that he is to receive the whole, and finds afterwards that the delivery is not complete, he may repudiate the partial delivery, but must, in that case, return or tender to the carrier, within a reasonable time, the goods that he has received, or show some good reason for not doing so. He cannot retain a part, and claim damages for its non-delivery.

Held upon the evidence, That no part of these goods were delivered before they were landed on the shore; that the landing all but the three missing packages did not affect the rights of the libelants to recover the full value of all; that the acts done by the consignees, after the goods were landed, amount to an acceptance of them in the expectation that all would be delivered, and on that condition; that the goods were never returned or tendered to the carriers; and that the fire is not a sufficient reason to excuse this, as it consumed only those that were left on the beach, and not those that were stored.

Held, therefore, That the ship is liable to the libelants only for the damage which they have sustained by the non-delivery of the three missing packages; that damage is the difference between the value of the whole invoice at San Francisco, when the ship arrived, and the value of the invoice exclusive of the missing packages.

Decree for libelants, with a reference to a commissioner to ascertain the damages.

DAMAGES FROM WATER PIPES.

In the Court of Common Pleas, Boston, October Term, 1853. George L. Bell *vs.* Lewis Josselyn. Before Chief Justice Wells.

This action, which was brought to recover damages received from a Cochituate water pipe, illustrates the law upon this important subject. It appeared in evidence that on the 19th of March last the plaintiff was in possession of rooms on the ground flour of a building in Hanover-street, and hired the same of the defendant, that the entire block of buildings was vested in a trustee for the benefit of Mrs. Josselyn, (the defendant's wife,) free from the control of her husband, but that the defendant had the entire management of them as the agent of the trustee; that he resided at Lynn, but employed a sub-agent in Boston, who received the rents but was not authorized to let the buildings; that the defendant, as such agent, had let the premises over the plaintiff to a tenant who had agreed to pay the rent and the water tax, but who, being in arrears for rent and not having paid the water tax, left the premises before the expiration of his lease on the 14th of March, just four days before the damage alleged, and sent the key to the sub-agent's store; that because of the non-payment of the water-tax, the city shut off the water on the day the tenant moved, before he had actually vacated the premises, and in shutting it off from this tenant's room, shut it off also from other premises occupied by another tenant, and which were supplied from the same pipe. That this tenant complained and requested

the sub-agent to have it let on. That during the four days after the leaving of the tenant, and the consequent shutting off of the water, and before the defendant (Josselyn) came to Boston, the premises had been marked "to let," by some one unknown, and the sub-agent had allowed certain persons to take the key and examine them, but had not examined them himself; that on the 18th of March the defendant (Josselyn) came to Boston, was informed that the tenant had vacated and the water had been cut off, and was requested by the other tenant to have it let on; that Josselyn accordingly, without examining the premises, ordered the water to be let on; that in letting it on the other tenant's premises, it was necessarily let on also to the vacant premises of the tenant who had left before the expiration of his tenancy, and which were supplied from the same pipe; and inasmuch as the stop-cock in those premises had been left open by some person unknown, and the waste pipe of the sink had become clogged or stopped up, a large quantity of water passed into and through the premises of the plaintiff.

The case was on trial before Chief Justice Wells three successive days and, the court instructed the jury that a tenant cannot avoid his liability by leaving the premises before the termination of his tenancy and giving up the key, unless the landlord expressly agrees to release him; that the landlord may allow the premises to remain vacant or relet them for the tenant's benefit, and charge him with the difference in rent; that until he does so actually relet, the tenant may demand the key and occupy the remainder of his term, but when so actually relet by the landlord, the tenant, though responsible for the difference in rent, has no further claim on the premises; that a principal is liable for his agent's carelessness; that the plaintiff must show clearly that he was exercising ordinary care, and that the defendant was not; and that whether it is want of ordinary care and prudence to cause water to be let on to occupied premises, when, at the same time, it must be let on to vacant premises, without first examining the pipes and stop-cocks in those vacant premises was the question for the jury to decide. Verdict for the plaintiff for $248 33.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

GENERAL REVIEW OF COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY—STATE OF THE CROPS, AND CONDITION OF THE MONEY MARKET—RAILROAD LIABILITIES AND INVESTMENTS—BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES—BANKS OF NEW YORK AND NEW ORLEANS—PRODUCTION, DEPOSITS, AND COINAGE OF GOLD, SILVER, AND COPPER—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR APRIL AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—CASH DUTIES RECEIVED FOR FOUR MONTHS—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS FOR APRIL AND FOR FOUR MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR APRIL AND FROM JANUARY 1ST—MONTHLY STATEMENT OF EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS—EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS, ETC., ETC.

THE close of another month has brought us no important change in the aspect of the Eastern question, which is held in suspense over the heads of bankers and merchants, like a gloomy cloud that will neither give rain or sunshine. In all our borders there have been no commercial distress, and the troubles which have weighed upon the market are only those of anticipated evil. The doubt as to the effect of the war in Europe upon this country is still as great as ever. Some assert that it can only add to our prosperity, even though it should be long protracted; while others can see in it only the occasion of mischief. The truth, doubtless, lies between the two. An expensive war must lead to commercial embarrassment in England and France, and from our intimate connection with these countries, such embarrassment must result in a partial disarrangement of our present prosperous commercial relations with the Eastern continent.

But our men of business are proverbial for the readiness with which they adapt themselves to circumstances; and when the current of affairs has once taken a decided direction, will trim their barks to take advantage of the tide. There is nothing half so injurious to business as suspense—alternations between the hope for good and the dread of evil; and when once the belligerents have fairly taken the field, and no immediate change is expected, there will be far less anxiety than at present. Meantime, our rural population, after an unusually backward spring, are rejoicing in summer warmth and forwarding the growing crops. Wheat has been killed by the ice in some portions of the Western States, but there is every prospect of a fair average crop. Rye has been largely sown in the Northern and Eastern States, and looks well. Corn is out of the ground, but is backward, and the extent of the crop must depend on a dry summer and late autumn, which all the "signs" foretell. The cotton crop, slightly damaged in some places by early frosts, is now coming on rapidly, and promises well. The clip of wool has been but little, if any, larger than last year, owing to the high price for several seasons of mutton and lamb; but buyers who rushed into the market last year and bought even before clipping, have many of them been ruined; and this year there is no eagerness to purchase, and very little doing by speculators. Prices will rule 10c. a 15c. per lb. below the range of last spring. The avenues by water to the interior are now open, but produce reaches the seaboard in less abundance than was expected. Still it is now coming forward more freely, and has already afforded partial relief to the money markets on the Atlantic. Exchange, however, yet favors New York, from most other points, West and South. Rates of interest have been at some distance above bank charges for more than a year, but the market is now easier. At N. York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, 8 a 10 per cent per annum is now paid at the note brokers; while at the West, and in some parts of the South, 2 a 2½ per cent a month has been the regular charge. There has been at the large commercial centers no scarcity of money, and the high rates have been more the result of a want of confidence in the future than a lack of means.

The various railroad companies, whose interest coupons have matured since our last, have mostly met their obligations with commendable promptness. The Buffalo and N. York City Railroad Co. was one of the defaulters, and a committee of investigation are now probing its affairs, and will endeavor to reorganize its business arrangements on a more substantial basis.

There is little doing in the way of new loans for railroad enterprises, such applications not being well received by capitalists. The New York and Harlem Railroad Company awarded $1,700,000 of its seven per cent first mortgage bonds on the 10th of May, at an average of $93 75, the accepted bids ranging from $92 33 to $95 66.

The banks throughout the Union have generally strengthened themselves since our last, and are mostly in a very good position. The Federal Government have published summary statements of the condition of the banks in the several States about January 1st; but as the process by which the returns are obtained is not compulsory, and the system of reports is not uniform, the result is less useful than might have been expected. We annex a few particulars by way of comparison, referring our readers to the more detailed statement published elsewhere in our columns:—

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES, ACCORDING TO RETURNS NEAREST TO JANUARY 1ST IN 1837, 1843, 1848, 1851, AND 1854.

	1837.	1843.	1848.	1851.	1854.
Number of banks	634	577	622	731	1,059
Number of branches	154	114	129	149	149
Number of banks and branches	788	691	751	879	1,208
Capital paid in	$290,772,091	$228,861,948	$204,838,175	$227,807,553	$301,376,081
RESOURCES.					
Loans and discounts	$525,115,702	$254,544,937	$344,476,582	$413,759,799	$607,287,428
Stocks	12,407,112	28,380,050	26,498,054	22,388,989	44,350,330
Real estate	19,064,451	22,826,807	20,530,955	20,219,724	22,367,472
Other investments	10,423,630	13,343,599	8,229,682	8,935,972	6,841,429
Due by other banks	59,663,910	20,666,264	38,904,525	50,718,015	55,516,085
Notes of other banks	36,533,527	13,306,617	16,427,716	17,196,083	22,659,065
Specie funds	5,365,500	6,578,375	10,489,822	15,341,196	25,579,253
Specie	37,915,340	33,515,806	46,379,765	48,671,048	59,410,253
LIABILITIES.					
Circulation	$149,185,890	$58,563,608	$128,506,091	$155,165,251	$204,689,207
Deposits	127,397,185	56,168,628	103,226,177	128,957,712	188,188,744
Due to other banks	62,421,118	21,456,523	39,414,371	46,416,928	50,322,162
Other liabilities	36,560,289	7,357,033	5,501,401	6,438,327	13,439,276
Aggregate of current credits, *i. e.*, of circulation and deposits	276,583,075	114,732,236	231,732,268	284,122,963	392,877,951
Aggregate of immediate liabilities, *i. e.*, of circulation, deposits, and due to other banks	339,004,193	136,188,754	271,146,639	334,539,891	443,200,113
Aggregate of immediate means, *i. e.*, of specie, specie funds, notes of other banks, and sums due from other banks	139,479,277	74,067,062	112,191,828	131,926,342	163,164,657
Gold and silver in U. S. Treasury depositories	.....	.....	8,101,353	11,164,727	25,136,252
Total of specie in banks and Treasury depositories	.....	.....	54,471,118	59,835,775	84,546,505

The mass of specie which has been added to the circulation of the country is far greater than the total on deposit in the banks. Were the stock in the country still more increased, only a small proportion would be found in the bank vaults, as few of these institutions like to hoard dead capital.

We also annex in this connection our usual statement of the weekly averages of the New York city banks, which presents some interesting features:—

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Week ending.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
August 6, 1853.....	$97,899,499	$9,746,441	$9,513,053	$60,579,797
August 13.....	94,633,282	10,653,518	9,451,943	57,457,504
August 20.....	94,074,717	11,082,274	9,389,727	57,307,223
August 27.....	92,387,618	11,319,040	9,427,191	57,431,891
September 3.....	91,741,338	11,268,049	9,554,294	57,502,970
September 10.....	91,108,347	11,380,693	9,597,336	57,545,164
September 17.....	90,190,589	11,860,235	9,566,723	57,612,301
September 24.....	90,092,765	11,340,925	9,477,541	58,312,334
October 1.....	90,149,540	11,231,912	9,521,665	57,968,661
October 8.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
October 15.....	87,837,273	11,330,172	9,464,714	59,068,674
October 22.....	85,367,981	10,303,254	9,388,543	55,748,729
October 29.....	83,400,321	10,866,672	9,300,350	53,335,462
November 5.....	83,092,630	11,771,880	9,492,158	55,500,977
November 12.....	82,882,409	12,823,575	9,287,629	56,201,007
November 19.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424
November 26.....	84,802,530	13,343,196	9,032,769	58,673,076
December 3	85,824,756	12,830,772	9,153,586	58,435,207
December 10.....	86,708,028	12,493,760	9,075,704	57,838,076
December 17.....	87,865,073	12,166,020	8,939,830	58,312,478
December 24..... ...	88,766,402	12,074,499	8,872,764	58,154,302
December 31.....	90,162,106	11,058,478	8,927,013	58,963,976
January 7, 1854.....	90,133,887	11,506,124	9,075,926	60,835,362
January 14.....	90,010,012	11,894,453	8,668,344	58,396,956
January 21.....	90,068,738	11,455,156	8,605,235	59,071,252
January 28...	89,759,465	11,117,958	8,642,677	58,239,577
February 4.....	90,549,577	11,634,653	8,996,657	61,208,466
February 11.....	91,434,022	11,872,126	8,994,083	61,024,817
February 18.....	92,698,085	11,742,384	8,954,464	61,826,669
February 25.....	93,529,716	11,212,693	8,929,314	61,293,645
March 4.....	94,558,421	10,560,400	9,209,830	61,975,675
March 11.....	94,279,994	9,832,483	9,137,555	60,226,583
March 18.....	93,418,929	10,018,456	9,255,781	61,098,605
March 25.....	92,972,711	10,132,246	9,209,406	59,168,178
April 1	92,825,024	10,264,009	9,395,820	59,478,149
April 8	92,551,808	10,188,141	9,713,215	60,286,839
April 15	91,636,274	11,044,044	9,533,998	60,325,087
April 22	90,376,340	10,526,976	9,353,854	59,225,905
April 29	90,243,049	10,951,153	9,377,687	59,719,381
May 6.....	90,739,720	11,437,039	9,823,007	63,855,509
May 13.....	90,245,927	12,382,068	9,507,796	64,203,671
May 20.....	90,886,726	12,118,043	9,480,018	63,382,661

The actual amount on deposit does not show the fluctuations exhibited by this table. The checks deposited at each bank during the day are credited to the depositor, while the amount drawn for is also to the credit of the drawer in another bank, so that all such items are reckoned twice. The exchanges at the clearing house averaging about $21,000,000 per day, show the amount of such double credits, but the total will vary according to the activity of business.

The following is a comparison of the late returns of the New Orleans Banks:

	January, 1854.	April, 1854.
Circulation	$7,408,594	$7,982,681
Deposits	11,346,694	12,760,305
Other cash liabilities	2,631,899	2,209,842
Total cash liabilities	21,387,187	22,952,828
Specie	6,971,605	8,668,316
Loans	17,696,299	17,637,333
Exchange	3,002,378	3,872,648
Other cash assets	3,526,947	4,030,500
Total cash assets	31,258,341	34,208,800

This places the banks in a much stronger position than they occupied at the opening of the year.

The receipts of California gold at the Atlantic sea ports are less than for the corresponding four months last year, but the total production of the mines and diggings is said to be fully as great. The Philadelphia mint has issued a three dollar gold coin, authorized by Congress, which is neatly executed, but does not seem to belong to our decimal currency, and is too nearly the size of the half eagle to be convenient for those who have not a sharp eyesight. The New York Assay Office has been organized, but has not commenced operations. Silver coin is now plenty and freely supplied by the mint.

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

DEPOSITS FOR APRIL.

	Gold.			
	From California.	Other sources.	Silver.	Total.
Philadelphia Mint	$3,379,000	$63,000	$129,000	$3,571,000
New Orleans Mint	140,528	2,348	289,000	431,876
Total deposits	$3,519,528	$65,348	$418,000	$4,002,876

GOLD COINAGE.

	New Orleans.		Philadelphia.	
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double Eagles	.....	.....	65,386	$1,307,720
Eagles	11,500	$115,000	12,552	125,520
Half eagles	.....	.....	17,570	87,850
Quarter eagles	.....	.....	106,996	267,490
Dollars	.....	.....	232,259	232,259
Bars	.....	.....	532	2,440,639
Total gold coinage	11,500	$115,000	435,295	$4,461,478
SILVER COINAGE.				
Half dollars	140,000	$70,000	394,000	$197,000
Quarter dollars	.....	.....	2,012,000	503,000
Dimes	400,000	40,000	.....	.....
Half dimes	600,000	30,000	1,000,000	50,000
Total silver coinage	1,140,000	$140,000	3,406,000	$750,000
COPPER COINAGE.				
Cents	.....	.....	399,227	$3,992
Total coinage	1,151,500	$255,000	4,240,522	$5,215,470

The following will show the comparative deposits of gold at the Philadelphia mint for the first four months of the year:—

	1852.	1853.	1854.
January	$4,161,600	$4,962,097	$4,215,579
February	3,010,222	3,548,523	2,514,000
March	3,892,156	7,533,753	3,982,000
April	3,091,037	4,851,321	3,379,000
Total	$14,155,095	$20,895,693	$14,090,579

The decline in the imports, which continued through the months of February and March, has again been arrested, and the receipts during the month of April show an increase as compared with the corresponding month of previous years. This increase was not generally expected by the mercantile community, and has created much disappointment among those who are most anxious about the "balance of trade." It has not been owing to an active demand for foreign goods on this side, but rather to an anxiety to sell shown by parties on the other side of the Atlantic; the consignments having largely increased, while the shipments upon orders have diminished. At New York the receipts of all descriptions of foreign merchandise during the month of April are $1,085,177 greater than for the same month of last year, $5,617,169 greater than for April, 1852, and $5,722,340 greater than for April, 1851, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF APRIL.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption	$8,546,184	$8,410,448	$11,746,904	$11,978,281
Entered for warehousing	1,238,313	732,422	2,236,423	2,516,996
Free goods	555,386	1,496,449	1,342,467	2,018,091
Specie and bullion	521,665	327,400	172,917	70,520
Total entered at the port	$10,861,548	$10,966,719	$15,498,711	$16,583,888
Withdrawn from warehouse	1,144,068	1,255,429	1,229,708	1,151,991

It will be seen that the increase has been proportionably greatest in free goods, two-thirds of the excess as compared with last year being in this item. Adding the above to the total of our previous statements, we find that the total foreign imports at New York since January 1st are $991,068 less than for the corresponding four months of 1853, $20,028,076 greater than for the same time in 1852, and $12,373,838 greater than for the same time in 1851. The warehousing business shows a large increase both in the entries and withdrawals, but the latter are the largest, leaving the stock in bond slightly reduced since the opening of the year. We annex a comparative summary for four years:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR FOUR MONTHS FROM JAN. 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption	$41,347,851	$33,321,735	$52,987,576	$49,967,646
Entered for warehousing	5,272,414	3,933,918	5,906,277	7,569,140
Free goods	3,683,602	5,492,792	6,364,459	5,224,287
Specie and bullion	1,166,656	1,067,850	577,117	1,083,288
Total entered at the port	$51,470,523	$43,816,295	$64,835,429	$63,844,361
Withdrawn from warehouse	4,136,189	6,234,927	4,293,708	7,696,720

The following will show the receipts for cash duties at New York for the month of April, and since January 1st; the total for both periods of the current year indicate that there has been a greater falling off in liquors, and other articles paying a high rate of duty, than in ordinary merchandise:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK FOR FOUR MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
1st three months	$9,295,257 30	$7,617,887 72	$11,125,501 47	$10,873,699 31
In April	2,504,640 16	2,447,634 07	3,348,252 14	3,168,490 21
Total	11,799,897 46	10,065,521 79	14,473,753 61	14,042,189 52

The receipts of foreign dry goods have been comparatively larger than the imports of general merchandise, as will appear from the following summary:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF APRIL.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	$918,580	$762,030	$1,421,906	$1,696,666
Manufactures of cotton	698,757	768,902	921,310	1,098,746
Manufactures of silk	1,281,669	999,303	2,104,615	2,204,071
Manufactures of flax	569,399	604,499	609,780	666,177
Miscellaneous dry goods	259,456	291,033	522,563	467,340
Total	$3,727,861	$3,425,767	$5,580,174	$6,133,000

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

Manufactures of wool	$117,031	$149,562	$96,484	$157,963
Manufactures of cotton	140,401	144,867	100,071	167,010
Manufactures of silk	104,735	155,249	100,671	148,412
Manufactures of flax	68,138	75,329	16,228	58,738
Miscellaneous dry goods	50,252	56,554	49,024	32,943
Total withdrawn	$480.557	$581,561	$362,478	$565,066
Add entered for consumption	3,727,861	3,425,767	5,580,174	6,133,000
Total thrown upon the market	$4,208,418	$4,007,328	$5,942,652	$6,698,066

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

Manufactures of wool	$142,721	$121,917	$213,942	$394,431
Manufactures of cotton	105,873	80,984	120,166	235,331
Manufactures of silk	135,904	203,344	144,313	365,506
Manufactures of flax	59,923	48,191	56,320	85,597
Miscellaneous dry goods	24,487	45,301	60,929	35,951
Total	$468,908	$499,707	$595,670	$1,116,816
Add entered for consumption	3,727,861	3,425,767	5,580,174	6,133,000
Total entered at the port	$4,196,769	$3,925,474	$6,175,844	$7,249,816

From the above it appears that the amount thrown upon the market, as well as the total entered at the port, are both larger, showing that there has been an anxiety among receivers to dispose of their stock, and to go out of the season with clean lofts. We also annex a summary of the imports of this class since January 1st:—

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

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	$4,926,776	$4,191,564	$7,468,666	$6,602,680
Manufactures of cotton	5,118,089	4,017,916	6,338,482	7,209,432
Manufactures of silk	9,378,017	7,638,189	11,894,953	11,123,052
Manufactures of flax	3,022,182	2,379,782	3,441,942	3,076,409
Miscellaneous dry goods	1,618,888	1,611,726	2,298,223	2,409,553
Total	$24,064,042	$19,839,177	$31,442,266	$30,421,126

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

Manufactures of wool	$397,586	$709,026	$415,224	$1,001,620
Manufactures of cotton	769,411	966,328	525,591	1,416,409
Manufactures of silk	471,312	1,024,933	592,479	1,208,485
Manufactures of flax	303,342	525,794	107,840	472,721
Miscellaneous dry goods	192,052	192,619	192,161	178,165
Total	$2,133,703	$3,418,700	$1,833,295	$4,277,400
Add entered for consumption	24,064,042	19,839,177	31,442,266	30,421,126
Total thrown on the market	$26,197,745	$23,257,877	$33,275,561	$34,698,526

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	$481,814	$573,699	$588,284	$1,060,313
Manufactures of cotton	671,736	496,554	541,287	1,184,396
Manufactures of silk	749,619	1,323,201	719,084	1,207,785
Manufactures of flax	263,479	161,192	111,554	355,856
Miscellaneous dry goods	180,303	168,150	178,200	106,960
Total	$2,346,951	$2,722,796	$2,138,409	$3,915,310
Add entered for consumption	24,064,042	19,839,177	31,442,266	30,421,126
Total entered at the port	$26,410,993	$22,561,973	$33,580,675	$34,336,436

The difference as compared with last year is not large, but it must be remembered that the imports of last year reached an unprecedented amount, and that a large decline was confidently anticipated for the current year.

The exports of domestic produce from New York to foreign ports, which had been in comparative excess since June, 1853, show a falling off in April, owing to the limited stock on the seaboard, which has prevented shipments. The exports of specie have increased. The total exports from New York to foreign ports for April, exclusive of specie, are $866,054 less than April, 1853, $278,896 greater than for April, 1852, and about the same as for April, 1851. We annex a comparative summary:—

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

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	$4,561,770	$4,244,044	$5,178,471	$4,578,693
Foreign merchandise (free)	59,904	67,719	208,708	125,717
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)	320,981	353,262	422,796	239,511
Specie	3,482,182	200,266	767,055	3,474,525
Total exports	$8,424,837	$4,865,291	$6,577,030	$8,418,446
Total, exclusive of specie	4,942,655	4,665,025	5,809,975	4,943,921

The comparison with the same month of 1851, it will be seen, shows but little difference in any of the items. The exports from New York to foreign ports (exclusive of specie) since January 1st, are 5,081,457 larger than for the corresponding four months of last year, $6,774,645 larger than for the same time in 1852, and $6,950,608 larger than for the same time in 1851. The exports of specie since January 1st, although twice as large as for the same period of last year, are only about the same as in 1852, and less than in 1851. The following is a complete summary:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR FOUR MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	$14,276,498	$14,329,528	$16,199,107	$20,846,630
Foreign merchandise (free)	201,539	288,901	344,211	451,866
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)	1,355,437	1,391,008	1,159,307	1,485,586
Specie	8,125,013	7,232,761	3,228,233	7,366,058
Total exports	$23,958,487	$23,242,198	$20,930,858	$30,150,140
Total, exclusive of specie	15,833,474	16,009,437	17,702,625	22,784,082

Had the stock of domestic produce which reached the seaboard before the close of navigation been sufficient, after the supply of the home-trade, to have left a larger surplus for shipment, the increase in the exports would have been still

greater. We have compiled a monthly summary of the shipments of domestic produce since the comparative increase commenced in June, 1853, which will be found very interesting:—

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS.

	1850–1.	1851–2.	1852–3.	1853–4.
June	$3,971,207	$3,778,289	$3,566,369	$5,057,229
July	3,574,260	3,188,027	2,965,542	4,882,957
August	4,937,393	3,259,594	2,340,820	4,540,383
September	4,844,574	2,593,986	3,289,429	5,579,088
October	4,561,742	2,702,382	3,497,874	5,459,401
November	3,677,657	2,451,511	3,529,447	7,489,937
December	3,444,513	2,512,436	2,947,848	7,166,832
January	3,152,744	2,419,296	2,990,624	5,304,203
February	2,585,786	3,352,943	3,325,005	5,400,924
March	3,976,198	4,313,245	4,705,007	5,562,810
April	4,561,770	4,244,044	5,178,471	4,578,693
Total	$43,287,844	$34,815,753	$38,336,436	$61,022,457

The above shows an increase of $22,686,021 in the shipments of produce from New York since June, as compared with the same time of the previous year—$26,206,704 as compared with the same time in 1851–2—and $17,734,613 over the very large total for the same time in 1850–1. We annex a comparative statement of the shipments of some of the leading articles of produce from New York to foreign ports from January 1st to May 20th in this and the last year:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO MAY 20TH:—

	1853.	1854.		1853.	1854.
Ashes—pots.....bbls	2,364	1,944	Naval stores.....bbls	148,340	242,631
pearls	453	241	Oils—whale.....galls	196,387	86,566
Beeswax.....lbs	97,606	79,663	sperm	249,019	179,276
Breadstuffs—			lard	10,596	13,650
Wheat flour....bbls	588,375	513,377	linseed	3,687	1,540
Rye flour	1,157	6,855	*Provisions*—		
Corn meal	19,095	33,726	Pork.....bbls	30,064	33,841
Wheat.....bush	949,024	1,065,116	Beef	25,905	29,320
Rye		315,158	Cut meats.....lbs	2,806,660	8,359,855
Oats	23,525	11,503	Butter	656,784	976,356
Barley			Cheese	1,830,677	683,916
Corn	509,545	1,926,380	Lard	3,106,769	6,481,365
Candles—mold...boxes	23,417	22,154	Rice.....trcs	5,857	13,656
sperm	2,253	2,740	Tallow.....lbs	667,446	1,483,527
Coal.....tons	13,982	13,260	Tobacco, crude....pkgs	9,298	15,943
Cotton.....bales	109,847	114,355	Do., manufactured..lbs	2,351,982	1,227,627
Hay	1,606	1,548	Whalebone	1,100,971	474,002
Hops	100	404			

This shows a falling off in the shipments of wheat flour, owing to the high prices and scarcity which have prevailed at the seaboard during the last few months. The exports of Indian corn have increased more than 200 per cent, and the quantity of provisions shipped has also been greater—the total of cut meats (chiefly bacon) being 8,359,855 lbs. against 2,806,660 lbs. for the corresponding period of last year. The exports from the Gulf of Mexico, and especially from New Orleans, which showed a large decline for the latter half of 1853, have largely increased since January 1st, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THREE MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	Domestic produce.		Foreign produce.	
	1853.	1854.	1853.	1854.
In American vessels.....	$11,862,932	$17,090,068	$149,173	$49,068
In foreign vessels	7,651,775	7,702,528	30,520	7,841
Total.....	$19,514,707	$24,792,596	$179,693	$56,909

Total exports for three months, 1854.....	$24,859,505
Total exports for three months, 1853.....	19,694,400
Increase this year.....	$5,165,105

If a corresponding increase has been realized from other ports, (and we think this may be safely reckoned upon, from the large shipments of grain and flour taken from Southern Atlantic ports,) the exports for the fiscal year 1853–54 will be swelled beyond all former precedent.

THE NEW YORK COTTON MARKET

FOR THE MONTH ENDING MAY 15.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY UHLHORN & FREDERICKSON, BROKERS, 148 PEARL STREET, NEW YORK.

Cotton has varied but little in price during the past month. The demand has been steady, and holders on the whole have offered freely. The low grades have attracted little or no attention, from their abundance, the principal demand being for middling qualities and above. The finer grades continue scarce, and are held above the views of shippers; our own spinners in the purchase of same are compelled to pay greatly above the quoted rates.

The business of the first week of the month under review exceeded 2,000 bales per day, at an advance of ½c. per lb. on the previous week. The foreign advices being of a favorable character, and confirmatory frost accounts from various sections of the South, tended to the above elevation in prices, which were firmly maintained throughout the week, with the following sales:—

Export.....bales.	3,348	Speculation .....bales.	3,260
Home use	3,310	In transitu.....	2,709
Total sales during the week			12,627

PRICES ADOPTED APRIL 24TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	8	8	8	8
Middling	9⅛	9⅛	9¼	9½
Middling fair.....	10½	10⅝	10¾	11
Fair	11	11⅛	11⅜	12¼

For the week ending May 1st the demand somewhat moderated, and prices were reduced a shade on all grades; the market throughout the week was well supplied and holders disposed to sell. The Arabia's advices, received this week, were favorably construed. Politics looked brighter, money easy, and many of the English spinners commencing the *cotton sail-cloth* manufacture, gave hopes that the consumption of the staple would increase. The prospect here, however, was clouded by the apprehension of a decline to be received in answer to ours, and the week closed dull, with the following sales and quotations:—

Export.....bales.	2,990	Speculation .....bales.	1,170
Home use	2,314	In transitu.....	1,431
Total sales during the week			7,905

PRICES ADOPTED MAY 1ST FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8	8	8	8
Middling	9	9⅛	9¼	9⅜
Middling fair	10¼	10½	10¾	11
Fair	11⅜	11	11¼	12

The depression noticed above continued through the following week, without any material change in prices. The operations were principally on spinners' and speculators' accounts, the demand for export being lessened by the withdrawal of orders and decreased limits on advances from abroad. The quotations below were obtained for a strict classification, but mixed lists were unsalable unless at a decline of about ⅛c. a ¼c. per lb.

Export.....bales.	1,313	Speculation.....bales.	2,107
Home use.....	3,133	In transitu.....	324
Total sales during the week.....			6,877

PRICES ADOPTED MAY 8TH FOR THE FOLLOWING VARIETIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7⅜	7⅜	7⅜	7⅜
Middling	9	9	9⅛	9¼
Middling fair	10¼	10½	10¾	11
Fair	11	11¼	11½	12¼

The week ending May 15th witnessed a revival of a demand from all parties. Our own manufacturers took to the extent of 4,616 bales, mostly of grades above good middling. Their purchases of lower grades are very small. The high price of labor, and the imperfections of our machinery, require a much better article of cotton to produce the same quantity and quality of yarn than is necessary on the other side. Prices gradually hardened during the week, and at the close an advance of ¼c. per lb. was observable on all grades—holders offering their stocks sparingly, especially the better grades, which were only obtainable at outside figures. The market closed firm, at the following quotations:—

Export.....bales.	3,985	Speculation.....bales.	1,514
Home use.....	4,616	In transitu.....	1,289
Total sales during the week.....			11,404

PRICES ADOPTED MAY 15TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7⅜	7⅜	7⅜	7⅜
Middling	9¼	9¼	9⅜	9½
Middling fair	10½	10¾	11	11⅜
Fair	11⅛	11⅜	11½	12¼

The following is from our "*Cotton Report*" prepared for the steamer of the 13th instant:—

CROP PROSPECTS. The probable extent of last year's crop is lost sight of in the interest manifested in regard to the growing one. From all sections of the cotton-growing districts, and from New Orleans, Mobile, Apalachicola, and Savannah, the complaints are numerous and *well founded*, of the damage done to the crop—and the unseasonableness of the weather is the tenor of all letters to the latest mail dates. The frosts of the 17th and 18th of April have been followed by extremely cold weather to the end of the month. The damage done to cotton in many districts is such that planters have decided in most cases to plant corn instead.

Cotton seed for replanting is likewise scarce in many places, and the prospect for the supply of cotton out of the growing crop is anything but encouraging, following as it does our present deficient receipts of 496,000 bales, as compared with last year.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

CORPORATED WEALTH IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

VALUE OF PROPERTY AND TAXES OF STOCK COMPANIES IN NEW YORK CITY.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for May, 1854, (Vol. xxx., No. v.,) we published a statement of the relative value of the real and personal property in each Ward of the City of New York in the years 1852 and 1853, derived from the report of Hon. A. C. Flagg, City Controller. We now give, from the same official source, a statement of the moneyed or stock corporations in the City of New York, deriving an income from their capital, showing the name of each company, the amount of personal and real estate, the total valuation, and the amount of tax levied on each company in July, 1853:—

	Personal estate.	Real estate.	Tot'l valuat'n.	Am't tax.
Bank of North America	$889,749	$90,000	$979,749	$12,092 73
Merchants' Bank	1,376,152	115,000	1,491,152	18,404 83
Manhattan Company	1,705,588	120,000	1,825,588	22,532 64
National Bank	719,862	58,000	777,862	9,600 90
Union Bank	875,000	90,000	965,000	11,919 70
Bank of Commerce	4,890,000	110,000	5,000,000	61,713 49
Metropolitan Bank	1,804,803	200,000	2,004,803	24,744 68
Bank of the Republic	1,325,580	160,000	1,485,580	18,336 05
Mechanics' Banking Association	593,403	53,000	646,403	7,978 34
St. Nicholas Bank	440,000	60,000	500,000	6,171 34
Mechanics' Bank	1,338,330	90,000	1,428,330	17,629 44
Bank of the State of New York	1,867,625	115,000	1,982,625	24,470 94
New York Gas Company	243,654	555,800	799,454	9,867 28
Corn Exchange Bank	436,000	62,000	498,000	6,146 64
Hanover Bank	915,426	50,000	965,426	11,915 95
Dock Company	.....	45,000	45,000	555 40
Phœnix Bank	1,103,274	96,000	1,199,274	14,802 26
Sun Mutual Insurance Company	831,894	150,000	981,894	12,119 21
Atlantic Insurance Co.	732,552	250,000	982,552	12,127 31
Merchants' Exchange Co.	.....	800,000	800,000	9,874 16
Eagle Fire Insurance Co.	233,850	61,583	295,433	3,646 42
New York do.	163,346	38,000	201,346	2,485 16
Howard do.	175,413	60,000	235,413	2,905 62
Knickerbocker do.	229,211	48,000	277,211	3,421 51
New York Life and Trust Co.	917,582	96,000	1,013,582	12,510 33
City Bank	720,000	80,000	800,000	9,874 26
Bank of New York	1,229,200	240,000	1,469,200	18,133 87
Bank of America	1,777,000	130,000	1,907,000	23,537 52
Continental Bank	643,980	.....	643,980	7,948 44
Suffolk Bank	100,000	.....	100,000	1,234 27
American Exchange Bank	1,499,500	.....	1,499,500	18,507 87
Leather Manufacturers' Bank	596,935	.....	596,935	7,367 78
Marine Bank	430,000	.....	430,000	5,307 36
East River Bank	336,050	.....	336,050	4,147 75
Peter Cooper Insurance Co.	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Howard Life Insurance Co.	110,000	.....	110,000	1,357 69
N. Y. Printing & Dyeing Establish.	33,663	.....	33,663	415 48
Spring Valley Shot and Lead Co.	20,000	23,000	43,000	490 65
Broadway Bank	451,675	140,000	591,675	7,302 84
Chemical "	248,000	55,000	303,000	3,739 82
Ocean "	925,798	70,000	995,798	12,290 81
North River Bank	570,502	80,000	650,502	8,028 94
Merchants' Exchange Bank	1,165,952	60,000	1,225,952	15,231 55
Grocers' Bank	275,642	16,500	292,142	3,605 80
Irving Bank	258,808	41,000	299,808	3,700 42
Central Bank	270,000	.....	270,000	3,332 52
New York Exchange Co.	130,000	.....	130,000	1,604 55

	Personal estate.	Real estate.	Tot'l valuat'n.	Am't tax.
North River Ins. Co	335,200	14,000	349,200	4,310 06
Merchants' "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Irving "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Columbia "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Park Fire "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
New Amsterdam Insurance Co	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
U. S. Mail Steamship Co	1,000,000	.....	1,000,000	12,342 70
Hudson River Railroad Co	135,000	500,000	635,000	7,316 24
Harlem Railroad	55,000	275,000	330,000	4,073 04
Sixth Avenue Railroad	613,086	.....	613,086	7,567 14
Croton Manufacturing Co	5,050	.....	5,050	62 33
Hoboken Ferry Co	20,000	.....	20,000	246 55
Newark Ferry Co	7,500	.....	7,500	92 57
Chatham Bank	336,945	60,000	396,945	4,899 36
Tradesmen's Bank	375,600	24,000	399,600	4,932 13
Roosevelt and Bridge St. Ferry Co.	120,000	.....	120,000	1,481 12
Astor Fire Insurance Co	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
American Institute	50,000	.....	50,000	617 13
Bank of the Commonwealth	750,000	.....	750,000	9,257 02
Delaware and Hudson Canal Co	212,715	.....	212,715	2,625 47
Ocean Steam Navigation Co	601,360	.....	601,360	7,422 40
Pacific Mail Steamship Co	500,000	.....	500,000	6,171 35
N. Y. and Liverpool Steamship Co.	2,500,000	.....	2,500,000	30,856 75
N. Y. and Virginia "	205,850	.....	205,850	2,540 74
N. Y. and California "	258,000	.....	258,000	3,184 41
Empire Stone Dressing Co	270,000	.....	270,000	3,332 52
N. Y. and Havre Steam Nav. Co	681,000	.....	681,000	8,405 37
Thompson & Livingston's Express.	2,500	.....	2,500	30 85
American Express Co.	3,000	.....	3,000	37 02
Adams' Express Co	4,000	.....	4,000	49 37
Union India Rubber Co	250,000	.....	250,000	3,085 67
N. Y. Floating Derrick Co	60,000	.....	60,000	740 56
Ætna Fire Ins. Co	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
City "	210,000	.....	210,000	2,591 96
East River "	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Farmers' Loan and Trust Co	932,578	410,000	1,342,578	16,544 87
Firemen's Insurance Co	204,000	.....	204,000	2,517 91
Jefferson "	188,010	.....	188,010	2,320 54
Manhattan "	250,000	.....	250,000	3,085 67
National "	106,279	.....	106,279	1,311 77
N. Y. Equitable "	210,000	.....	210,000	2,591 96
N. Y. Mutual "	350,000	.....	350,000	4,319 94
North American "	247,694	.....	247,694	3,057 21
United States "	250,000	.....	250,000	3,085 67
Union Mutual "	221,540	.....	221,540	2,734 39
Commercial "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Grocers' "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Empire City "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Washington "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Niagara "	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Clinton "	250,000	.....	250,000	3,085 67
New York Life "	250,000	.....	250,000	3,085 67
Manhattan "	100,000	.....	100,000	1,234 27
Hanover "	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Republic "	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Lafarge "	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Fire & Inl'd Mar. "	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Continental "	500,000	.....	500,000	6,171 35
Home "	500,000	.....	500,000	6,171 35
New York City "	500,000	.....	500,000	6,171 35
New England Fire and Inland Navigation Insurance Co	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
American Oil Company	45,000	.....	45,000	555 42

	Personal estate.	Real estate.	Tot'l valuat'n.	Am't tax.
N. Y. Oil Lubricating Man. Co....	5,000	.....	5,000	61 71
United States Life Ins. Co.....	100,000	.....	100,000	1,234 27
Mercantile Mutual Insurance Co..	688,640	.....	688,640	8,499 68
General " " "	250 000	.....	250,000	3,085 67
Astor " " "	350,000	.....	350,000	4,319 94
Commercial " " "	30,000	.....	30,000	370 28
Atlas Mut. and Marine Ins. Co....	30,000	.....	30,000	370 28
Mutual Life Insurance Co.....	800,000	.....	800,000	9,874 16
The Association for the Exhibition of Industry of all Nations.....	400,000	.....	400,000	4,937 08
Seventh Ward Bank.....	462,087	33,250	495,337	6,113 77
Mercantile "	600.000	.....	600,000	7,405 62
Fulton "	588,000	18,000	606,000	7,479 66
Market "	622,500	.....	622,500	7,683 32
Shoe & Leather "	548,779	.....	548,779	6,773 40
Market Insurance Co.....	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Union Whitelead Co.....	20,000	.....	20,000	246 85
Saugerties Whitelead Co.....	25,000	.....	25,000	308 56
Nassau Bank	393,321	.....	393,321	4,854 64
Mercantile Insurance Co.....	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
New York Oil Manufacturing Co..	272,500	.....	272,500	3,363 38
New York India rubber Co.....	50,000	.....	50,000	617 13
Brooklyn Whitelead Co.....	75,000	.....	75,000	925 70
People's Bank	412,000	.....	412,000	5,085 19
People's Ins. Co.....	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Empire City Bank	223,531	.....	223,531	2,758 97
Lorillard Fire Ins. Co.....	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Hamilton "	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Lennox "	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
Citizens' Bank	298,657	45,000	343,657	4,241 64
N. Y. Steam Sugar Refining Co....	230,000	179,074	409,074	5,049 07
N. Y. Floating Dry Dock Co... .	200,000	32,000	232,000	2,863 44
Screw Dock Co.....	59,000	35,000	94,000	1,160 19
Balance Dry Dock Co.....	75,000	.....	75,000	925 70
American Cordage Co.....	81,700	.....	81,700	1,008 38
Broadway Ins. Co.....	160,500	47,000	207,500	2,561 13
Pacific Bank.....	422,700	.....	422,700	5,217 24
Pacific Ins. Co.....	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Greenwich Bank	166,223	12,000	178,223	2,199 74
Greenwich Ins. Co.....	186,400	7,500	193,900	2,393 24
Dry Dock Co.....	172,414	143,700	316,114	3,903 41
Mechanics' and Tradesmen's Bank.	186,458	10,000	196,458	2,424 81
Mech. and Tradesmen's Ins. Co....	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 52
Butchers' and Drovers' Bank	540,000	70,000	610,000	7,529 03
Bowery Fire Ins. Co.....	300,000	.....	300,000	3,702 81
Bowery Bank.....	310,150	35,000	345,150	4,260 07
Stuyvesant Ins. Co.....	200,000	.....	200,000	2,468 54
Manhattan Gas Co.....	775,624	20,000	795,624	9,820 14
North American Gutta-percha Co.	43,500	.....	43,500	536 90
Knickerbocker Bank.....	255,818	38,000	293,818	3,626 51
St. Nicholas Ins. Co.....	150,000	.....	150,000	1,851 40
New Haven Railroad Co.....	.....	138,000	138,000	1,703 29

RECAPITUATION OR SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE ABOVE.

The total of personal estate is.....	$66,928,417 63
The total of real estate.....	6,665,407 00
Total valuation	$73,583,824 63
Total amount of tax.....	897,735 46

These amounts are all embraced in the table published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for May, 1854, vol. xxx., No. 5, p. 608.

DEBT AND FINANCES OF NEW YORK CITY.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for March, 1854, we published a tabular statement of the relative value of the real and personal estate in the city and county of New York, as assessed in 1852 and 1853, derived from the annual report of the Controller, (Hon. A. C. Flagg,) of the receipts and expenditures of the corporation of the city of New York for the year 1853. The report of Mr. Flagg was presented in the Board of Councilmen, February 6th, 1854. This is an ably and faithfully prepared document. We condense from the report the subjoined statement of the debts and finances of the city:—

The receipts and expenditures of the corporation, during the year ending on the 31st December, 1853, exclusive of the sinking fund set apart for the payment of the debt, have been as follows:—

Expenditures from January 1, 1853, to December 31, 1853.....	$7,927,740 00
Received from all sources, except the sinking fund, during same year	8,823,851 17
Expenditures less than receipts	896,110 29

The expenditures and receipts on account of the city government, not including trust funds or the sinking fund, for the year ending December 31, 1853, have been as follows:—

Expenditures for the support of the city government.....	$3,311,741 04
Receipts from all sources except taxation.....	150,694 98
Balance payable from taxation.....	3,161,046 06

The Sinking Fund. The ordinances of the common council of New York city have established separate sinking funds; one for the payment of interest, and another for the reimbursement of the principal of the city debt. All the real estate belonging to the city, and the revenue derived from nearly all sources, are pledged to one or the other of these funds. This leaves the current annual expenses of the city government to be supplied mainly by direct taxation.

The sums received and expended on account of the sinking funds, for the year ending on the 31st December, 1853, have been as follows:—

Received on account of the fund for the redemption of the city debt	$929,988 12
Balance in bank, January 1, 1853	91,415 60
	1,021,403 72
Paid from same fund.....	601,827 72
	$419,576 00
Received on account of the fund for the payment of interest on debt.	$1,095,320 75
Balance in treasury, January 1, 1853.....	385,812 76
	1,481,141 51
Paid for interest on the city debt, invested, &c.....	996,182 18
Balance in treasury January 2, 1854.....	484,959 33

City Debt. The total amount of the city debt and means on hand for its payment is as follows:—

The debt on the 1st January, 1854.....	$13,960,856 00
Stocks, bonds, mortgages, and cash in the hands of commissioners..	4,631,167 18
Balance unprovided for.....	9,329,688 82

In addition to the above amount of debt, money has been borrowed to pay off an accumulation of liabilities, commonly called a "Floating Debt," and to construct public buildings, and piers and docks. This debt is to be paid by taxation, at the rate of fifty thousand dollars each year from 1854 to 1876, both inclusive. The total amount is $950,000.

TOTAL OPERATIONS OF THE TREASURY IN 1853. Including the receipts and payments on account of the sinking fund, the entire operations of the treasury for the year are as follows:—

Received into the treasury	$8,823,851 17
Received on account of sinking fund for payment of principal	929,988 12
" " " " interest	1,095,328 75
Total	10,849,168 04
Expenditures	$7,927,740 00
" on account of sinking fund for payment of debt	601,827 72
" " " " interest	996,182 18
Total	9,525,749 90

DEBT OF CINCINNATI, OHIO.

The total expenditures of the city of Cincinnati for the fiscal year ending March 1, 1854, were $475,000. The public debt amounts to $2,929,000, of which $1,960,000 consists of bonds loaned to various companies, principal and interest guarantied to be repaid by them. The debts due the city amount to $1,167,978.

DEBT OF CINCINNATI.

	Interest. per cent.	Redeemable.	Amount.
Loan	5	1885	$40,000
Loan	5	1871	100,000
Loan	5	1885	80,000
Little Miami Railroad Company	6	1860–1865	80,000
" " " "	6	1880	100,000
Cincinnati, and W. W. Canal	6	1865	400,000
Cincinnati Water Works	6	1865	300,000
" " "	6	1895	500,000
Floating Debt	6	1897	150,000
Cincinnati and W. W. Canal	6	1897	30,000
Lafayette Bank	6	1865	5,000
School purposes	6	1885	25,000
Purchase of lot	6	1870	60,000
Hillsborough Railroad Company	6	1880	100,000
Hamilton & Eaton Railroad Company	6	1881	150,000
Covington & Lexington Railroad Co	6	1881	100,000
Ohio & Mississippi Railroad Co	6	1882	600,000
Cincinnati Water Works	6	1900	75,000
Floating debt, (consolidated)	6	1900	38,000
			$2,929,000
At five per cent			$220,000
At six per cent			2,709,000

DOMESTIC EXCHANGES IN THE UNITED STATES.

The Secretary of the Treasury, Hon. JAMES GUTHRIE, has made an arrangement by which the several assistant treasurers and depositaries are required to make monthly reports to the Treasury Department, as to the finances and exchanges at their respective localities. From the first of these reports the following table has been compiled, showing the quotation of exchanges on the 1st of April, 1854. We hope to be able to continue to give from these reports monthly statements of the same kind. From Baltimore, Mobile, and Nashville, the reports down to the 1st of April were not complete, and have, therefore, been omitted. We are indebted to the *Union* for the present statement.

QUOTATIONS OF DOMESTIC EXCHANGES ON THE 1ST OF APRIL, 1854, RECEIVED AT THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT FROM THE ASSISTANT TREASURERS AND DEPOSITARIES.

	Upon Boston.	New York.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.	Washington.	Richmond.	Charleston.
At Boston	.....	1-10 discount...	⅛ discount.....	⅛ discount....	⅛ to ¼ discount.	⅜ discount	¼ to ½ dis ...
New York	⅛ discount	.....	⅛ discount.....	¼ discount....	⅜ dis.....	1 per cent dis...	1 per cent dis.
Philadelphia	⅛ dis. to par....	⅛ dis. to 1-10 pr.	.....	⅛ dis. to par...	¼ dis. to par....	.....	1 to ¼ dis....
Charleston	Par to ½ prem..	Par to ½ prem..	Par to ½ prem..	Par to ½ prem.	Par to ¼ prem..	No demand	.....
St. Louis	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	¼ dis.....	1 to ½ dis.....	2 to ½ dis ....
New Orleans	½ to ¾ prem....	½ to ¾ prem....	½ to ¾ prem ...	½ to ¾ prem..	½ to ¾ prem....	Par to 1 p. c. dis.	½ to 1 p. c. dis
Richmond	⅜ per cent prem.	⅜ per cent prem.	⅜ per cent prem.	.....	½ per cent prem.	.....	½ per cent dis.
Cincinnati	¼ prem.....	¼ prem.....	¼ prem.....	.....	¼ prem.....	.....	No report ...
Pittsburgh	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	.....	Par.....	.....	1 per cent dis.
Buffalo	½ to ¾ prem....	½ to ¾ prem....	Par.....	.....	1 per cent dis...	.....	No sale .....
Norfolk	Par to ¼ dis....	Par to ¼ dis....	Par to ¼ dis....	Par to ¼ dis...	No sale.....	.....	No sale .....
Wilmington	1 per cent prem.	1 per cent prem	1 per cent prem.	.....	.....	.....	⅜ prem.....
Savannah	½ per cent prem.	½ per cent prem	½ per cent prem.	.....	¼ to ⅞ prem....	.....	Par.....
Chicago	Par.....	Par.....	Par.....	.....	Par.....	.....	¼ dis.....

	St. Louis.	Mobile.	New Orleans.	Cincinnati.	Pittsburgh.	Buffalo.	San Francisco.
At Boston	½ discount.....	¼ discount...	¼ discount....	⅜ to 1 per cent dis.	½ discount..	½ discount .	4 to 8 per cent dis..
New York	1 per cent dis.....	Par	Par	½ per cent dis....	⅜ dis.....	⅜ dis.....	6 to 8 per cent dis.*
Philadelphia	1½ dis. to par	.....	1½ dis. to par..	1⅝ to ½ dis.....	⅜ dis to par	⅜ dis. to par	7 to 1 per cent dis..
Charleston	No demand on any other places.						
St. Louis	.....	1 to ⅜ dis ...	½ discount	.....	½ to ¼ dis..	.....	5 per cent dis.....
New Orleans	Par to per cent dis.	Par to ¼ dis..	.....	½ to 1 per cent dis.	.....	Par.....	Par to 5 p. c. dis ..
Richmond	1 per cent dis.....	.....	1½ discount...	.....	.....	.....	2 per cent dis.....
Cincinnati	Par	.....	Par	.....	.....	.....	Par .....
Pittsburgh	1 per cent dis.....	.....	1 per cent dis.	.....	.....	.....	No sale.....
Buffalo	No sale	.....	No sale.....	.....	.....	.....	No sale.....
Norfolk	No sale	.....	No sale.....	.....	.....	.....	No sale.....
Wilmington	None	.....	None.....	.....	.....	.....	None .....
Savannah	None	.....	None.....	.....	.....	.....	None.....
Chicago	½ discount.....	.....	1 per cent dis.	.....	.....	.....	No sale.....

Sixty days' sight drafts on London, 108½; ditto on Paris, 5.08¾

CONDITION OF THE BANK OF MONTREAL.

RETURN OF THE AVERAGE AMOUNT OF LIABILITIES AND ASSETS OF THE BANK OF MONTREAL, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER, 1853, TO 28TH FEBRUARY, 1854.

	September 30, 1853.	Feb. 28th, 1854.
LIABILITIES.		
Promissory notes in circulation, not bearing interest.	£1,062,372 17	£1,199,952 17
Bills of Exchange " " " .	.....	.....
Bills and notes in circulation, bearing interest....	.....	.....
Balances due to other banks	21,251 0	28,938 19
Cash deposits not bearing interest.....	407,682 15	429,782 5
Cash deposits bearing interest.....	106,330 13	159,840 11
Total average liabilities	1,651,637 7	1,818,614 14
ASSETS.		
Coin and bullion.....	£198,098 13	£276,726 8
Landed or other property of the bank	38,421 18	38,421 18
Government securities	.....	3,000 0
Promissory notes or bills of other banks	35,315 1	55,255 1
Balances due from other banks	476,885 2	270,880 19
Notes and bills discounted, or other debts due to the bank, not included above.....	2,042,714 12	2,366,607 14
Total average of assets.....	2,719,435 8	3,010,892 1

The pence are omitted in the above table, for convenience, which will make a slight variation in the summing up.

LIABILITY AND RESOURCES OF BANKS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

A TABLE SHOWING THE PROPORTION OF THE LIABILITY AND RESOURCES OF THE SEVERAL BANKS IN THE STATE OF SOUTH CAROLINA TO THEIR RESPECTIVE CAPITALS, AS PER STATEMENT OF FEBRUARY 1ST, 1854:—

	Bank of the State.....	S. W. R. R. Bank.....	Planters' and Mech'nics' B.	Union Bank..	State Bank...	Bank of S. C.	Bank of Charleston.	Farmers' and Exchange B.
Circulation	48	60	44	43	60	37	68	93
Net profits.....	2	8	11	5	11	6	10	4
Balances due banks this State..	7	19	3	3	..	6	9	2
Balances due banks other States	4	3	29	3	..	3	25	6
Deposits, &c.....	14	27	30	31	45	25	18	18
Specie....	3	9	12	12	17	2	10	22
Real estate.....	3	3	2	4	7	4	1	2
Bills of banks of this State	3	4	5	4	39	7	2	5
Bills of banks of other States...	.	.	.	.	.	.	4	1
Balances due from banks of this State.....	1	.	1	2	.	2	8	4
Balances due from banks of other States.....	1	4	1	3	.	3	9	3
Discounts, personal security....	74	28	115	84	62	72	71	43
Discounts on pledges of its own stock	.	28	1	4	1	4	1	..
Discounts on pledges of other stocks	9	17	4	13	3	6	1	..
Domestic exchange.....	15	58	44	54	93	61	83	139
Foreign exchange	4	5	2	..	5	..	16	2
Bonds	13	12	8	..	23	7	6	..
Invested in stocks.....	13	18	17	1	1	3	21	..
Suspended debt and in suit.....	8	10	3	4	1	1	2	..
Invested in every other way ...	5	21	1	..	..	6	..	..

	Merchants' Bnk. of Cheraw....	Commercial Bk. Columbia	Planters' B'nk of Fairfield.....	Bank of Chester.	Bank of Hamburg	Bank of Newberry.....	Exchange Bank of Columbia..	Bank of Camden .....
Circulation	132	66	139	99	200	170	103	113
Net profits.....	15	3	5	3	27	4	1	10
Balances due banks this State.	1	1	..	..	..	2	..	..
Balances due b'nks other States	..	3	4	3	4	..	..	..
Deposits, &c.....	4	19	24	15	12	7	7	7
Specie.....	13	12	16	32	28	8	14	11
Real estate.....	6	2	..	..	5	1	..	1
Bills of banks of this State....	3	1	..	5	1	1	2	..
Bills of banks of other States..	2	..	..	3	6	..	..	.
Balances due from banks of this State	..	..	12	16	9	111	18	1
Balances due from banks of other States.....	5	1	3	..	4	2	1	13
Discounts, personal security...	80	103	58	134	46	44	22	38
Discounts on pledges of its own stock.....	16	9	..	..	6	..	..	..
Discounts on pledges of other stocks	..	2	..	..	80	1	1	2
Domestic exchange.....	107	57	180	29	100	143	176	133
Foreign exchange.....	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bonds	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..
Invested in stock.....	..	..	..	..	20	..	..	..
Suspended debt and in suit ...	2	3	3	..	2	5	..	5
Invested in every other way ..	19	..	1	..	33	67	..	25

FOREIGN EXCHANGES.

The following communication on the par of exchange between the United States and England, is taken from the London *Economist.*

The present method of calculating the exchange upon London, in the United States, seems to me to be a very roundabout process, when a very simple one would suffice. So long as the country was a dependency of Great Britain, or conducted its transactions in sterling money, the mode of reckoning the exchange by a fluctuating premium was right enough; but when the country adopted a currency of dollars, and made the dollar the integer of account, the exchange ought surely to have been reckoned from that date at so many pence to the dollar, the same as in all other countries that have a dollar currency.

What does the quotation at New York of "exchange on London 8 premium" mean? It means 4s. 2d. sterling per dollar; but to obtain the result you have to start from the nominal par of exchange of $4 44 per pound, then add 8 per cent, which gives a net exchange of $4 80 per pound, which is equivalent to 4s. 2d. per dollar. How much easier it would be to call it 4s. 2d. at once? Have the Americans any substantial reason for retaining the present method? If they have a particular penchant for the "premium," then they should make the par 4s. 2d., which is tolerably near the intrinsic par, and upon which a half-penny per dollar, upwards or downwards, is exactly one per cent; or they should make it $5 per pound, which is nearer the intrinsic par, and upon which 5 cents, upwards or downwards, are exactly one per cent—a vast improvement upon the running decimal .044!

The most simple process in the calculation of the value of sterling bills would be to quote a certain number of cents per pound sterling, viz:—

Instead of	8	per cent	premium.....	quote	4.80	per pound.
"	8¼	"	"	"	4.81	"
"	8½	"	"	"	4.82	"
"	8¾	"	"	"	4.83	"
"	9	"	"	"	4.84	"

This latter is about the value of the pound sterling or English gold sovereign.

This mode, or something near it, is adopted with other European bills. For instance, we quote 5.20 on Paris; which is five francs twenty centimes in Paris, per dollar paid in New York.

On Hamburgh the quotation is 36⅜ to 36⅞, which is so many cents (U. S,) *per marc banco.* The latter is money of account, valued at 17½d. sterling, or a fraction over 36 cents.

The same rule applied to quotations and calculations of sterling bills would simplify the matter greatly.

ISSUE OF AN INCONVERTIBLE CURRENCY IN RUSSIA.

It is said that the Russian government have determined upon an issue of 60,000,000 of paper rouble notes, for the payment of the war expenses; and we have reason to believe that the report is substantially true. It is, morover, in accordance with the traditional policy of Russia. The heavy expenditure which was incurred in the wars in which she was engaged during the latter part of the last and the commencement of the present century, was, in great part, met in the same way. But now let us see what formerly happened from this course! The value of the rouble, which represents a silver coin, varies from 38d to 40d British money, according to the exchanges. In order to meet the exigencies of the state expenditure, so excessive was the issue of these notes in former times, that their value in exchange with England represented, not 38d, but sank by steady, regular gradation, as one fresh issue succeeded another, to 30d, to 24d, to 18d, and finally to 10½d, and for many years the rouble, instead of representing an intrinsic value of 38d to 40d, circulated for 10½d to 11½d. But the scheme is that they shall be inconvertible as formerly; and 60,000,000 rouble notes, about £10,000,000, are to be added to the present circulation. Of course, depreciation will rapidly take place; the rouble will again soon come to represent, in the place of 38d or 40d, only 30d, or less, just as these issues may be made in excess.

The people of Russia, of course, cannot help themselves. From the moment that Russia adopts this step, foreign merchants having transactions with Russian subjects, should invariably conduct their business in the denomination of the currency of their own country, in place of that of Russia, and stipulate to be paid in bills upon London, Paris, or Hamburg, computed accordingly. No matter then how low the exchange may fall in Russia, the debtor must provide whatever number of roubles is required to purchase a bill for the necessary amount expressed in the stipulated currency. If, under such circumstances, foreigners trade with Russia on any other terms, they will be subject to any depreciation which may happen during the time the transaction is in progress, or before they obtain payment for goods consigned to that country.—*London Economist.*

INCREASE OF TAXABLE PRORERTY IN PENNSYLVANIA.

The following statement which we extract from the final report of the Board of Revenue Commissioners for Pennsylvania, will show the aggregate increase of taxable property returned by the county commissioners, in each period of three years since 1845, and the amounts added to such property by the successive boards, in the process of equalization:—

Increase of returns from	1845 to 1848	$42,375,328
" "	1848 to 1851	29,858,371
" "	1851 to 1854	36,827,892
Amount added by the Board of	1845	8,759,625
" " " "	1848	7,114,274
" " " "	1851	6,883,153
" " " "	1854	5,307,533

It will be seen that the additions made by each Board are less than those made by the preceding one. This is a natural result, supposing the adjustments to be by the operations of the system approaching equality.

The whole amount of taxable property is now 531,370,454, making an increase in three years of $40,371,625.

CALCULATIONS IN REGARD TO COUNTING GOLD COIN.

A writer in the *Boston Journal* makes the following curious calculations:—

The enormous sum of $204,000,000 in gold has been received at the mint in Philadelphia from California, from the first discovery of the precious metal to December 1, 1853. Now in order to give some idea to the general reader of the immense amount of $204,000,000, I will merely state that allowing each silver dollar to weigh one ounce avoirdupois, sixteen to the pound, the weight would be 12,750,000 lbs., or 6,375 tons, allowing 2,000 lbs. to the ton. To carry this weight it would require 6,375 wagons, containing a ton each, or $32,000. Now suppose each vehicle, drawn by one horse, to occupy a space of 25 feet, they would extend in a continuous line a fraction short of 30 miles. In order to count such a vast sum of money as this, very few persons have any idea of the time it would require, without making calculations to that effect. Having myself asked several individuals familiar with figures how long it would take to count the sum above mentioned, they have so widely differed in time that one could scarcely repress a smile at the result. Now to ascertain the fact which may be made as plain as A B C, we will suppose a person to count 60 of these silver dollars a minute, 3,600 an hour, 43,200 a day of 12 hours each, or (Sundays included) 15,768,000 a year. I say, to count this stupendous amount of money in silver dollars, it would require a fraction short of 13 years.

THE MONEY OF CALCULATION AND OF CONSUMPTION.

The currency of a country, (says our cotemporary of the *Wall Street Journal,*) and its subdivisions, ought conveniently to subserve two ends—there should be the money of calculation and the money of consumption. The accountant and the large dealer wants the power to range his amounts and see their value at a glance, and the decimal system is the only one which will conveniently answer his purposes. The people of England have toiled long enough over the multiplication-table and Cocker, turning pounds into shillings and pence, and now they condescend to take the decimal monetary notation from America. Something more is wanted, however, than mere facility of calculation. The consumer naturally in his transactions subdivides by indefinite halving. The necessity for the half and quarter eagle, and the half-quarter and eighth of a dollar, is more apparent to the buyer than the tenth or hundredth fraction of the gold or silver unit; it attends him with every pound and half-pound, bushel and half-bushel he purchases; it is the expression of a natural want.

WHAT ARE CONSOLS?

This question, which it is barely possible every young man who reads the *Merchants' Magazine* may not understand, is thus briefly and correctly answered by our cotemporary of the *Wall Street Journal*:—

The term is an abbreviation of the word "consolidated," and to explain what they are it is only necessary to state, that at various times the British government has borrowed divers sums of money, paying different rates of interest; that occasionally the stocks issued as evidences of these various debts have been taken up or called in, and a new stock issued in their stead, payable at one fixed time, and bearing one fixed rate of interest: that such a stock is called a consolidated stock, or consol, and to distinguish it from others the rate of interest it bears is generally mentioned—as three per cent consols, four per cent consols, &c.

SUPPRESSION OF SMALL NOTES IN VIRGINIA.

The Legislature of Virgina has passed a law prohibiting the circulation of small notes in that State. One of its provisions subjects any person whose name appears on the face of any note of less denomination than five dollars, to a penalty five times the amount of the note, which may be recovered by any one who may proceed against the person appearing to be the issuer of the note. The act goes into operation on the first of June, thus giving three months for those who have small notes in circulation to withdraw them.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

THE NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

The tenth annual report of the Directors of the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company, which we give below, will be read with interest by all who are interested in the economy of life insurance. This report was prepared by the President, the Hon. JUDGE PHILLIPS, whose investigations of the principles, and experience in the practical workings of life insurance, are doubtless unsurpassed by any individual in this country. He has thoroughly studied the subject in all its bearings, and has connected with him in the direction a body of men whose reputation for intelligence and integrity stands deservedly high in the community in which they reside. The report is a model of its kind, and exhibits the affairs of the institution in a most satisfactory light.

We have no hesitation in saying that we regard the New England Mutual Life Insurance Company as one of the few which are entitled to the confidence of the public; and if circumstances rendered it necessary to take out a policy on our own life, for the benefit of a family or to secure a creditor, we know of no company to which we should apply with so much certainty and confidence that our intentions would in the end be realized. This report exhibits the operations of the company for the ten years it has been in existence, and furnishes data that will be of great use in the organization of similar corporations.

ABSTRACT OF THE BUSINESS OF THE NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, DURING THE TEN YEARS ENDING NOV. 30, 1853.

	*Policies issued.	Policies terminated.	†Amount insured.	Amount terminated.	Amount at risk at the end of the year.	Premium received.	Premium returned.
1844.....	343	3	$948,110	$2,000	$946,110	$23,499	....
1845.....	459	46	1,110,274	123,640	1,932,744	44,943	....
1846.....	435	92	985,225	182,740	2,735,229	63,400	$915
1847.....	461	180	897,840	398,975	3,234,094	80,069	2,702
1848.....	413	178	1,006,990	331,100	3,791,344	90,544	3,009
1849.....	557	251	1,125,332	577,780	4,338,896	108,479	4,288
1850.....	335	192	733,380	361,780	4,710,496	119,144	4,271
1851.....	343	242	806,725	512,030	5,005,191	119,674	3,806
1852.....	488	323	1,041,100	661,712	5,384,578	134,563	5,403
1853.....	502	385	1,116,150	714,350	5,786,379	149,657	4,827

	Interest received.	Losses.	Expenses.	Interest paid on guaranty fund.	Accumulated fund at end of each year.	Per centage of distribution returned on pr'um.	Amount of distribution.
1844.....	$2,198	.....	$3,535	....	$18,626	..	.....
1845.....	4,159	$1,000	4,405	$2,500	63,369	..	.....
1846.....	7,894	17,900	8,031	3,500	104,313	..	.....
1847.....	11,376	11,000	7,120	‡4,500	170,339	..	.....
1848.....	13,383	32,100	7,138	3,500	223,995	20	$45,890
1849.....	17,453	32,880	8,196	3,500	258,673	..	.....
1850.....	22,253	39,417	8,271	3,500	344,611	..	.....
1851.....	23,217	38,050	9,229	3,500	433,416	..	.....
1852.....	28,026	37,525	10,276	3,500	539,301	..	.....
1853.....	36,328	55,355	12,225	3,500	649,380	30	141,146

* This column includes only those policies on which the premium has been paid; others made out but not taken, are not included.

† Fractions of a dollar in the above aggregates omitted.

‡ Extra amount paid in 1849, to make up $1,000 deficiency of payment of interest in 1847.

REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS OF THE NEW ENGLAND MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY TO THE MEMBERS, AT THE ANNUAL MEETING, DEC. 12, 1853.

This company having now been in operation during ten years, the time arrives for the second distribution of its surplus funds; and members will naturally desire to be informed specifically of the method adopted in making it. By the charter, and according to the fundamental principle of such a company, the distribution is limited to the *surplus* remaining after reserving a fund, which, all necessary expenses being deducted, will be sufficient, with the net future premiums on the existing policies, to pay all the losses that will accrue on these policies. Whenever a company makes an excessive distribution, it thereby not merely takes a step towards insolvency, but in fact at the time actually becomes insolvent; for it has not funds sufficient to meet its liabilities. It does not follow that it may not continue for a longer or shorter period to pay its losses and discharge its other liabilities; for a corporation or partnership, no less than an individual, may continue to meet its engagements a longer or shorter time after becoming actually insolvent, according to the degree to which its managers may deceive themselves or others.

The first and great question which every member will ask in this case is, "What amount of funds must be reserved to enable the company to meet the losses and future incidental liabilities on its existing policies?" In other words, "What fund is it necessary to reserve in order that the company shall not be rendered actually insolvent by making a distribution—or in making what is sometimes deceptively called 'a dividend of profits?'" This question is answered by ascertaining whether another company, or an individual of adequate responsibility, could afford to take its effects and assume its liabilities.

It is evident that the future premiums to which it is entitled by its policies will not be sufficient to meet its liabilities, if it has been in operation for any considerable time. Suppose, for example, a company to have been in operation for twenty years. Take the case of an assured who was insured for his whole life, at the commencement, at the age of twenty-six, for the usual annual premium of about two dollars for one hundred, and accordingly is now forty-six, when the usual annual premium for a like policy is about four dollars. The company is entitled to demand of him only two dollars per annum. But, admitting him still to be a good life, they could not get another company to take him off their hands for a less premium than four dollars per annum. The question then is, what is the present value of a contract of a person forty-six years of age, to pay two dollars per annum during his life, and what is the value of a contract of the same person to pay twice that sum per annum during his life, and it is evident that another company will not assume his policy and agree to pay his representatives one hundred dollars at his decease, unless the first underwriters will pay them the difference between the present values of those two annual premiums. This sum is, therefore, to be reserved for this policy by the company which is making a distribution. Accordingly, in estimating the amount of a distribution of surplus, the same computation is to be made upon every subsisting policy, to ascertain the resulting amount to be reserved on each; and if this is not done, and that amount is not reserved, the company thereby directly renders itself insolvent.

It is to be kept in mind, that this computation should be made upon the actual rate of premiums for insurance. If you take a table of mortality and compute what present sum put at interest at three, four, or any other rate per cent, will amount to one hundred dollars at the probable decease of a person of forty-six years of age, it will be less than that which is necessary, to provide for the payment of a policy upon his life for the same amount, since in computing premiums of insurance a margin must be added of some sixteen to twenty per cent for incidental expenses and contingencies. Distributions are understood to have been made, in some instances, without any such margin, which is, in fact, proposing to assess future members of a company for the benefit of the present ones, to whom the distribution is made. The computation ought evidently to be made upon premiums that it would be necessary actually to pay for re-insurance; and our present distribution is so computed, as was also the former one.

We have supposed the policy on which the computation is made to be on a good insurable life, for one of the same age. But more or less of the lives in a company have deteriorated by disease and infirmity as well as by age. No insurance company conducted with skill and prudence would take all the risks off the hands of another company at the tabular rates for good lives. It will be seen, accordingly, that we have made an additional reservation on this account.

Among twenty-four hundred lives dispersed about the world by sea and land, in all climates, it is probable that some have dropped, of whose death notice has not been received at the date of the distribution, and this probability is the subject of an estimated additional reservation.

Again, though the net funds of the company, represented by the balance-sheet to be about $650,000, are supposed to be fully equal to that amount at their present marketable and available value, yet a future depreciation of some of the investments is possible, for which an allowance is made in the present distribution, as was done in the former.

Our charter provides for a reserved guaranty fund to replace the present one when paid off. Reservations were made in 1848 which proved to be equal to one-half of this fund, and the additional reservation is now made out of the receipts of the last five years, for the remaining half of the $50,000 constituting that fund.

Those members who, having been in the company at the former distribution, contributed to the reservations then made for this fund, are, by the charter of the company, entitled to a preference on the income of that reservation, in making the present distribution, and the present members who continue to be such at the next one, will be entitled to a like preference on the income of the same fund according to the successive distributions to which they may have before directly or indirectly contributed, and so on indefinitely, which privilege will have, in some degree, an alleviating operation in favor of the better lives, which must in the event contribute to make up the deficiency of the premiums paid by the poorer lives, to meet the losses on them. This was the object of this provision of the charter.

The data of the present distribution accordingly stands thus:—

Reservation for reinsurance	$382,339 82
Estimated deterioration of lives	37,013 92
Estimate of losses not heard of, and contingencies of investments	29,611 13
Interest on Guaranty Fund, payable in January, 1854	3,500 00
Guaranty Capital	50,000 00
Preference to contributors to the Guaranty Fund at the former distribution, being 2 per cent on $288,417, the amount of their premiums.	5,768 34
Aggregate	$508,233 21

Accumulated Fund	$649,379 43	
Reserved Fund	508,233 21	
Amount of the general distribution		$141,146 22

Being 30 per cent on $470,154 07, the amount of premiums paid by the present members from December 1, 1848, to December 1, 1853.

A similar computation was adopted in making the former distribution, after due consideration, and the directors have adhered to it in the present instance, because they still think the method a proper one, and that any less reservation would not be prudent, and also because it seemed to be obligatory to make this distribution no less favorably to the stability of the company, since to do otherwise would be unfairly to sacrifice the advantage already gained; and which all who shall continue in the company or become members are interested to maintain.

The distribution is settled, first, by credit on premiums; second, by reduction of the future rate of premium on the policy; third, by adding to the amount of the policy; or, fourth, by payment in cash, as each member may prefer one or the other mode of settlement, where the distribution has not been pledged to some other specific object. The company is not in the practice of issuing scrip for dividends.

As the accounts have been examined and have been verified by vouchers, the directors can, with confidence, attest to the accuracy of the above statement of the financial condition and resources of the company. Though the distribution is larger than had been anticipated, members will plainly see that the directors do not propose to sacrifice the future to the present, and rely upon a subsequent surplus of premiums to make up for an excessive present distribution.

In order to show the adequacy of the rate of premium permanently to sustain the company, there ought to be at present a very considerable surplus for distribution arising from the circumstance that the present rate of interest on investments, in the United States, from which a part of the surplus is derived, is higher, by two or three per cent, than it probably will be during the lives of some of the present members of

the company, and it is evidently essential that the rate of premium should be established in reference to such probable reduction of the rate of interest nearly to the European rate. Estimating in reference to the medium magnitude of the concerns of the company, for the past five years, this single consideration ought, as the above data show, to give a present surplus for distribution from forty to sixty thousand dollars.

The present distribution is further augmented by reason of the rate of mortality among our members during the past five years, especially in the earlier part of the period, having been less than what is to be ordinarily expected on lives of the same age subject to similar risks, and also by reason of the investment of the funds of the company having proved to be advantageous.

So far as any economy in conducting the business of the company may have contributed towards the present surplus, the directors hope the same cause will operate hereafter.

The extinguishment of the guaranty stock of fifty thousand dollars, of which the charter now admits, will, on the other hand, operate in favor of the distribution of 1858 by about three thousand dollars, viz., the difference for five years, of the interest of seven per cent heretofore paid on that amount, and the interest which would accrue during that period on the investment of the same amount.

The attention of members of the company and applicants for insurance has heretofore been called to the different ways of settling the premium otherwise than by annual payments for the whole life, viz., by a single premium, or by annual premiums for ten years. That more members have not availed themselves of one or the other of these methods, must be owing to the practical effect not being well understood. One result of settling by a single premium is, that the member is thus exonerated from going on paying further premium after he has paid in an amount, including interest and deducting distributions, equal to that insured by his policy; the other result is, that if a note is given for the single premium on interest, at the rate of four per cent per annum, on which payments are annually made on account of interest and principal, equal, at least, to what would have been the tabular annual premium for the whole life, and the life drops before arriving at the average age, according to the general mortality, which there is precisely an equal chance that it may—that is, of ten lives five will have so dropped—then something will remain due upon the note when the life drops. The earlier it drops, the greater amount will of course remain due to be deducted in settling the loss. But the probability is very great that a proportionally small amount will remain due in that case. If the member considers himself a good average life, it seems to be the more prudent and satisfactory way to settle by a single premium, even if he has to make an auxiliary time policy to compensate for the deduction of what may remain due on the single premium note in case of his early decease. It is immaterial to the other members whether any one or any number settle by single premium, or all pay annual premiums for the whole life. In whatever way the premium is paid, the longer lives must make up the deficiency of payments by the shorter ones. The constitution of our company, our rate of premium, and mode of making distributions, are such as to lighten this extra burden, which must, by the very nature of insurance, fall with greater or less weight upon the more fortunate lives, just as in marine insurance the more fortunate risks must contribute for the losses on the less fortunate. The question is, therefore, one which concerns merely the individual member himself, without affecting the company generally.

The payment of the premium for the whole life during the first ten years has, in some degree, a similar operation to that of the settling by a single premium. In whichever way the premium is settled, the right to share in the distributions will be the same; the member will be entitled to them, after his whole premium has been paid, in the same manner as if he had paid his premium by annual payments during his whole life.

Members holding term policies may have them converted into policies for another term or for life, if the risk continues to be a good one.

The directors, chosen exclusively on the part of the stockholders who will retire from the direction if the guaranty stock shall be paid off by vote of the present meeting as proposed, take this occasion to congratulate the members of the company on the eminent success and usefulness of the institution hitherto, and the very flourishing condition in which they shall leave it.

The following is an exhibit of the business of the company during the five years ending November 30, 1853, as reported to the directors by their committee, Messrs. Perkins and Hubbard:—

1,602		Policies outstanding December 1, 1848		$3,791,344 12
	1,723	Policies issued during the four years to December 1, 1852	$3,706,537 00	
2,225	502	Policies issued the past year	1,116,150 00	4,822,687 00
3,827				$8,614,031 12
	1,008	Policies terminated during the four years to Dec. 1, 1852	$2,113,302 50	
1,393	385	Policies terminated the past year	714,350 00	2,827,652 50
2,434		Policies outstanding Dec. 1, 1853		$5,786,378 62
		Amount of policies that have terminated in loss during the four years to December 1, 1852		$147,872 00
		Amount of policies that have terminated in loss during the past year		55,355 00
		Total amount during the past five years		$203,227 00
		Received for premium during the four years to Dec. 1, 1852		$481,860 86
		Received for premium the past year		149,656 90
		Total premium during the past five years		$631,517 76
		Premium returned during the four years to December 1, 1852	$17,270 21	
		Premium returned the past year	4,826 99	22,097 20
		Net premium received during the past five years		$609,420 56
		Received for interest, (including that on guaranty fund,) dividends, and charge for policies, during the four years to December 1, 1852	$90,951 09	
		Received the past year	36,327 93	127,279 02
		Total amount received during the past five years		$736,699 58
		Amount of losses paid during the five years to Dec. 1, 1853, ($147,872 to Dec. 1, 1852, and $55,355 the past year)	$203,227 00	
		Amount of interest paid on guaranty fund, $17,500, (less reserved, Dec., 1848, $3,500)	14,000 00	
		Amount of rent and salaries to Dec. 1, 1853, ($17,850 to Dec. 1, 1852, and $5,100 the past year	22,950 00	
		Amount of compensation to agents, computation of tables, advertising, printing, stationery, doctors' fees, and all other incidental expenses to Dec. 1, 1853, ($18,123 73 to Dec. 1, 1852, and $7,124 49 the past year)	25,248 22	265,425 22
		Total		$471,274 36
		Amount of accumulated fund for the five years ending Dec. 1, 1853, exclusive of guaranty fund		$471,274 36
		Amount of reservation made December 1, 1848		178,105 07
		Aggregate		649,379 43
		Property (besides guaranty fund) Dec. 1, 1852	$539,301 08	
		Increase the past year	110,078 35	$649,379 43

The property consists of—		Real estate	$5,000 00
Loans on mortgages	$235,873 75	Premium notes	59,273 25
Bank and other stocks	165,679 10	Loans secured by collateral	154,360 96
Railroad bonds	18,950 00	Cash in Merchants' Bank	4,349 88
City securities	58,000 00		
Total			$701,486 94

The company owe as follows:—

Guaranty capital	$50,000 00	
Balance of first dividend	2,107 51	
		$52,107 51
Total		$649,379 43

The following is a list of the directors of this company: Willard Phillips, Geo. H. Kuhn, Charles Browne, Sewell Tappan, Marshall P. Wilder, Charles P. Curtis, Thomas A. Dexter, Wm. Perkins, N. F. Cunningham, Charles Hubbard, A. W. Thaxter, Jr.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

THE IRON TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We have already alluded to a series of valuable papers on the Iron Trade of the World, as in course of publication in the London *Morning Chronicle*. A number of that paper contains still further information, and particularly the following tables, which embody a highly interesting view of the iron trade of Great Britain since 1806. It will be seen that in the year named, the total number of furnaces was 216, and the production, 243,851 tons; whereas in 1852, the total number of furnaces was 655, and the production, 2,701,000 tons.

RETROSPECT SINCE 1806, AND THE INCREASED PROPORTION WHICH SCOTLAND BEARS TO THE WHOLE:—

FURNACES IN BLAST, AND PRODUCTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

	Furnaces.	Product'n. Tons.		Furnaces.	Product'n Tons.
1806	216	243,851	1848	623	1,998,558
1825	374	581,367	1852	655	2,701,000
1840	402	1,396,400			

OF WHICH THERE WERE IN SCOTLAND—

	Furnaces in blast.	Production.	Price.
1806	18	22,840 tons	£7 0 0
1813	18	23,450 "	8 0 0
1823	22	30,500 "	4 15 0
1833	31	44,000 "	2 16 0
1843	62	248,300 "	2 5 0
1853	114	740,000 "	3 1 6

DURING THE LAST TEN YEARS.

	Furnaces in blast.	Production.	Stock.
1844	73	295,000 tons	190,000 tons
1845	94	400,000 "	230,000 "
1846	97	580,000 "	145,000 "
1847	89	540,000 "	90,000 "
1848	103	600,000 "	100,000 "
1849	113	692,000 "	195,000 "
1850	105	580,000 "	230,000 "
1851	114	770,000 "	360,000 "
1852	113	775,000 "	450,000 "
1853	114	740,000 "	270,000 "

PRODUCTION OF MALLEABLE IRON IN SCOTLAND.

1845	35,000 tons	1849	80,000 tons
1846	45,000 "	1850	80,000 "
1847	60,000 "	1851	90,000 "
1848	90,000 "	1852	90,000 "

AVERAGE PRICES OF PIG AND BAR IRON FOR THE LAST TWENTY YEARS.

	Pig Iron.	Bar Iron.		Pig Iron.	Bar Iron.
1834	£4 5 0	£6 18 6	1844	£2 14 9	£6 2 6
1835	4 10 0	6 10 0	1845	3 15 0	9 4 0
1836	6 13 0	10 12 0	1846	3 11 8	9 18 0
1837	4 0 0	9 12 6	1847	3 5 0	9 13 0
1838	4 0 0	9 5 0	1848	2 4 4	6 11 6
1839	4 10 0	9 14 6	1849	2 6 0	5 17 6
1840	3 15 0	8 7 6	1850	2 4 7	5 8 0
1841	3 0 0	7 4 0	1851	2 0 0	5 7 6
1842	2 10 0	5 19 0	1852	2 5 0	9 5 0
1843	2 5 0	5 0 0	1853	3 1 6	9 0 0

SHIPMENTS FROM SCOTLAND.

	Foreign. Tons.	Coastwise. Tons.	Total. Tons.
1845	54,671	183,228	237,897
1846	119,100	257,841	376,941
1847	143,460	227,005	370,465
1848	162,151	227,833	389,984
1849	153,183	221,943	375,126
1850	134,579	190,083	324,659
1851	192,670	260,088	452,758
1852	224,097	199,971	424,068
1853	314,270	302,038	616,308

EXPORT OF TEAS TO THE UNITED STATES.

We are indebted to our attentive correspondents, Messrs. King & Co., for the subjoined statement of the export of teas to the United States.

Year.	Vessels.	Black.	Green.	Total.
1850–1	65	13,564,746	15,215,707	28,780,453
1851–2	68	13,361,513	20,965,915	34,327,428
1852–3	73	14,431,596	26,529,161	40,960,737
From 1st July to 24th December, 1853.		2,935,062	8,093,636	11,028,698
December 1, Bay State		59,400	430,900	490,300
" 11, Ala		50,477	436,864	487,341
" 28, Channing		.....	606,278	606,278
January 3, Highflyer		324,742	69,158	393,900
" 14, Gazelle		93,000	834,000	927,000
" 19, Anstiss		67,900	539,200	607,100
From 1st July 1853, to 24th Jan., 1854.		3,530,581	11,010,136	14,540,617
To same date last year		8,591,732	21,216,705	29,808,437

IMPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS INTO GREAT BRITAIN FROM IRELAND.

THE QUANTITY OF CORN, MEAL, AND FLOUR IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN FROM IRELAND IN THE FOLLOWING YEARS:—

	Wheat. Qrs.	Oats. Qrs.	Barley. Qrs.	Beans and peas. Qrs.	Oatmeal. Cwt.	Wheat flour. Cwt.
1830	337,641	1,226,486	189,745	21,573	.....	672,265
1835	340,535	1,462,581	156,242	27,682	566,006	1,124,343
1840	92,990	1,397,500	95,954	15,976	989,500	280,700
1845	371,000	1,678,000	92,000	14,300	1,058,000	1,421,000
1846	187,300	956,000	93,000	17,000	554,000	725,000
1847	125,700	493,000	47,500	27,000	330,500	241,000
1848	146,000	1,081,000	79,700	14,700	936,000	561,000
1849	94,500	652,000	43,500	24,600	672,000	393,500
1850	76,000	642,400	51,000	20,400	786,000	397,300
1851	45,867	728,656	44,085	28,774	649,502	172,372
1852	20,700	1,047,800	108,900	30,100	971,000	118,900
1853	19,600	1,000,000	124,100	24,100	843,000	192,400

COMMERCIAL IMPORTANCE OF WILMINGTON, N. C.

A correspondent of the *Journal of Commerce*, writing from Wilmington, communicates a statement of the exports from that port for the year 1853, for the purpose of calling attention to the place of persons of capital who would like to engage in mercantile pursuits, in a healthy city of increasing commercial importance. He says:—

The exports of Wilmington in 1840 were less than $1,500,000, in 1853 more than $7,000,000—with a banking capital of only one and a half millions of dollars, but which will probably be increased to two and a half or three millions by legislative enactment next year. The Manchester Railroad, after the completion of the Great Pedee bridge, prior to 1st September, will bring us next year 75,000 bales of South Carolina cotton, to pay for which, cash buyers must come from your city and other places. At 10 cents per pound, this article will add $2,500,000 to the exports next year. The freight on cotton from this place is ½ ct. per lb., while from Charleston it is ¾ ct. This will always be the case, as the great bulk of our exports are naval stores, which, from their great weight, pay a heavy freight. Turpentine, per barrel, to New York, at this time, 70 cents.

In four months from this time the Deep River Canal will be opened, and we expect the article of coal will be exported from our port next year to a very great extent. A very gratifying circumstance to our place is, that in the last year our Bar has deepened from 12 to 14 feet water on ordinary high tides. This is owing to the enterprise of our merchants in subscribing $60,000 to the works on our bars, which we hope Congress will make additional appropriations to. The Senate has voted to us $200,000, but the bill appears to sleep in the House of Representatives.

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF WILMINGTON FOR THE YEAR ENDING DEC. 31, 1853.

	Coastwise.	Foreign.
Spirits turpentine.....bbls.	113,817	1,457
Turpentine, crude.....	51,828	21,454
Rosin.....	369,770	10,689
Tar.....	21,609	4,521
Pitch.....	5,919	1,904
Pine or rosin oil.....	463	20
Timber, P. P.....feet.	1,030,444	85,154
Lumber, P. P.....	25,646,792	12,511,158
Peanuts, or ground nuts.....bushels.	69,624	87
Paper, news.....bundles.	2,120	.....
Corn.....bushels.	1,709	1,250
Flour.....bbls.	1,349	86
Wheat.....bushels.	302	.....
Cotton.....bales.	7,515	.....
" sheeting.....	2,320	.....
" yarn.....	2,581	.....
" warp.....	122	.....
" waste.....	317	.....
Wool.....	182	.....
Shooks.....hhds.	.....	200
Varnish.....bbls.	.....	23
Treenails.....	.....	5,500
Laths.....	.....	13,500
Staves.....M.	.....	154,782
Rice.....casks.	1,724	252
Rice, rough.....bushels.	102,917	.....

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES. Dried fruit, 67 hhds., 972 bbls., 159 boxes, 181 bags. Fur, 10 boxes, 1 hhd., 2 bales. Hides, 711, and 236 bundles. Sheep skins, 43 bundles. Rags, 72 bales. Tobacco, 7 hhds., 286 boxes. Leather, 154 sides, 55 bundles. Feathers, 6 bags. Wax, 20 hhds., 7 casks, 17 bags, 75 bbls., 33 boxes. Bacon, 6 hhds. Copper ore, 1,216 bbls., 36 boxes. Pipes, 21 boxes, 3 casks, 4 bbls. Sugar, 7 hhds., 491 boxes. Old iron, 693 tons, 8 hhds., 3 tierces, 12 bbls. Varnish, 6 bbls. Molasses, 85 hhds. Brandy, 12 bbls., 5½ pipes. Eggs, 2 bbls. Coal, 2 bbls. Tallow, 9 bbls. Old copper, 7 hhds., 1 box. Reeds, 173 bundles. Batts, 15 bales. Merchandise, 347 boxes, 2 bales, 21 bbls., 10 hhds. Pine wood, 20 cords. Nails, 37 kegs. Tea, 1 chest Fish, 64 bbls.

COMMERCE OF HONOLULU, SANDWICH ISLANDS.

The following statement of imports, exports, receipts, etc., at the custom-house at the port of Honolulu, Sandwich Islands, from the year 1843 to 1852, inclusive, is taken from the *Polynesian* and the custom-house records :—

	Value of imports.	Gross duties.	Re-exported.	Return duties.
1843	$223,383 38	$6,701 84	$66,618 17	$1,670 41
1844	350,357 12	10,326 13	60,054 06	1,501 34
1845	546,941 72	21,536 94	67,010 93	2,098 82
1846	598,382 24	53,447 78	62,325 74	21,667 02
1847	710,138 52	101,512 25	55,208 07	56,991 17
1848	605,618 73	142,357 73	33,551 55	90,148 27
1849	729,739 44	222,118 99	107,102 07	156,098 16
1850	1,035,058 70	202,603 61	46,529 72	110,687 12
1851	1,751,671 93	189,090 19	82,273 27	63,102 81
1852	715,295 27	135,423 77	63,661 18	52,929 70
Total	$7,265,587 05	$1,085,119 23	$644,334 76	$556,894 82

	Net amount.	Net duties.	Transit duties.	Harbor dues.	Net receipts.
1843	$156,565 21	$5,270 74	$239 31	$2,958 83	$8,468 34
1844	289,969 77	8,970 13	411 60	4,881 33	14,263 58
1845	471,319 78	19,465 12	734 01	4,890 83	25,189 96
1846	536,056 50	31,780 76	220 56	4,705 32	36,506 66
1847	653,930 45	44,521 08	184 93	4,095 24	48,801 25
1848	572,067 18	52,209 46	264 52	3,094 96	55,568 94
1849	622,637 37	66,020 83	235 13	5,687 53	71,934 49
1850	989,528 98	91,916 49	443 42	12,644 54	116,190 68
1851	1,751,771 93	125,987 38	1,043 45	12,905 71	148,936 54
1852	651,634 09	135,423 77	991 56	7,711 90	144,127 23
Total	$6,695,381 26	$581,565 76	$4,768 49	$63,576 19	$669,987 57

LUMBER TRADE OF CHICAGO AND THE STATE OF MICHIGAN.

The annexed statement exhibits the receipts of lumber, shingles, and laths at Chicago for seven years :—

	Lumber.	Shingles.	Laths.
1847	32,118,225	12,148,500	5,655,600
1848	60,901,250	20,000,000	10,025,100
1849	73,259,553	39,057,750	19,281,733
1850	100,344,797	55,323,750	19,890,700
1851	125,056,437	60,338,250	27,583,475
1852	147,816,232	77,080,500	19,759,670
1853	193,271,247	125,628,500	38,721,373

The amount of capital engaged in the business cannot be less than $3,500,000. It gives employment to a large number, which will be greatly increased this season, and, in fine, is one of the most important trades in some of our western cities.

To give some idea of the immense quantity of lumber manufactured in Michigan, we give the quantity of lumber estimated to be manufactured in St. Clair and Sanilac Counties, Michigan, during 1854 :—

Lumber	92,900,000
Logs furnished by these counties and sawed by mills on Detroit River.	33,000,000
New mills erected during the past winter equal to	6,000,000
Add ten per cent for increased machinery and improvements, and general advance in value	13,190,000
Quantity of lumber and logs for 1854	145,090,000

Worth, at a low estimate of $10 per thousand, $1,450,900.

Add to this sum the value of laths, shingles, fish, staves, and spars, and the exports from the two counties above named will not fall below two millions of dollars for the present year.

IMPORTS FROM RUSSIA INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1852 AND 1853.

	Northern ports.		Ports within the Black Sea.		Aggregate imports from Russia.	
	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.	1852.	1853.
Corn, wheat, & flour, qrs.	26,949	251,971	706,622	818,930	731,571	1,070,901
Corn, oats	304,448	370,059	1,290	.....	305,738	379,059
Corn, other grain	12,385	12,100	249,963	251,553	262,348	263,655
Tallow .....cwt.	571,849	826,219	37,348	21,048	609,197	847,267
Linseed & Flaxseed, qrs.	215,064	378,316	303,603	386,699	518,667	765,015
Bristles .....lbs.	1,459,303	2,477,789	.....	.....	1,459,303	2,477,789
Flax .....cwt.	918,523	1,287,978	.....	10	918,523	1,287,988
Hemp	543,962	838,431	3	42	543,965	836,473
Wool, sheep's .....lbs.	1,652,992	3,693,926	3,760,780	5,360,517	5,363,772	9,054,443
Iron, unwrought .....tons	1,792	5,079	.....	.....	1,792	5,079
Copper, unwrought	236	974	.....	.....	226	974
Copper, part wrought	1,042	656	.....	.....	1,042	656
Timber, hewn .....loads	28,297	45,427	2	4	28,289	45,421
Timber, sawn	189,729	245,586	50	46	189,779	245,582

ACCOUNT SHOWING THE ENTIRE QUANTITIES OF THE SAME ARTICLES IMPORTED FROM ALL PLACES IN 1852 AND 1853.

	1852.	1853.
Corn, wheat, and flour.....qrs.	4,164,603	6,276,857
Corn, oats	989,287	1,035,072
Corn, other grain	2,592,181	2,918,545
Tallow .....cwt.	1,049,703	1,178,370
Seeds—Linseed and flaxseed.....qrs.	709,402	1,035,335
Bristles .....lbs.	2,004,676	.....
Flax .....cwt.	1,402,583	1,833,374
Hemp	1,081,287	1,262,813
Wool.....lbs.	91,692,864	117,185,172
Iron.....tons	33,376	47,777
Copper	103,636	104,200
Timber, hewn and sawn.....loads	2,130,183	2,654,400

THE PROPORTION OF THE FOLLOWING ARTICLES DERIVED FROM RUSSIA, AS COMPARED WITH THE ENTIRE IMPORTS, IS AS FOLLOWS:—

PROPORTION OF THE ENTIRE FOREIGN SUPPLIES DERIVED FROM RUSSIA.

Wheat and flour	about	17 per cent		Bristles	about	75 per cent
Oats	"	32 "		Flax	"	66 "
Other grain	"	9 "		Hemp	"	66 "
Tallow	"	72 "		Wool	"	8 "
Seeds	"	75 "		Timber	"	11 "

The quantities of iron and copper are so small that they are not worth the computation.

It thus appears that for the supply of foreign tallow, linseed, flax, hemp, and Bristles, England is mainly indebted to Russia. Of grain, wool, and timber, the proportions are not so important.

GRAIN AND FLOUR TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

A return has been issued showing the quantity of grain, flour, and live-stock, imported into the United Kingdom from each country and colony in 1849, 1850, 1851, and 1852, with the official value of these imports and of all the imports, and the declared value of the exports. Converting meal and flour into their equivalent in quarters of grain, the return shows that the chief sources from which was drawn the grain, meal, and flour consumed in the United Kingdom in 1852 were the United States, which sent 1,400,558 quarters; Egypt, 777,745; Wallachia and Moldavia, 713,877; France, 745,161; Denmark, 770,196; Prussia, 554,702; Russia sent 957,877 quarters from Black Sea ports, 343,948 from Northern ports; Wallachia and Moldavia sent only 325,128 quarters in 1849, and 217,505 in 1850; but those provinces have since risen into much more powerful competition with Russia in the corn trade.

FOREIGN TRADE OF OSWEGO.

The subjoined statements of the foreign trade of Oswego, (New York,) which we find in the journal published at that port, is furnished by Mr. Harmon, the deputy collector. It appears that—

There has been a handsome aggregate increase, although there has been a falling off in the importations of Canadian flour of near one-half as compared with last year. The cause of this we have before explained, the principal one being the reciprocal free trade adopted between the Provinces, which has tended to divert Canadian flour from our channels, down the St. Lawrence. The deficiency at this point this year, is made up by the increased receipts of Canadian wheat. The receipts of three articles of largest import, from Canada for two seasons, have been as follows:—

	1852.	1853.
Flour.....barrels	193,190	113,008
Wheat.....bushels	1,362,482	1,781,157
Lumber.....feet	75,500,000	121,288,329

Large amounts of the products of the forests, such as shingles, lath, railroad ties, oak and pine timber, &c., imported at this point, and not embraced in the above lumber figures.

We have not the figures showing the valuation of our foreign imports, or the means of comparing the amount of duties collected, with those of last year. The duties charged at the Oswego custom-house, for the season of 1853, were as follows:—

Duties paid	$161,545 91
Duties bonded	539,816 83
Total duties	$701,362 74

This amount is said to be near or quite double the amount of duties charged last year, owing in part, probably, to the higher rates at which our imports have been entered the past season. There has also been a considerable increase in the aggregate tonnage amount of our imports, especially of the products of the forest.

The value of our exports to Canada for 1853, estimated by a lower rule of valuation than ever before at our custom-house, was as follows:—

Export of domestic products	$1,406,383
Export of foreign merchandise	537,720
Total valuation	$1,944,103

The tonnage of our foreign commerce is stated as follows:—

Number of entries and departures	8,141
Total tonnage	1,141,883
Number of men employed	66,226

STATISTICS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

A parliamentary paper has just been printed for the first time, (to be hereafter continued annually,) which we hope some Member of Parliament or correspondent in London, will forward to the address of the Editor of the *Merchants' Magazine*. The statistics of the United Kingdom are for the years 1840 to 1853. They relate to the revenue and expenditure; imports, exports; transhipments; shipping, excise, prices and sales of corn, coinage, savings banks, Bank of England, and the population. The document extends to 27 folio pages, and contains a great mass of figures, having been prepared by the statistical department of the Board of Trade.

In the year 1853 the surplus of revenue was 3,254,505*l*, being the largest excess for ten years. The net amount of the several branches of the revenue of the United Kingdom paid into the exchequer was 54,430,344*l*. The expenditure out of the revenue paid in the same year was 51,174,839*l*. In 1853 the taxes repealed or reduced amounted to 3,247,474*l*, and the estimated amount imposed was 3,356,383*l*. At the end of last year the balances in the exchequer were 4,485,230*l*. The capital

of the national debt last year was 770,923,001*l.* The quantity of raw cotton imported last year was 895,266,780 lbs., and of wool, 111,396,445 lbs. The total declared value of British and Irish produce exported last year was 93,357,306*l.* Last year the number of vessels built and registered was 798, of 293,171 tons. The number of vessels belonging to the United Kingdom last year, exclusive of river steamers, was 18,206, of 3,730,087 tons, and the men employed, exclusive of masters, was 172,525. The coinage in the year was 12,664,125*l.* The births in the year were 612,341, the deaths 421,775, and the marriages 162,135. The total paupers relieved were 818,315.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMMERCIAL TREATY BETWEEN FRANCE AND BELGIUM.

The *Moniteur* publishes the treaty of Commerce between France and Belgium. The text of the convention is of considerable length. It confirms, and in several respects extends the reciprocal concessions that regulated the treaty of 1845. To this treaty will shortly be added the literary convention, the clauses of which have been equally settled. The principal arrangements of the treaty may be thus stated:—

Among the stipulations assented to by France in favor of Belgium, are the complete remodeling of the tariff of linen yarns and cloths; the treaty is in many respects a return to the tariff that was in operation before the ordinance of June 26, 1842. There is consequently a reduction in the present import duties. New standards are also adopted for the varieties of unbleached linens, and will, in general, facilitate the importation of Belgian fabrics. The treaty grants to Belgium the privilege, hitherto denied her, of causing Belgian linens to pass in transit through France under the bonding system; that is to say, with English yarns upon condition of re-exportation. Guaranties have been granted against all advance upon French import duties on Belgian coals, cast iron, and forged iron; this is evidently the clause to which Belgium attached the greatest importance. Lime and Belgian building materials will henceforth be admitted free of duty: different reductions are consented to in favor of glass in sheets, of plaited straw and common straw hats; the abolition of surcharge in favor of Belgian machinery, which was regulated by the treaty of 1845, is confirmed; lastly, the prohibition upon the various kinds of pottery is set aside, and an *ad valorem* duty, ranging from 33 francs to 165 francs per cwt., is substituted. On the other hand, France obtains from Belgium in favor of her wines, silks, and salts, the guaranty of a treatment analogous to that which she grants to Belgian coals and irons. The taxes imposed in 1838 and 1843, by different royal decrees upon woolens, cashmeres, linen yarns, and ready-made articles, cease to affect products of French manufactures, and the suppression remains confirmed for French woven cottons; the most extensive facilities are accorded to French mercantile transit, in favor of which all customs dues are abolished; different reductions are made favorable to the entrance of French gypsum, &c., into Belgium, as well as to the importation into France of Belgian iron pyrites and charcoals; finally, French shipping admitted to the advantages conferred on English vessels by the treaty of December 27, 1851, now experiences the abolition of differential duties.

BRITISH COASTING TRADE FREE.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, April 18, 1854.

Information has been received at this Department from Albert Davy, Esq., United States Consul at Leeds, of the passage of an act of Parliament by which the whole coasting trade of the United Kingdom is now thrown open to foreign ships, and they will be subject to the same regulations as British ships so employed, and will pay no higher rate of duties, dues, tolls, and charges. Passenger steamers, carrying passengers from one place to another, on the coast of the United Kingdom, will be subject to the provisions of the Steam Navigation Act of 1851.

THE MERCHANTS' FLOUR INSPECTORS IN NEW ORLEANS.

RULES AND REGULATIONS FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF THE BOARD OF MERCHANTS' FLOUR INSPECTORS, NEW ORLEANS, AS ADOPTED BY THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

1. They shall select some suitable location for an office, to be known as the "Office of the Board of Merchants' Flour Inspectors."

2. Their first meeting for organization shall be held on the 27th of February, 1854, when they shall elect from their number a President and Secretary.

3. Said officers shall thereafter be elected annually on the first Monday of March in each year. A President and Secretary *pro tem.* may be elected at any time to act when the regularly elected officers shall be absent from sickness or otherwise.

4. It shall be the duty of the President to preside at all the meetings of the Board, and to act for and in the name of the Board in all matters of communication with the merchants or otherwise, and in the event of any complaint being made by either buyers or sellers, of the classification by any member of the Board, of any particular parcel of flour, it shall be the duty of the President to cause said parcels of flour to be examined and decided upon by all the members of the Board then on duty.

5. The Secretary of the Board shall keep a fair and correct record of all the proceedings of the Board, and also a faithful record of all the flour inspected by said Board, and he shall make semi-annual reports to this Chamber on the 1st of January and 1st of July of the quantity of flour thus inspected, and also report any other information or facts connected with the flour trade of our city which the Board may deem of importance to this Chamber.

6. No member of the Board shall absent himself from active duty without the consent of a majority of said Board, unless in case of sickness.

7. In case any one of the members of said Board shall be unable to attend to his duties on account of sickness, or from leave of absence by the Board, he shall (provided the majority of said Board so desire) nominate a deputy to said Board, who, if accepted by said Board, shall do and perform, for a time not longer than sixty days, the duties of said principal inspector, he being responsible for the acts of said deputy as fully as if he had performed said duties himself.

8. No member of the Board shall purchase flour other than for his own use, nor shall he sell flour, under the penalty of five hundred dollars.

9. In case any brand of flour, upon inspection, shall be found not to contain the legal weight of 186 lbs. per barrel and 98 lbs. per half barrel, the owner or consignee shall cause the deficit to be put into each and every barrel so found before it shall be branded by the inspectors.

10. All flour shall be inspected or classified under the following qualities or grades:—

First quality	Extra Superfine.
Second quality	Fancy Superfine.
Third quality	Superfine.
Fourth quality	Fine.
Fifth quality	Common.
Sixth quality	Middling.

And the Board shall cause such brands or marks to be put upon the heads of the barrels containing such flour as they may deem most suitable, provided that all brands thus used shall have the words "Merchants' Board."

11. If any person or persons shall alter, erase, or cause to be erased, any brand or mark of said Board of Inspectors, any person so offending shall forfeit the sum of fifty dollars for each and every such offence, for the benefit of the Charity Hospital.

12. It shall be the duty of said Board to appoint from their members a committee of not more than two to visit, at some period during the present year, all the important flour markets of our seaboard, and procure, from the most reliable sources, and from their own personal inspection and examination, the standard classification of the various grades of flour in those markets. Also to procure correct samples of those standard grades, and retain them in the office of said Board for examination and reference by merchants of our city or others. It shall also be the duty of said committee to procure every possible information in their power, which may be of value in connection with the article of flour to the trade of our city; and upon the report of said committee to the Board, they shall establish the grades of flour inspected in our city upon such a standard as shall place the flour trade of our city upon an equal footing with that of the other great commercial marts of our country.

Resolved, That the Merchants' Board of Flour Inspectors shall be elected by this Chamber annually, at the monthly meeting in February of each year.

BUENOS AYREAN COMMERCIAL DECREES.

DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT AND FOREIGN RELATIONS, BUENOS AYRES, Sept. 29, 1853.

Whereas, the position of relations existing between this province and the Provisional Director of the thirteen Provinces assembled in Congress at Santa Fe, is such as to make it absolutely incompatible that the consulate in foreign countries of this province and that of the said thirteen provinces, should be at the same time filled by the same individual; and desiring not only to obviate the embarrassments in which said individuals may be placed by receiving contradictory orders from the governments conferring the said offices on them, but also to remove the prejudice that may result to the interests of this province under such an arrangement, the government has resolved and decrees—

ARTICLE 1. The consulate of the province of Buenos Ayres cannot be filled by any person having the commission of consul granted by General Dr. Justo Jose de Urquiza.

ART. 2. In conformity with the provisions of the preceding article, let the requisite commissions appointing consuls of the province of Buenos Ayres for the various localities in America and Europe, where it is deemed necessary to have such, be issued.

ART. 3. Let this be communicated, published, and registered.

LORENZO TORRES.

DEPARTMENT OF GOVERNMENT AND FOREIGN RELATIONS, BUENOS AYRES, Sept. 27, 1853.

Consignees, captains of vessels, and whomsoever it may concern, are hereby warned that, whereas the government has noticed the infringements made on the existing laws of this country, which require vessels to bring their papers certified by the consular agents of this province at the foot of their clearance, and passengers their passports with the *vise* of said functionary, it has adopted the necessary measures to check said abuses which are so constantly practiced; and consequently orders that, on the expiration of six months from date for vessels from sea, and two for the rest, no vessel will be admitted to entry at the ports of this province that does not present its papers with the above legal formality; and that passengers contravening this requisition will be liable to the established penalties, which will be enforced with all their vigor.

JOSE M. LA FUENTE, Chief Clerk.

NEW TARIFF AT BALIZE, HONDURAS.

The legislative assembly, elected under the new constitution, was called together by the acting superintendent in January, and has closed its first session, having enacted various laws and ordinances, mostly of a local nature for the government of the place. Among the most important is the adoption of a new tariff of duties for the current year, say from March 1st, 1854, to March 1st, 1855. By this act all unrated articles are to pay a duty of 3 per cent on their actual cost, and all charges including freight; sugar, coffee, and tobacco, are to pay $3 per 100 pounds; tea 25 cents per pound; honey, molasses, spirits, and wines of all kinds, are to pay 50 cents per imperial gallon; hay, lumber, shingles, cattle, and a few other articles, pay a specific duty, which on a average will amount to 10 per cent ad valorem.

CHEAP POSTAGE BETWEEN NEW YORK AND AUSTRALIA.

The Postmaster-general has made an arrangement with the proprietors of the Australia pioneer line of monthly packets, to convey the mail regularly between New York and Australia, by sailing-ships, monthly in each direction. It is expected that the first mail under this arrangement will be dispatched from New York on the 25th of April. The single rate of postage for letters is five cents; for pamphlets and magazines, one cent an ounce or fraction of an ounce; and for newspapers, two cents each; prepayment required. The incoming mails, as the United States postage thereon cannot be prepaid, will be treated as ordinary private ship mails.

CLASSIFICATION OF MANUFACTURES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The Board of Trade lately communicated to the Leeds Chamber of Commerce its willingness to adopt in its printed returns a more complete classification of manufactures, and such as would show the extent and progress or decline of the British export trade. The Chamber has decided to recommend that the following classification shall be adopted:—

1. Broad woolen cloths, all wool, or mixed with other material. Yards and value.
2. Woolen cloths, heavy, viz., flushings, pilots, beavers, Petershams, Whitneys, and Devons, whether all wool or mixed. Yards and value.
3. Woolen cloths, cloaking, coatings, &c. Yards and value.
4. Narrow woolens, viz., trowserings of all descriptions, whether all wool or mixed. Yards and value.
5. Woolens, waistcoatings, made of wool mixed. Yards and value.
6. Flannels and baizes. Yards and value.
7. Carpets, all wool or mixed. Yards and value.
8. Druggets, all wool or mixed. Yards and value.
9. Blankets. Pairs and value.
10. Blanketing. Yards and value.
11. Shawls, woolen or mixed. Number and value.
12. Woolens not enumerated, including ready-made clothes. Dozens and value.
13. Woolen yarn. Pounds and value.

If the above specifications are adopted, the returns of the Board of Trade will be of great value to the manufacturers of woolen fabrics.

NAVIGATION OF THE LA PLATA.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, March 23, 1854.

The following translation of a decree, issued by the government of Montevideo, is published for the information of those whom it may concern:—

DEPARTMENT OF THE GOVERNMENT, MONTEVIDEO, October 10, 1853.

The Provisional Government of the Republic, considering that the most effective means to secure the public peace, and the development of the national resources; considering that the foundation of the prosperity of a country is amplest liberty to trade, has resolved, and decreed:—

ART. 1. The navigable rivers of the republic are opened to the vessels and to the Commerce of all nations.

ART. 2. Foreign vessels are subject, in regard to the navigation of the rivers, to the same policy and custom house regulations as national vessels.

ART. 3. Let this be promulgated, published, and properly registered.

LAVALLEJA, TUVILLAGA, JUAN C. GOMEZ, SANTIAGO SAYAGO.

THE NEW AUSTRALIAN TARIFF.

A new customs act was passed on the 19th instant, which makes the following additions to the duties previously levied:—Wine, 2s., being an additional 1s. per gallon; beer and cider, 6d. per gallon. The following is the tariff of customs now established in Victoria:—Ale, porter, spruce, and other beer, cider and perry, per gallon, 6d.; tobacco, cigars, and snuff, 2s. per lb.; coffee, 10s. per cwt.; spirits, (all kinds,) 7s. per gallon; tea, 3d. per lb.; wine, 2s. per gallon; all other goods free.

AN IMPORTANT TREASURY DEPARTMENT RULING.

In answer to a recent inquiry, the proper accounting officer of the Treasury rules that where an appropriation has, by accident or mistake, been paid over to a party not legally entitled to the money, the party who may be so legally entitled cannot be paid by the Treasury Department, the appropriation being exhausted; and that his

only remedy is in asking Congress to make a second appropriation to the same end. Such an occurrence, however, is known to have taken place but in two cases since the organization of the Treasury Department.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

NEW YORK CATTLE TRADE FOR 1853.

We give below our annual statistics of the New York cattle trade for the year just closing—a trade which seems to more than keep pace with the internal Commerce of our country in other respects. New York is, beyond comparison, the most extensive cattle mart in America; and whether regard be had to its intimate connection with the great agricultural interests of the interior, or to its magnitude, as a source whence so large a proportion of the daily food of our population is drawn, it becomes a matter of some importance to keep a record of its details, upon such reliable data as can be obtained.

The cattle brought to this market come to us from nearly all sections of the Union east of the Mississippi—indeed from all sections, save those of the Southern States bordering on the Gulf of Mexico. Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, Virginia, and Pennsylvania are our most liberal contributors; but Western and Northern New York, with Connecticut, Massachusetts, and other of the New England States, likewise send us large supplies. The extension of railroad communication of late years has brought comparatively near to us the grazing and agricultural products of the interior, so that the drover is now enabled to bring his stock to market without encountering the necessity of long and tedious journeys on foot from the country to the seaboard. It is true, some of the very best cattle that are sold here still reach us in the old-fashioned way; but these are the exceptions, not the rule. For every hundred that come to us on foot, a thousand reach us by the speedier transit afforded by railroad, and whatever may be the immediate excess of expense which the latter may involve, we think it is more than made up by a saving of time, and the fresher, and therefore the more marketable condition of the cattle when they are brought to the city. Thus all the lines of travel radiating from this city to the interior—the Harlem and Hudson railroads, the New York Central, the Lake Shore, the great Michigan Central, and the Baltimore and Ohio, and some of the Eastern railroads, find in the carriage of the live stock consumed in the city of New York one of their most profitable items of freight from Ohio, Kentucky, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Virginia, Pennsylvania, New England, and Northern and Western New York. A large proportion of the cattle driven to this market, however, come from districts nearer home. The counties bordering on the North River raise some of the finest, while Long Island and New Jersey occasionally are large contributors.

In this city there are principally four places for the sale of beef cattle—namely, the well-known Washington Drove Yard, in 44th street, between the Fourth and Fifth avenues, of which A. M. Allerton, Esq., is the proprietor; 2d, the lower or Hudson River Bull's Head, kept by Messrs. Chamberlain; 3d, Geo. Browning's Central Bull's Head, in Sixth-street; and 4th, the market kept by Mr. Morgan O'Brien, also in Sixth-street, near the Third avenue. Sheep and lambs are sold at all these places, except the last mentioned; the largest number at Browning's, and the next at Chamberlain's. At Allerton's, there were formerly but few sold, but the rapid extension of the city in that quarter has created a necessity for the sale of sheep and lambs there, just as a necessity has been created for the sale of beeves at Browning's, in Sixth-street, where formerly only sheep and lambs were sold. Cows and calves are sold at all these establishments; but the largest business in this respect is done at Browning's and Chamberlain's. The market days are Monday and Thursday, but sales to a greater or less extent are made every day. Independently of the regular transactions at these several city markets, there are many cattle bought and sold on board the boats at the wharves, on the north side of the city. Many cattle slaughtered in the country are also brought to market here, ready dressed; but these do not enter into the statistics below:—

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF CATTLE SOLD IN THE NEW YORK MARKET, WITH THE PRICES OF THE SEVERAL KINDS FOR EACH WEEK DURING THE YEAR 1853—AS COMPILED FROM THE WEEKLY REPORTS IN THE NEW YORK "COURIER AND ENQUIRER."

	CATTLE ON SALE WEEKLY.			WEEKLY AVERAGE PRICES.		
	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
January 3	2,400	60	8,000	$7 62	$33 75	$3 80
10	2,700	85	9,000	7 20	34 36	3 89
17	2,700	65	8,100	7 89	39 50	3 82
24	3,550	75	9,500	7 50	37 50	3 63
31	2,200	70	10,000	7 88	34 38	4 81
February 7	2,600	85	6,500	7 50	34 50	4 57
14	2,100	85	5,500	8 00	33 89	4 50
21	1,900	85	5,500	8 38	34 75	4 59
28	2,350	60	4,500	8 38	33 75	4 57
March 7	2,450	95	3,600	8 35	35 88	5 57
14	2,900	80	4,700	8 30	34 00	5 10
21	2,500	127	4,600	8 50	33 75	5 25
28	1,750	175	3,450	8 38	37 25	5 44
April 5	2,050	175	4,000	9 00	35 63	6 56
12	2,150	125	2,050	9 00	37 00	6 63
19	2,800	150	2,100	9 50	37 50	5 50
26	3,200	170	2,900	8 89	37 00	6 38
May 3	2,350	135	3,000	8 75	36 00	4 75
10	2,450	95	1,800	9 25	35 55	4 85
17	2,228	145	2,500	9 13	35 63	6 50
24	2,320	155	2,600	9 38	36 25	8 89
31	2,755	175	3,000	9 25	36 00	5 30
June 6	3,200	215	5,400	9 68	36 25	5 25
13	2,850	300	7,000	9 63	37 50	4 25
20	2,350	215	7,200	9 32	35 00	4 13
27	2,850	170	7,150	8 88	36 24	4 19
July 5	2,450	105	7,000	8 87	35 50	3 94
11	2,450	115	7,000	8 00	38 13	3 75
18	2,950	140	12,000	8 60	38 12	3 80
25	2,750	190	8,220	8 50	38 12	4 13
August 1	2,650	185	10,449	8 50	35 13	4 67
7	2,750	135	10,344	8 37	38 75	3 63
15	2,350	120	8,042	8 25	36 75	4 14
22	2,750	135	10,700	8 38	37 25	4 19
29	2,750	135	9,300	8 50	37 00	4 25
Sept. 5	4,100	238	8,000	8 13	26 25	4 13
12	3,005	149	11,228	8 50	38 34	4 35
19	4,747	539	16,460	7 37	38 75	4 19
26	3,170	321	9,844	8 10	43 75	4 75
Oct. 3	8,532	175	7,980	8 25	40 05	4 81
10	3,251	822	13,562	8 09	45 00	4 93
17	3,325	222	12,594	7 84	42 00	4 87
24	3,602	342	13,434	8 25	38 75	5 13
31	3,102	356	12,439	7 82	36 84	4 75
Nov. 7	4,250	411	13,665	7 50	40 00	4 50
14	2,954	343	8,944	7 75	35 84	5 05
21	4,181	370	13,200	8 25	36 00	4 87
29	4,076	445	10,458	8 37	36 00	4 80
Dec. 5	5,882	320	12,812	8 45	44 12	4 63
12	3,140	325	11,964	9 00	44 56	4 75
19	3,300	330	11,000	8 87	44 25	4 80
26	*3,300	330	11,000	8 98	44 25	4 80
	157,420	10,720	412,989	$8 39	$36 90	$5 20

* Estimated.

According to this showing, the largest number of beeves on sale, for any single week, was on the 3d of October; cows and calves, and sheep and lambs, on the 19th of September. Beeves were dearer ($9 68) on the 6th of June than at any other period of the year; cows and calves do. ($44 00) on the 10th of October; sheep and lambs do. ($6 56) on the 5th of April.

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY STATEMENT OF CATTLE ON SALE IN THE NEW YORK MARKET DURING THE YEARS 1852 AND 1853:—

	1853.			1852.		
	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
January	13,550	355	44,600	5,500	420	18,000
February	8,950	315	22,000	6,200	495	24,800
March	9,600	477	16,350	9,125	643	23,500
April	10,200	620	11,050	4,800	750	11,700
May	12,103	705	12,900	10,200	505	16,500
June	11,250	900	26,750	9,250	350	21,400
July	10,600	550	34,220	9,950	520	34,200
August	13,250	710	43,835	9,500	525	55,000
September	15,022	1,247	45,532	8,100	320	24,200
October	21,812	1,917	60,209	12,400	430	40,500
November	15,461	1,569	45,267	11,300	295	39,500
December	15,622	1,305	46,776	9,000	435	27,000
	157,420	10,720	412,989	105,225	5,688	336,100

These figures show at a glance the immense increase in the consumption of cattle in this city. The difference in favor of 1853 is as follows:—

INCREASE IN 1853.

Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
52,195	5,032	76,889

TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE OF PRICES FOR EACH MONTH DURING THE YEAR 1853, COMPARED WITH THE CORRESPONDING QUOTATIONS OF 1852:—

	1853.			1852.		
	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
January	$7 63	$35 89	$3 90	$7 37	$34 50	$4 50
February	8 07	34 24	4 60	7 50	35 00	4 00
March	8 36	35 11	5 36	8 37	32 50	4 60
April	9 10	31 80	6 03	8 12	32 50	4 75
May	9 19	35 93	6 07	8 25	37 50	7 75
June	9 38	36 24	4 46	8 75	37 60	4 50
July	9 50	37 48	3 92	7 75	34 75	4 50
August	8 40	36 98	4 19	7 12	35 00	4 00
September	8 00	39 32	4 37	7 75	34 00	4 00
October	8 12	38 58	4 90	7 12	33 75	4 25
November	7 97	36 98	4 82	7 50	34 50	3 60
December	8 80	44 30	4 78	7 50	34 25	3 50
Average	$8 30	$36 31	$5 20	$7 76	$34 70	$4 50

These results and comparisons enable us to see the general advance there has been in the prices of all kinds of cattle during the year. Comparing the monthly average of 1853 with that of the previous year, the differences are as follows:—

	Beeves.	Cows & calves.	Sheep & lambs.
1853	$8 39	$36 90	$5 20
1852	7 87½	34 87½	4 50
	52½	$2 03½	70

We see here a very material improvement upon prices, notwithstanding the fact that the supplies, in every case, are largely increased, as compared with those of 1852. Such, however, is the rapid growth of our population, that the demand for consumption seems to keep steady pace with, if not actually ahead of, the ability of the country to supply.

The total value of cattle sold at the several city markets above mentioned (excepting the average prices as given above) during the year, is as follows. (We have put down $43 as the average of each head of beef cattle.) Some dealers consider this a low figure, but as the more general opinion seems to be that it is about right, we have concluded to adopt it:—

	1853.	1852.
Beeves	$6,769,060 00	$4,103,975
Cows and calves	335,243 20	196,080
Sheep and lambs	2,151,662 69	1,547,730
	$9,255,965 89	$5,847,785
	5,847,785 00	.....
Increase	$3,408,180 89	.....

These figures show at a glance the magnitude of the cattle trade of this city. If we include the sales at the docks, (referred to in our preliminary remarks,) of which no authentic record is kept, it is probable that the aggregate value of cattle sold for the year does not fall far short of nine and a half millions of dollars.

The bulk of the cattle brought here for sale are consumed here; but a large and lucrative business is done by the packers, for shipment to California, Australia, and other foreign countries. Occasional shipments of live cattle are made to Bermuda, to supply the naval contract with the government there.

We have not included hogs in our tables, for the reason that we are not able to procure any record of the number coming to market reliable enough to enter into the general account. The trade in that respect, however, is a very large one, as we shall be able to show when as accurate a record is kept of the transactions as we are enabled to avail ourselves of in respect to cattle of other descriptions. At present the weekly consumption is from five to six thousand.

PRODUCTION OF COTTON IN INDIA.

A small volume of Indian statistics has been recently printed by order of the House of Commons. It contains short summaries of the most important information which could be collected in the statistical office of the East India House on the principal heads of Indian affairs, and was originally prepared by order of the Court of Directors. There are two principal descriptions of cotton plants now cultivated in India—the indigenous plant which is an annual, and succeeds best in the rich black soil found in various parts of the country and the American plant, which though a perennial, is practically an annual in India, and though grown successfully in some parts on the black soil, yet thrives better on the light red lands. Each kind is recommended by peculiar advantages; the Indian is superior in durability and fineness, the American in productiveness and length of staple. Both kinds are cultivated to a considerable extent, but the indigenous plant will probably always continue to be the favorite with native cultivators. It may now be considered as demonstrated beyond all question, that India can furnish cotton for the British market, and that the natives cultivate the cotton plant in a manner which, if it admits of improvement, is highly efficient. In 1846, the Court of Directors directed consignments of six thousand bales to be made annually for three years—half to be of New Orleans, and half of indigenous cotton. Very favorable opinions were pronounced on what was sent, by spinners and other competent judges, and all doubt as to the capability of India to produce cotton suitable for the purposes of our manufactures may be said to have been thenceforth set at rest. The great inferiority of the Indian cotton as compared with the American, is the result of what befalls it subsequent to its production in the fields, that is, in the way it is gathered and stored, in the mode by which it is separated from the seed, and in its transmission to market. The cleansing and packing of cotton, in spite of the continued attempts of the government to introduce improved saw-gins, is still very far from perfect. But the impossibility of getting cotton to the coast from the

inland districts forms the real reason why so scanty a proportion of the cotton we consume in our manufactures is derived from India. The amount which the maritime districts produce could not, probably, be very materially increased. About eight thousand square miles are already, it is calculated, devoted to the cultivation of exported cotton, and only a small portion of the parts of India adjacent to the sea will grow cotton at all. If by means of railroads the great cotton fields of Hyderabad, in the center of southern India, were placed nearly on an equality, in point of facility of transport, with the maritime cotton districts, then, as the writer of this portion of the volume calculates, a breadth of land sufficient for the growth of a quantity equal to the full demand of Great Britain, might be at once available. That cotton cannot be conveyed to a profit from the center of India, except by railway, may be proved by the analogous case of salt, which costs at Benares double what it does at Calcutta, the distance between the two places being four hundred miles—about the same distance as from some of the cotton marts at Hyderabad to Bombay.—*London Morning Chronicle, October 4th*, 1853.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

From the eleventh report to the Legislature, relating to the registry and returns of births, marriages, and deaths in Massachusetts, for the year ending December 31, 1852, prepared by the Secretary of State, it appears that the whole number of births in the State during the year was 29,702—an increase of 1,121 over the previous year; of which 15,246 were males, 14,432 females, and the sex of 124 is unknown; 17,255 were of American parentage, 10,991 of foreign, and 1,556 the parentage is unknown.

The whole number of marriages was 11,578; of which 7,702 were Americans, 3,767 foreigners, and 100 unknown.

The whole number of deaths, 18,582—males, 8,978; females, 9,395; unknown, 108. The average of age throughout the State is 27 78-100.

During the three years preceding 1852, the number of births of children of foreign parents amounted to 24,528, or 29.87 per cent of all the births in the Commonwealth. The year 1852 shows an increase in the births of this description, and also an increase in the per cental. There were four cases of triplets during the year 1852, and 590 "plurality cases."

During the four years ending 1852, there were born in Massachusetts 3,961 more males than females, the totals being 57,661 males, 53,700 females.

THE FOLLOWING ARE THE DEATHS IN MASSACHUSETTS FOR THE YEAR 1852.—

Consumption	4,155	Infantile diseases	1,160
Dysentery	1,018	Intemperance	45
Apoplexy	126	Insanity	37
Inflammation of bowels	293	Disease of liver	124
Disease of bowels	249	Disease of lungs	80
Inflammation of brain	327	Marasmus	157
Disease of brain	193	Measles	141
Cancer	180	Old age	960
Childbirth	160	Paralysis	283
Cholera infantum	377	Pleurisy	64
Croup	429	Pneumonia	821
Delirium tremens	31	Poisoned	13
Erysipelas	163	Rheumatism	69
Drowned	191	Scarlatina	843
Typhus fever	617	Scrofula	90
Fits	120	Disease of spine	46
Gout	2	Suicide	76
Disease of heart	435	Teething	309
Hooping cough	166	Unknown	420
Heat	19		
Hydrocephalus	440	Total	18,482

RESULTS OF THE CENSUS OF GREAT BRITAIN.*

NUMBER I.

POPULATION.

The number of people in Great Britain and the small adjacent islands in 1851 was 20,959,477; and the men in the army, navy, and merchant service, and East India Company's service, abroad, on the passage out, or round the coasts, belonging to Great Britain, amounted, on the same day, to 162,490. The population of Great Britain may, therefore, be set down at 21,121,967.

The annexed table exhibits the distribution of the people:—

POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN IN 1851.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
England	8,281,734	8,640,154	16,921,888
Scotland	1,375,479	1,513,263	2,888,742
Wales	499,491	506,230	1,005,721
Islands in the British Seas	66,854	76,272	143,126
Army, navy, and merchant seamen	162,490	.....	162,490
Total	10,386,048	10,735,919	21,121,967

British subjects in foreign states are not included in the general population as given in the preceding table, the exiles and foreign subjects in Great Britain being considered a set-off against them.

The following illustration will assist the popular mind adequately to appreciate *twenty-one millions* of people:—

It is well known that to *mass* quantity is to conceal bulk; thus it was stated the other day that the whole of the vast yields of California and Australia, melted down into a solid mass of gold, would only fill a tolerable-sized room; and so it is with numbers. A general, wishing to conceal the strength of his army, forms it into masses.

Now, if all the people of Great Britain had to pass through London in procession, four abreast, and every facility was afforded for their free and uninterrupted passage during 12 hours daily, Sundays excepted, it would take nearly three months for the whole population of Great Britain to file through, at quick march, four deep. To count them singly, at the rate of one a second, would take a year and a half, assuming that the same number of hours daily were occupied, and that Sundays also were excepted.

It has been stated that, in a future publication, the ages of the population will be given, their condition, and occupations. As regards age, they will be arranged in quinquennial sections—that is, in sections advancing by periods of five years each, from children in arms to the age of ninety and upwards. The people will then be classed in sections, as husbands, wives, widowers, widows, bachelors, and spinsters; again, they will be grouped, first, according to place of residence, and subsequently under the countries and counties in which they were born; and finally, they will be arranged in professions or occupations, from the prince to the peasant—paupers, prisoners, lunatics, and vagrants being severally grouped; and as the survey will extend over thousands in more than a thousand different callings, it is evident that, as the greatest exhibition of modern times only displayed a small part of the produce of the labors of the people, so the visitors to it only represented a fraction of the multitudinous population of these islands, which the enumerators found so variously occupied on the sea, on rivers, and on the coasts, in the valleys and on the hills, in cities, towns, villages, and solitary habitations over the face of the country.

The number of the male population of Great Britain, excluding those absent in foreign countries, was 10,223,558, and the female population 10,735,919; consequently the females were in excess of the males by 512,361, or as many as would have filled the Crystal Palace five times over. How many of these were spinsters cannot be

* "The Results of the Census of Great Britain in 1851. With a Description of the Machinery and Processes employed to obtain the Returns. Also an Appendix of Tables of Reference. By Edward Cheshire, Fellow of the Statistical Society, and one of the Secretaries to the Statistical Section of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. 8vo., pp. 56. London: John W. Parker and Son. New York: J. Wiley."

known until the second portion of the census is published. The proportion between the sexes in 1851 was 100 males to 105 females, or about the same as in 1801.

The births during the last thirteen years give a reversed proportion, viz., 105 boys to 100 girls. How much the change in the proportions, and the subsequent disparity of the numbers in the two sexes is due to emigration, or to a difference in the degree of the dangers and diseases to which they are respectively exposed, will be discussed when the numbers of males and females living at different periods of life are compared. The disparity in the proportions of the sexes is greatest in Scotland, there being no less than 110 females to 100 males in that country.

The following table gives the population of Great Britain and the Islands of the British Seas, including the army, navy, and merchant seamen abroad, as enumerated at each census from 1801 to 1851 inclusive:—

POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN FROM 1801 TO 1851, INCLUSIVE.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
1801.....	5,368,703	5,548,730	10,917,433
1811.....	6,111,261	6,312,859	12,424,120
1821.....	7,096,053	7,306,590	14,402,643
1831.....	8,133,446	8,430,692	16,564,138
1841.....	9,232,418	9,581,368	18,813,786
1851.....	10,386,048	10,735,919	21,121,967

It will be seen by the foregoing table that the population of Great Britain has nearly doubled since the commencement of the present century, notwithstanding the great number that have annually left the country and settled and multiplied into millions in the United States, in the colonies of North America, Australia, and South Africa. The increase in the last fifty years has been 93.47 per cent, or at the rate of 1.329 per cent annually, the increase of each sex being about equal.

The annual rate of increase has varied in each decennial period; thus, in 1841–51 the population has increased, but the rate of increase has declined, chiefly from accelerated emigration.

The emigration from Great Britain and Ireland in the ten years 1821–31 was 274,317; in the ten years 1831–41 it amounted to 717,913; and in the ten years 1841–51 it had increased to 1,693,516.

It has been shown by Dr. Farr, in his English Life table, that the half of a generation of men of all ages passes away in thirty years, and that three in every four of their number die in half a century. Taking emigration and other movements of the population into account, it is probable that of the 21,121,967 persons in Great Britain in 1851, 2,542,289 were born prior to the census of 1801, and were enumerated on that occasion. At the present rate of mortality, a few of the present generation will be alive a century hence.

If the population of Great Britain continues to increase uniformly at the same rate that it has done from 1801 to 1851, it will double itself every 52½ years.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION IN CALIFORNIA.

The Rev. Mr. PHILLIPS, in a sermon delivered lately in Stockton, gives the following interesting statistics in relation to the population, &c., of California. They are copied from the *Journal*:—

The population of California four years ago was 35,000; of which number 17,000, or one-half, were females. At the present time there are 300,000, making an annual increase of 75,000. The sexes, which were about equally divided four years ago, now stand in great disproportion, as out of a population of 300,000, there are only 40,000 females—an increase of 23,000, averaging 5,750 every year, or 479 per month. Of this whole population, 26,000 are children under fourteen years of age. Deduct from the number of females one-half the number of children, and we have 27,500 white females in the State. The figures sum up as follows:—Females, 27,500; children, 25,000; males, 247,500—making a total of 300,000. Of this number, it is estimated that 100,000 reside on the coast, and 200,000 in the valleys and in the mountains. These estimates are reliable, and are only selected from among the mass of statistics presented on the occasion, as the most worthy of publication.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE STEAMBOAT.

See how yon flaming herald treads
The high and rolling waves;
As crashing o'er their crested heads
She bows her surly slaves!
With foam before and fire behind,
She rings the clinging sea,
That flies before the roaring wind,
Beneath her hissing lee.

The morning spray, like sea-born flowers,
With heaped and glistening bells,
Falls round her fast, in ringing showers,
With every wave that swells;
And flaming, o'er the midnight deep,
In lurid fringes thrown,
The living gems of ocean sweep
Along her flashing zone.

With clashing wheel and lifting keel,
And smoking torch on high,
When winds are loud and billows reel,
She thunders foaming by!
When seas are silent and serene,
With even beams she glides,
The sunshine glimmering through the green
That skirts her gleaming sides.

To-night yon pilot shall not sleep,
Who trims his narrowed sail,
To-night yon frigate scarce can keep
Her broad breast to the gale;
And many a foresail, scooped and strained,
Shall break from yard to stay,
Before this smoky wreath has stained
The rising mist of day.

Hark, hark! I hear yon whistling shroud,
I see yon quivering mast;
The black throat of the hunted cloud
Is panting forth the blast!
An hour, and whirled like winnowing chaff,
The giant surge shall fling
His tresses o'er yon pennant staff,
White as the sea-bird's wing!

Yet rest, ye wanderers of the deep,
Nor wind nor wave shall tire
Those fleshless arms, whose pulses leap
With floods of living fire.
Sleep on—and when the morning light
Streams o'er the shining bay,
O think of those for whom the night
Shall never wake in day!

MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS IN 1851-52-53.

In the last number of the *Merchants' Magazine* we published elaborate tables of the operations of the Massachusetts railroads for 1853, compiled by our attentive correspondent, DAVID M. BALFOUR, Esq., of Boston. We now give, from the *American Railway Times*, a few of the leading items of operations for 1853, of forty roads, so that a comparison may be made with the operations of the two previous years, 1851 and '52. It will be remembered that these figures embrace only the roads that were in operation during the past year. The following is the comparative statement:—

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Number of railways	36	36	40
Miles of road and branches	1,150	1,150	1,192
Miles of double track and sidings	384	407	526
Gross cost	$52,595,288	53,076,013	55,348,652
Average cost per mile	$45,556	46,153	46,483
Gross receipts	$6,590,570	6,885,517	7,994,033
Gross expenses	$3,338,905	3,073,410	4,332,756
Net income	$3,360,671	3,212,107	3,661,277
Average net income per cent on cost	$6 20	6 05	6 61
Gross number of miles run	4,398,370	4,785,783	5,250,392
Average receipts per mile run	$1 50	1 44	1 52
Average expenses per mile run	$0 76	0 77	0 82
Average net income per mile run	$0 74	0 67	0 70
Gross receipts per mile of railway	$5,730 07	5,987 32	6,706 40
Number of passengers carried	9 510,858	9,810,056	11,568,992
Passengers carried one mile	152,916,183	161,694,555	186,215,713
Tons of merchandise carried	2,260,346	2,563,277	3,041,782
Tons carried one mile	70,205,310	77,638,247	95,985,832
Total weight of passenger trains in tons hauled 1 mile, not includ'g passengers	98,766,749	101,746,153	106,208,467
Total weight of freight trains in tons hauled 1 mile, not including freight	118,695,509	131,077,550	148,804,441
Total number of tons, not including passengers, hauled 1 mile	287,667,568	310,461,850	350,998,740

RATES OF TOLLS ON THE CANALS OF NEW YORK IN 1854.

Resolved, That the following rates of tolls be established by the Canal Board on persons and property transported on the New York State Canals, to take effect on the opening of navigation in 1854:—

PROVISIONS, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

	Cts.	m.	fr.
On salted beef, butter, tallow, beer, cider and vinegar	0	3	0
On salted pork, bacon, lard, lard oil, grease, and cheese	0	1	5
On salted fish and fish in brine	0	4	0
On bran and ship-stuffs, and oil-cake or oil-meal, in bulk	0	2	0

IRON, MINERALS, ORES, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

On salt manufactured in this State	0	1	0
On foreign salt and barytes	0	5	0
On gypsum, the product of this State	0	1	0
On foreign gypsum	0	3	0
On bloom, scrap, and pig iron, broken castings, gas pipes, and water pipes.	0	2	0
On sand, lime, clay, earth, manure, pig and smelted copper	0	1	0
On leached ashes, brick stone for the manufacture of lime, and bones for manure	0	0	5
On pot and pearl ashes, window glass, barilla and bleaching powders, kelp, soda ash, and copperas, and manganese	0	4	0
On mineral coal, charcoal, and iron ore	0	0	5
On stoves, iron car wheels and car axles, bed-plates for steam-engines, plow castings, and all other iron castings, except machines and the parts thereof	0	3	0
On bar and pig lead, going towards tide-water, and copper ore	0	0	5
On stove pipe and furniture for stoves, not cast-iron	0	6	0

FURS, PELTRY, SKINS, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

On furs and the skins of animals producing furs	1	0	0
On deer, buffalo, and moose skins	0	5	0
On sheep skins	0	4	0
On green hides of domestic animals of the United States	0	3	0
On imported raw hides of domestic and other animals	0	5	0

FURNITURE, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

On household furniture, accompanied by and actually belonging to families emigrating	0	3	0
On carts, wagons, sleighs, plows, and mechanics' tools necessary for the owner's individual use, when accompanied by the owner, emigrating for the purpose of settlement	0	8	0

STONE, SLATE, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.

On tile for roofing and stoneware	0	4	0
On fire-proof cement and drain tile	0	2	0
On unwrought stone and slate	0	1	0
On slate, and all stones wrought or partly wrought	0	1	5

LUMBER, WOOD, ETC.

On timber, squared and round, per 100 cubic feet per mile, if carried in boats	0	4	0
On the same, if carried in rafts, per 100 cubic feet per mile	1	0	0
On the same, if cleared after the 1st of June and arriving at tide-water before the 15th of August, inclusive, per 100 cubic feet per mile	0	7	0
On lumber carried in boats, when weighed, per 1,000 lbs. per mile, viz.:			
On white pine, white wood, bass wood, and cedar	0	1	5
On oak, hickory, beech, sycamore, and black walnut	0	1	0
On spruce, maple, ash, and elm	0	1	2
On cherry	0	1	4
On hemlock	0	0	6

	Cts.	m.	fr.
On boards, plank, scantling, and sawed timber, reduced to inch measure, all kinds of red cedar, cedar posts, estimating that a cord, after deducting for openings, will contain 1,000 feet, and all siding, lath, and other sawed stuff, less than one inch thick, carried in boats, (except such as is enumerated subsequently,) per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed ..	0	4	0
On hemlock, per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed	0	2	5
On sub 6 and 7, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 feet per mile	2	0	0
On sawdust, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	0	5
On mahogany (except veneering) reduced to inch measure, per 1,000 feet per mile	1	5	0
On sawed lath, of less than ten feet in length, split lath, hoop poles, handspikes, rowing oars, broom handles, spokes, hubs, treenails, fellies, boat knees, plane stocks, pickets for fences, and stuff manufactured or partly manufactured for chairs or bedsteads, hop poles, brush handles, brush backs, looking-glass backs, gun stocks, plow beams and plow handles, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	2	0
On staves and heading, empty barrels and casks, and ship knees, transported in boats, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	0
On the same, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0
On shingles, carried in boats, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	1	5
On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile	0	4	0
On split posts, (not exceeding ten feet in length,) and rails for fences, (not exceeding fourteen feet in length,) per M. per mile, carried in boats	2	0	0
On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile	8	0	0
On wood for fuel, (except such as may be used in the manufacture of salt, which shall be exempt from toll,) and tan bark, per cord per mile	0	5	0
On the same, if transported in rafts, per cord per mile	2	0	0
On sawed stuff for window blinds, not exceeding one-fourth of an inch in thickness, and window sashes and blinds, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	5	0
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS, ETC.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.			
On domestic distilled spirits, going towards tide-water	0	3	0
On wool	0	4	0
On cotton	0	1	0
On live cattle, sheep, hogs, horns, hoofs, and bones	0	2	0
On horses, (except those used exclusively for towing boats or floats)	0	3	0
On horses used exclusively for towing boats or other floats, exempt.			
On rags and junk	0	3	0
On manilla	0	4	0
On hemp and tobacco going towards tide-water	0	1	0
On tobacco going from tide-water	0	4	0
On pressed broom corn	0	2	0
On pressed hay and pressed straw	0	1	0
On corn, corn-meal, and oats	0	2	0
On wheat, flour, barley, rye, peas, and beans	0	3	0
On flour, starting and going from tide-water	0	1	0
On potatoes, apples, onions, turnips, all other esculent roots, and ice	0	1	0
On other agricultural productions of the U. States, not particularly specified	0	4	0
MERCHANDISE.—PER 1,000 POUNDS PER MILE.			
On veneering	0	8	0
On sugar, molasses, coffee, iron in bars, bundles, and sheets, steel, nail rods, boiler iron, nails and spikes, horse shoes, crockery and glassware, tin, resin, tar, pitch, tupentine, oil, anchors, chain cables, oakum, mineral water, oysters and clams, dyewoods, and other merchandise not enumerated	0	4	0
On railroad iron and railroad chairs	0	1	5
On threshing, mowing, and reaping machines, fanning mills, plows, harrows, and drill barrows	0	4	0
ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED.			
On all articles not enumerated or excepted, per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	4	0

BOATS AND PASSENGERS.

On boats used chiefly for the transportation of persons, navigating the canals, per mile	0	4	0
On the same, if they elect to commute for tolls upon passengers, per mile	5	0	0
On boats used chiefly for the transportation of property, per mile	2	0	0
On the same, if they elect to commute for tolls upon passengers, per mile	2	3	0
On all persons over ten years of age, per mile	0	0	5

STATISTICS OF THE BRITISH STEAM NAVY.

Of screw steamships, according to the Liverpool *Times*, afloat, England has at the present moment eleven line-of-battle ships, soon to be increased to twenty; five guard-ships, and seven powerful frigates, independent of smaller vessels. The following are the names, number of guns, horse-power, and stations of the most powerful of the screw fleet:—

	Guns.	Horse-Power.	
Duke of Wellington	130	700	Western Squadron.
Royal George	120	400	Devonport.
St. Jean D'Acre	101	600	Western Squadron.
Agamemnon	90	600	Bosphorus.
Cæsar	90	400	Not in commission.
Cressy	80	400	Sheerness.
James Watt	90	600	Not in commission.
Majestic	80	400	" "
Nile	90	500	" "
Princess Royal	90	400	Portsmouth.
Sanspareil	70	350	Bosphorus.
Ajax	58	450	Cork.
Blenheim	60	450	Guardship, Portsmouth.
Hogue	60	450	" Devonport.
Edinburgh	58	450	" Portsmouth.
Arrogant	47	350	Western Squadron.
Imperieuse	50	360	" "
Amphion	34	300	" "
Horatio	24	250	Guardship, Sheerness.
Tribune	30	300	Western Squadron.
Dauntless	24	580	Portsmouth.
Highflyer	21	250	Mediterranean.
Euryalus	50	490	Not in commission.

In addition to the above the following screw steamships are building, and will probably be afloat in a few months:—

	Guns.	Power.		Guns.	Power.
Royal Albert	120	400	Exmouth	90	400
Malborough	120	...	Hero	90	...
Conqueror	100	...	Forte	50	...
Orion	90	600	Chesapeake	50	..
Repulse	90	600	Curacoa	30	350
Hannibal	90	450	San Florenzo	50	...
Algiers	90	450			

The following are the most powerful paddle-wheel steamers now afloat:—

	Guns.	Horse-power.	
Terrible	21	800	Bosphorus.
Sidon	22	560	"
Odin	16	560	Western Squadron.
Retribution	28	400	Bosphorus.
Valorous	16	400	Western Squadron.
Furious	16	400	Bosphorus.
Leopard	17	560	Portsmouth.
Magicienne	16	400	Devonport.
Penelope	16	650	West Coast Africa.

BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

We have obtained the following very interesting and official statement of the *present* condition of the funded debt of this road, by a review of which the experienced reader will be able to arrive at a pretty accurate estimate of the general financial prospects of the company, for the residue of the fiscal year:—

The funded debt of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, as appears by its report made to 30th of September, 1853, as follows:—

Loan No. 1, January, 1854	$1,000,000 00	
Less sinking fund, applicable to its reduction	287,531 28	
		$712,468 72
Loan No. 2, of 1867		1,000,000 00
" 3, Iron bonds		566,666 67
" 4, of 1875		1,128,500 00
" 5, of 1880		700,000 00
" 6, of 1885, (for $2,500,000) now issued		1,281,846 25
		5,386,481 64
Add preferred stock of the State of Maryland		3,000,000 00
Making the whole funded debt of the company at that time		8,389,481 64
Residue of bonds of 1885, since issued		1,218,153 75
Making the whole funded debt to the present time		9,607,635 39
Capital stock		10,118,902 00

Treasurer's Office, Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, March 31st, 1854.

J. I. ATKINSON, Treasurer.

From the above it will be seen that the entire funded debt, upon which interest accrues, is $9,607,635 39. Since the annual report of the president was made, it will be seen that $1,218,153 75, being the residue of the loan of 1885, has been realized. This amount, with the net earnings of the road for the past six months, together with $245,000 to the credit of revenue from the last year, making some $2,200,000 in all, has been applied to the reduction of the floating debt, and to construction, which is constantly progressing. This is a highly favorable exhibit of the state of the road, and affords the assurance that, with no unforseen contingency to affect the reasonable anticipations for the future, the company will be in a condition at the close of the fiscal year to dispose of a very considerable amount, as policy may dictate.

THE RAILROADS OF MAINE IN 1853.

We give below the returns made by the several companies to the office of the Secretary of State in Maine:—

	Miles in length.	Stock fund.	Amount of indebtedness.	Total cost of road.
Androscoggin	20	$86,863	$220,000	$315,365
Androscoggin and Kennebec	55	824,131	1,043,549	2,030,140
Atlantic and St. Lawrence	149	1,692,200	3,614,520	5,306,720
Bangor and Piscataquis	12	135,000	1,650	138,913
Calais and Baring	6	100,000	136,563	217,255
Kennebec and Portland	72½	1,073,673	1,439,694	2,520,981
Machias Port	7½	75,000	300	100,000
Penobscot	..	64,781	73,000	Unfinish'd.
Penobscot and Kennebec	2¾	133,866	49,657	"
Portland, Saco and Portsmouth	51	1,337,000	132,000	1,303,195
Somerset and Kennebec	..	54,667	.....	Unfinish'd.
York and Cumberland	18	292,649	408,192	748,699
Totals	393¾	$5,879,832	$7,005,126	
Buckfield Branch	13	No return.		
Total miles of road	406¾			

In addition to the above, the Boston and Maine (Mass.) Company owns some three miles in the State, but they keep only one account showing the cost and operations of

the entire line from Boston to the South Berwick Junction. The average cost of the road, however, is about $49,600 per mile. Adding the three miles of the Boston and Maine Road, there is now finished and in operation 409¾ miles of railway, costing some thirteen millions of dollars.

THE RAILROADS OF VIRGINIA.

We publish annually in the *Merchants' Magazine*, a carefully prepared statement of the length of railroads in each of the States. Alluding to this statement, which is generally transferred to other journals, the Winchester *Virginian* remarks:—

Virginia has been credited for much less than her actual share of railway enterprise. To do her justice in this respect, before her own citizens as well as those of other States, we decided to compile the subjoined list of the lines now under way within her limits or in the hands of her people. Among them are three lines, the greater part of each of which lies within Virginia, the Seaboard and Roanoke, Petersburg, and Hicksford and Gaston; and one which is principally, we believe, in North Carolina, but prosecuted mainly by Virginia capital. This is the Clarksville and Ridgeway, a link in the route from Norfolk to the Upper Roanoke. The 251 miles of the Baltimore and Ohio Road lying in this State are excluded from the sum, because on the principle we follow in the case of the above-named roads, they are assigned to Maryland.

Name of Road.	Miles opened.	Miles building.	Total miles.
Virginia Central	107	70	188
R. F. and Potomac	76	..	76
Covington and Ohio (State)	..	115	228
Virginia and Tennessee and branch	73	139	212
Rich. and Pet. and branches	40	..	40
Petersburg and Roanoke	60	..	60
Hicksford and Gaston	21	..	21
Norfolk and Petersburg	..	62	79
Seaboard and Roanoke	78	..	78
South-Side	71	49	120
Danville and branches	95	51	146
Orange and Alex. and branches	82	15	155
Manassas Gap and branch	42	19	146
Winchester and Potomac	32	..	32
Tuckahoe (coal)	5	..	5
Winifrede (do.)	5	..	5
N. W. Virginia	..	104	104
Blue Ridge (State)	8	8	16
Appomattox	10	..	10
Fred. and Gordonsville	..	..	46
A., L. and Hamp. and branch	..	..	166
Clarksville and Ridgeway	25	..	25
	808	654	1,958

This list will, we think, be found very nearly correct. It will be seen that Virginia has, in round numbers, 800 miles of railway in operation; 700 building; and 500 more in the hands of organized companies, every mile of which will doubtless be made in a few years. About 250 miles will probably be added to the finished track during 1854. Besides those we have named, there are others projected, to the extent of perhaps 1,000 miles or more.

NEW RAILROAD SWITCH.

An improvement in the operation of railroad switches has been made by Asa A. Simmons, Narrowsburgh, N. Y. It consists in attaching one end of the ordinary connecting rod of a switch to a circular plate at any point between the center of said plate and its periphery, according to the length of stroke required. The circular plate is attached to one end of a horizontal shaft, at the opposite end of which there is a lever, by which the peculiar plate and shaft are turned, and the connecting rod and switch moved. An index is secured to the circular plate, for the purpose of denoting the exact position of the switch. Measures have been taken to secure a patent.

STEAMBOAT ENGINEERS AND PILOTS.

In November last the supervising inspectors of steamboats, appointed under the Act of August 30th, 1852, met in convention at Cincinnati, and the report of their doings has just been published. It contains the following statistics of the several districts.

	Vessels inspected.	Pilots licensed.	Engineers licensed.	Tonnage inspected.
1*st District.*—Portland	16	16	11	3,491
" Boston	20	24	19	8,568
" New London	16	18	7	4,926
2*d District.*—New York	135	161	365	52,229
" Philadelphia	36	60	80	14,560
3*d District.*—Baltimore	34	60	58	13,112
" Norfolk	8	14	14	2,164
" Charleston	18	32	52	6,865
" Savannah	8	10	20	2,496
4*th District.*—New Orleans	87	226	333	26,100
" Mobile	24	102	107	4,800
" Galveston	4	15	17	512
5*th District.*—St. Louis	83	302	254	27,712
" Memphis, &c.	17	41	42	2,543
6*th District.*—Louisville	72	176	263	19,758
" Nashville	14	70	83	3,401
7*th District.*—Pittsburg	83	148	184	18,392
" Wheeling	24	44	76	5,724
" Cincinnati	81	248	214	22,000
8*th District.*—Chicago	8	30	39	5,321
" Detroit	32	53	53	19,518
9*th District.*—Buffalo	40	99	86	35,600
" Cleveland	14	49	38	6,870
" Oswego	7	16	11	6,700
" Burlington	7	14	14	4,600
Total	882	2,028	2,448	317,968

EARLY HISTORY OF LAKE NAVIGATION.

According to the *Chicago Democrat*, the Griffith was the first vessel that floated upon the Western lakes. She was of 60 tons burden, completely rigged, and on board were seven small pieces of cannon, two of them brass. The keel was laid by La Salle, at Cayuga, six miles above Niagara Falls, on the 26th of January, 1679; and after experiencing great difficulty in ascending Niagara, on the 7th of August she floated upon the water of Lake Erie. A voyage was made to Green Bay, which was reached early in September. On the 18th, the vessel in charge of a pilot and five others, and laden with a rich cargo of furs, was sent back to the Niagara. Nothing was ever heard of her; but about the beginning of this century, upon a farm in Erie County, New York, near Eighteen Mile Creek, a large quantity of wrought iron, supposed to weight 700 or 800 pounds, and evidently taken from a vessel, was found much eaten by rust. About fifteen years after, immediately succeeding a heavy blow and in the same vicinity upon the beach, was found the breech of a cannon, and under it another. Words, evidently in the French Language, were upon them, and they were probably all that remained of the Griffith.

The Walk-in-the-Water, the first steamboat upon the lakes, was built at Buffalo in 1812, by Dr. Stewart, and named after a Wyandot chief who lived at Mogwago, on the Detroit River. The boat left Buffalo on her first trip on the 1st of November, 1818, under command of Captain Fish. Dr. Stewart told Mr. B. F. Stickney, at the time of her first trip, that including what he paid Fulton and Livingston for their patent, it cost him $70,000.

In a letter written by Gouveneur Morris, in the year 1801, six years before the first steamboat, he stated that Lake Erie would float a ship of 1,000 tons burden. We believe the first steamboat of 1,000 tons burden upon Long Island Sound was the Oregon, built in 1845; and the first upon the Hudson River, the Hendrik Hudson, 1,936 tons, built the same year. The Western waters were in advance of those of the East, as the Empire, built at Cleveland in 1844, measured 1,136 tons.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

ADDITIONAL LIGHTHOUSE AT THE ENTRANCE OF PORT PHILIP, ALSO BEACON ON SWAN RIVER.

LIGHTHOUSE AT THE ENTRANCE OF PORT PHILIP.

The second lighthouse at Shortland's Bluff, being now nearly completed, on and after the 1st day of January next a fixed red light will be exhibited thereon, from sunset to sunrise.

The leading lighthouse tower is built of wood, painted white, and stands at an elevation of 80 feet above the level of the water, bearing from the center of the upper lighthouse on Shortland's Bluff, south, thirty-three degrees west, distant six hundred and seventy feet.

The leading light will be seen in ordinary weather ten miles to seaward, within the bearings of south one-quarter west round (westerly) to southwest one quarter west.

The two lighthouses by day, and lights by night, kept in one line of bearing, lead in a mid-channel between Point Lonsdale and Nepean; but strangers are cautioned not to attempt the entrance by night, nor against the strength of the ebb tide by day.

BEACON ON SWAN RIVER.

A cone shaped iron beacon, painted white, elevated 50 feet above the level of the water, has been erected on Swan Point, bearing from the low lighthouse on Shortland's Bluff, north 41 degrees east. This beacon, kept open to the eastward of the low Lighthouse, leads in clear of Point Lonsdale Reef: and the flagstaff on Shortland's Bluff kept half a cable's length open to the Westward of the low Lighthouse, leads in clear of the Corsair Rock, and the other sunken dangers lying off Point Nepean; but, in all practicable cases, mariners waiting the turn of tide, entering or leaving the harbor, are recommended to keep the Point Lonsdale shore aboard, as the tide there runs fairer, and in bad weather small vessels incur less risk on the Point Lonsdale shore from the tide ripple, than towards point Nepean.

No alteration has taken place in the upper Lighthouse on Shortland's Bluff, which is as heretofore a Bright Stationary Light, one hundred and nine (109) feet above the level of the water, seen in ordinary weather twenty (20) miles to seaward, within the bearings of South round by West to Southwest by West.

The bearings are by compass, and hights at mean high water.

NAVIGATION INTO SPITHEAD.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

TRINITY HOUSE, LONDON, 5th April, 1854.

It having been determined, in communication with the Right Honorable the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that a floating light vessel shall be placed to mark the channel between the Horse and Warner Shoals, *notice thereof is hereby given*, and that the said vessel will be moored in a suitable position on the west side of the channel near to the Warner Shoal; and the light exhibited thereat on the evening of the 1st of May next, and thenceforth continued every night from sunset to sunrise.

At this station, a *single revolving light* of the natural color will be shown.

Farther particulars in respect of the exact position of this vessel will be published in due course. By order,

J. HERBERT, Secretary.

THE LIGHT SHIPS IN THE CATTEGAT.

MINISTRY OF NAVAL AFFAIRS, 14th March, 1854.

All the floating lights are now laid out and lighted.

Moreover, it is made publicly known hereby, that the light vessels at Lœsso Trindelen, at Kobbergrunden, and at the Anhold Knob, are in the future to be laid up on the 31st of December, supposing the ice permits them to remain on their station till then, and they will not then be laid out again before the 1st of March.

That the light vessels in Drogden and the Lœsso Strait are ordered to keep their stations as long as the ice permits them to do so. If the floating ice should force them to leave their stations, they will not be laid out again before the 1st of March.

When the light vessel in the Lœsso Strait is not on her station, on account of ice in the Cattegat, a white flag, with a blue perpendicular stripe will still, according to the notification of the 9th November, be hoisted on the lighthouses of Hanstholm and Skagen; if for other reasons it shall be obliged to leave the station a red balloon will appear on the Lighthouses of Skagen and Hirsholm.

CASUALTIES TO BRITISH SHIPPING IN FOUR YEARS.

A list of casualties to British shipping has been compiled from *Lloyd's List*, and laid before Parliament in a blue book. We find that during the last four years there happened at sea 12,363 disasters, varying in magnitude from a total shipwreck to a slight collision. Some of these items are very striking. Thus, the single item that "the *Honest Endeavor* sailed from Hull, Nova Scotia bound, and had not been heard of for three years," fails to arrest the attention so forcibly as when one is startled with the astonishing intelligence that 204 ships and their crews departed from our various ports within the four years alluded to, and not one of them was ever heard of again.

ANALYSIS OF THE 12,363 CASUALTIES REPORTED TO LLOYD'S FOR THE FOUR YEARS ENDING WITH 1850.

CANVASS.

Driven ashore by stress of weather —vessels and cargoes partially or totally lost	5,117	Burnt by cargoes igniting—coals, 11; flax, 1; wool, 1; cotton, 3	16
Collision—vessels obliged to run into port in a sinking state	2,665	Struck by lightning and damaged.	15
Wrecked	2,295	Blown up—by coal-dust, 7; spontaneous combustion, 1; gas, 4; powder, 1	13
Foundered	883	Plundered by pirates & destroyed.	13
Abandoned, waterlogged, dismasted, on fire—crew taking to boats	679	Taken possession of by convicts and wrecked	1
Sailed, and never heard of again	204	Struck by a whale and abandoned.	1
Burnt by accident	87	Struck by a waterspout	1
Damaged by ice	51		
Total			12,041

STEAM.

Driven ashore, but got off again	103	Abandoned at sea	2
Collision at sea	146	Capsized	1
Wrecked	17	Put into port in a sinking state	2
Foundered	30	Sunk, and raised again	5
Burnt	8	Sailed, and never heard of again	1
Partially burnt	7		
Total			323

One consoling fact in this terrible chronicle is, that but few accidents have occurred to ships ably manned and commanded; out of 12,000 and odd casualties, only 64 are recorded against ships of 700 tons and upwards. This is not merely in consequence of their size, but simply because in most large vessels greater care is shown in the selection of a crew, and in the appointment of a competent commander. Nearly all the losses have been sustained by vessels ranging from 90 to 500 tons, because these are the description of craft most likely to sail economically!—are often weak-handed, and liable to be commanded by men possessing few recommendations for filling the office of captain, except being part owner.

CLIPPER SHIP RED JACKET.

The extraordinarily quick passage of this new ship on her first voyage has excited considerable interest among nautical men, she having made the run from New York to Liverpool in 13 days 1 hour and 25 minutes, which is somewhat remarkable, considering the extremely boisterous weather she encountered throughout the passage. The following abstract of her log will show the distance run each day:—

1st	day out	run	miles 103	8th	day out	run	miles 319
2d	"		150	9th	"		413
3d	"		265	10th	"		374
4th	"		311	11th	"		342
5th	"		217	12th	"		300
6th	"		106	13th	"		371
7th	"		121				

She had the wind from the S. E. to W. S. W., the whole passage, with very stormy weather, either snow, rain, or hail, the entire vóyage; but she received no damage, and arrived in port without the loss of a single rope-yarn. She ran fifteen knots on the wind, and eighteen with the wind abeam.

The Red Jacket is a beautiful ship, of 2,400 tons burden, and was built in Rockland, Maine, by Mr. George Thomas. She is owned by Messrs. Seccomb and Taylor, of this city, and Mr. Thomas, the builder. She attracted a deal of attention in New York, and was generally admired for her beauty of model. She was commanded by Capt. Asa Eldridge, of New York, who has much experience in the Liverpool trade, and was captain of Vanderbilt's steam yacht on her recent trip to Europe. Captain Eldridge pronounces the Red Jacket a most excellent ship in every respect.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

MANUFACTURES OF PARIS.*

NUMBER III.

STATISTICS OF BUILDING AND CONSTRUCTION.

We have given in previous numbers the statistics relative to the different branches of industry at Paris engaged in the preparation and manufacture of food in its various forms. These composed the first of the thirteen groups into which the Report classifies the industrial pursuits of Paris. We come now to the second group, which takes in the branches of industry concerned in the building and furnishing of houses, and kindred pursuits. These are twenty-one in number, and the enumeration shows how minute and exact the Report is in its classifications:—

Builders of boats and rafts and those who break them up.
Contractors for paving.
Carpenters.
Contractors for roofing and plumbing.
Ladder-makers.
Makers of letters in relief (for signs.)
Masons.
Marble workers.
House finishers, (who make stairs, doors, windows, &c.)
Floor-makers.
Makers of arbor and trellis work.
Decorative artists.
Contractors for street paving.
House painters.
Stove-makers.
Sawyers of wood for carpentering.
Iron work in houses.
Tombstone cutters.
Layers of sidewalks.
Contractors of scavengering.
Baluster-makers.

Boat-building.—Few boats are built at Paris, but many are broken up. Boats coming from the Upper Seine, loaded with wood and charcoal, are rudely constructed

* In the *Merchants' Magazine* for April, 1853, we gave an account of the Commission of Inquiry into the Industry of Paris, and of the report published by it. See *Merchants' Magazine*, vol. xxviii., page 403; see also, for previous numbers of the series, vol. xxviii., page 760, June, 1853, and vol. xxix., page 380, September, 1853.

where wood is cheap, and are sold to be broken up, it being more economical to build new ones for each trip than to take them up the Seine again. Number of employers, 16; of whom 14 employ 2 to 10 men.

Amount of business in 1847	.....	365,500 francs
" " 1848	.....	129,700 "
Diminution	.....	65 per cent.

Of 53 men employed in this pursuit, 52 occupy their own apartments, and one occupies furnished lodgings. Of 49 workmen, 36 read and write. Their condition, as a general thing, is comfortable; but, like all men who work in the water, they are inclined to the use of ardent spirits, and some of them are reputed very irregular.

Contractors for Paving.—The manufacture of tiles and brick is mainly carried on out of the city, but some brick-makers take contracts for paving, and employ men in the city. Number of employers, 16.

Amount of business in 1847	.....	302,500 francs
" " 1848	.....	111,900 "

Average pay of the men, 3 francs 6 centimes; lowest pay, 2 francs 50 c.; highest 5 francs. Of 63 workmen, 41 can read and write.

Carpenters.—This head includes comparatively few employers, because carpentering requires the use of much space for yards and lumber, which it is difficult to procure in Paris, and which must be sought beyond the *barriere*. Number of employers in Paris, 125.

Amount of business in 1847	.....	16,137,000 francs
" " 1848	.....	4,518,000 "
Diminution " 1848	.....	72 per cent.

The average pay of the men is 4 fr. 89 c.; it varies from 2 fr. 50 c. to 8 fr. 78 per cent of the workmen can read and write. They are generally industrious and regular; they often assist each other, and have societies for the relief of their brother carpenters (the *Compagnons*) out of work.

Roofing and Plumbing.—Under this head are included all who roof houses whatever the material they employ, whether zinc, slate, or tiles; and also those who do the plumbers' work, such as laying service pipes. Number of employers, 119.

Amount of business in 1847	.....	6,082,600 francs
" " 1848	.....	3,100,000 "

Workmen employed in 1847, 1,166; workmen employed in 1848, 632; average pay of workmen, 4 fr. 20 c. per day. It varies from 2 fr. 25 c. to 10 fr., but only 21 receive more than 6 fr. 85 out of 100 can read and write. The men are generally regular, industrious, and in comfortable circumstances.

Ladders.—The making of ladders forms a special branch of industry, but it is sometimes carried on by cabinet-makers and turners. The full extent of this branch, therefore, is not shown under the present head. Number of employers, 8; amount of business in 1847, 64,900 fr. Hardly anything was done in 1848. Average pay of the workmen, 3 fr. 81 c. All the men can read and write.

Signs in Relief Letters.—Letters in relief of wood, zinc, and copper, form the object of a special branch of industry, which is in some degree connected with house painting, and employs several classes of workmen—those who make the letters, those who paint, and who gild. Number of employers, 22.

Amount of business in 1847	.....	487,000 francs
" " 1848	.....	98,000 "

Reduction, 80 per cent. Workmen employed, 109; 79 of the workmen are paid by

the day; 16 by the job. Average pay, 4 fr. 32 c. per day; lowest pay, 2 fr. 75 c.; highest, 6 fr. 98 per cent of the workmen can read and write. The men are for the most part well behaved; some are very dissipated.

Masons.—Formerly land owners erected their own houses, either for occupation or as an investment; but the rapid increase of population, the subdivision of large city estates, the opening of new quarters, have encouraged building enterprise and made building a regular branch of industry, with its contractors and traders in houses. Another result has been speculation, which has often passed the limits of prudence. The prospects of investment have been exaggerated, too many buildings have been erected; and for thirty years past this branch of industry has been visited with periodical crises. These contractors do not themselves come under any classification in the report, as they do not employ the workmen, but the master mechanics or subcontractors in each branch. Of these, the first division is the master masons. Number of employers, 369. This number does not include the numerous employers who live in the *ban-lieue.*

Amount of business in 1847, 26,853,740 fr.; number of men, 9,287. After the revolution of February, building enterprise was almost entirely brought to a stand-still; little was done, except in the way of repairs. At the hight of this crisis, a decree of July 4, 1848, established a sub-office of Security, authorized to loan to contractors on real and personal security. These securities were transferable by simple indorsement at the National Office of Discount. In pursuance of this decree, the office and sub-office opened credits with 73 contractors, credits to the amount of 3,993,000 fr. By means of this relief, 98 houses were built or completed in Paris, among which were 13 houses on the Boulevard Beaumarchais.

Of the 9,287 workmen, 4,859 are stationary; 4,428 are transient. Of the 4,859 stationary workmen, 446 work in shops; 4,402 work out in the city. Under the head of masons are included stonecutters and sawyers, and the working masons. Of the latter, there are three classes—the first are the *companions*, who receive the highest pay, execute difficult jobs, receive the instructions of the master or contractor, and act as foremen. The second class is the *Taloeheurs* or *Limousins;* the latter term, at first applied to workmen coming from Haute Vieuve and La Creuse, has now become a technical term applied to this class of workmen, whatever the department they come from; *limoasiner* means to lay foundations and raise the heavy walls: the *Limousins* have an extraordinary skill in building walls, which they construct with rapidity and precision, without other guide than the plumb-line. The third class is the servants, *garcons* or hod-men, who mix the mortar, take it up in a hod, carry stones, and watch at the foot of the scaffolds, in order to warn passers-by to beware of falling stones. This last is an important function, which we should be glad to see assigned to any class of men in the United States; but here the rule seems to be all building is done not at the risk of the builder, but of the community, and a house in course of erection is a standing terror to all passers-by.

Of 9,236 masons, 3,762 receive less than 3 fr.; 5,363 receive between 3 and 5 fr.; 111 receive more than 5 fr.

As regards personal habits and condition, 39 per cent keep house; 61 per cent occupy furnished lodgings; 60 per cent can read and write. The large number occupying furnished lodgings is owing to the fact that a majority of masons come from the provinces, principally the departments of La Creuse and Haute Vieuve, and pass the winter at Paris, but do not establish themselves there. Formerly these migrations were made in companies, led by a companion mason from Paris, who recruited the men in the country and engaged them for a year. At Paris he takes charge of their board and clothing. Within twenty years, while the number has not fallen off, it

has been more usual to engage for the season, and the masons travel on their own account.

The lodging-houses generally accommodate from three to six men—all bachelors, often from the same village; they support each other, and seldom mingle with those of other districts. Persons of other callings are rarely found among them, and women never. They generally sleep in couples, in rooms containing four to five beds. They pay six or seven francs per month each for what they have, soup every evening and a shirt washed once a week.

Almost all the men are well behaved, generally sober, and living frugally, and seldom drinking wine, except on pay-days. The habit of saving almost reaches the point of avarice, so anxious are they to take back something, as they say, to their country, where twenty-five centimes buy as much as ten francs at Paris. They have not the versatility of other classes of workmen, who know how to turn to their advantage all the resources of a great city. Among men of all occupations who are eager to open the doors of carriages, sell checks at the theater, collect ends of cigars, and to eat what the soldiers leave of their soup at the doors of the barracks, a mason is never seen.

The mason's occupation is not without its dangers; standing upon high scaffolds, or upon the wall which they are tearing down, they are sometimes thrown down with the stones they would remove; yet there are no societies for mutual aid among them. They are distrustful, and the attempts of some contractors to form funds for mutual relief by retaining part of their pay, have only partially succeeded.

This distrust, which separates the mason from his companions, does not seem to have been a characteristic in former periods. In the middle ages, masons traveling from city to city in companies, formed powerful and compact associations. The free masons built the most beautiful churches in the *ogival* style; they counted in their numbers eminent artists; and in the beautiful cathedrals scattered by them over all Western Europe, we read on the tombstone of the skillful architect that he was a *Master-mason.* They had their mysteries of initiation, and originated *companionship.* Afterwards the association lost its artistic and commercial character, and became political. Gradually artisans retired, workmen withdrew; at present, although still traveling in numerous bands, they no longer form any company *du devoir.*

RUNDLE'S METHOD OF SEPARATING GOLD.

In a letter to the *London Mining Journal*, J. H. Rundle, of the Colonial Gold Works, at Rotherhithe, states that mercury, in the separation of gold from auriferous sands, unites with it in varying quantities. The quantity of gold absorbed by mercury depends, he says, on the following conditions: first, the more or less finely divided state of gold in the ore; second, the length of time during which the mercury remains in contact with it; third the temperature at which the amalgamation is conducted; fourth, the presence of other metals in the amalgam.

The following method of separating gold from the mercury, when the latter by assay is found too rich, is employed: "The mercury after being strained is assayed; granulated zinc, previously cleaned with dilute sulphuric acid, is then added to it. As soon as the zinc is completely amalgamated, which takes place in a few hours, the mercury is well stirred and re-strained; a solid amalgam is obtained, containing, practically speaking, the whole of the gold, and the greater part of the zinc which has been added. The proportion of zinc necessary is about one-third of the weight of the gold to be extracted, that is, an equivalent of zinc to one of gold. With less, the whole of the gold is not obtained. If more than an equivalent be employed, the mercury retains a considerable quantity of zinc; the difficulty of refining the gold is also increased. When the object is to extract all the gold, it is advisable to use a small excess of zinc, as there are generally traces of other metals in the mercury which interferes with the uniformity of the results."

HAMILTON'S SHIP TIMBER SAW MILL.

Hamilton's ship timber saw mill was invented some years since, and after material improvements, was perfected and introduced three or four years ago, into the government dockyards at Toulon, and into several of the private yards in Great Britain. In one of the latter no less than four mills have been in constant and successful operation upwards of two years, and each mill, as stated by the ship builders who use them, making a saving over manual labor of nearly $5,000 per annum.

The advantages gained by the use of these saw-mills are four-fold; viz., saving of time, of material, of labor, and the ability to produce more perfect work than can possibly be effected by hand labor; it being a well established fact, that a greater mathematical precision can be attained by machinery, properly adjusted, than by relying upon the eye, the hand, and the judgment.

In this machine, all the varied curves which may be required in a ship's frame are sawed with perfect accuracy, requiring no after labor in trimming; every possible bevel, however varying, being made in the same timber, with the utmost mathematical nicety. And there is no reason why these machines should not be established in all our great ship-timber regions, and the various timbers sawed and adjusted to their places, on the soil upon which it grew, as that our Merchants' Exchange should have been actually constructed in the granite quarries of Massachusetts.

Not only has the price of labor been very greatly enhanced, but the price of nearly every article used in the construction of vessels has been much increased within the past two years. Any improvement, therefore, which will lessen either the cost of labor or material, ought to receive the earnest attention of our builders and ship owners. It can be shown at any time that a single machine of Hamilton's will prepare as much timber for immediate setting up, in a given time, as can be wrought out by the hands of fifteen of our most skillful artisans in the same period. We have seen a log, (in toughness almost equal to lignumvitæ,) of eleven feet in length, sawed and beveled on both sides, in the incredibly short space of twelve minutes.

This invention has already been thoroughly tested by the principal constructors in the United States Navy, by large numbers of our leading ship builders, and by many of our most considerate and practical merchants. And in these days of progress, it is safe to predict that these invaluable mills, will, ere long, be set up in every ship yard on the Atlantic coast, on the Lakes, and upon our great rivers.

That distinguished man, and truly great naval constructor, the late Foster Rhodes, expressed the following opinion, which, embodying as it does, the sentiments of all the practical men who have seen the operations of the machine, we quote: "It completely supplies those two great wants so long sought in naval architecture; the production of any required curves in timber, by the rapid process of mill sawing, and the following with the saw any natural curve in the fibres, without impairing the strength of the timber by grain-cutting."

MANUFACTURE OF PAPER FROM STRAW AND BAGGING.

We learn from *Newton's London Journal* (English) that George Stiff, of London, has taken out a patent for manufacturing paper from straw and bagging. The following is a brief description of the process:—

In carrying out his invention, the patentee makes use of straw, or grass, "gunney bagging," and "hemp bagging," preferring, however, the employment of straw. When straw, grass, or vegetable fiber of any similar kind is employed, the first process made use of is to cut the straw or fiber into lengths of about half an inch, which may be done in a chaff-cutting machine, or any similar apparatus heretofore employed for the purpose; after which, the straw or fiber is winnowed, by any suitable contrivance, in order to separate the knots and other portions of the fibre which could not be readily reduced to the consistency of pulp. The straw or fiber thus treated, or the gunney bagging, or hemp bagging, after having been suitably prepared, is placed in a boiler or vessel, together with a sufficient quantity of clear water to cover the fiber or other material, and boiled for the space of one or two hours. This boiler or vessel is furnished with partition or diaphram, finely perforated, or composed of gauze or similar material, through which the water may be drained off from the fiber or other material, and carried away through a discharge-pipe, which is brought into connection with the lower surface of the boiler or vessel. After this process, the fiber or other material is to be immersed in lime-water, in the proportion of about 1 cwt. of lime-water to every hun-

dred weight of material, and to remain so immersed for the space of about 24 hours, the mixture being occasionally stirred. After the expiration of this time the lime-water is to be drained off and a fresh solution poured on, which is again drained off as before. When this operation has been continued during about three days, the fiber or other material is to be placed in water, to which alkali has been added in the proportion of 10 lbs. of alkali to every 1 cwt. of water, and boiled for the space of two or three hours; the alkaline solution is then drained off in the manner before described. After the fiber of the material has been thus treated, it is washed and bleached in the same manner as when bleaching rags; that is to say, by running it into tanks or vessels, with a quantity of chlorine or bleaching powder sufficient to bleach it to that degree of whiteness which is required for the quality of paper to be made. After being thus bleached, the straw or other fiber or material may be washed and beaten, and reduced to pulp or half-stuff, in the usual manner; and the pulp or half-stuff may be converted into such paper as shall be required by the process heretofore in use.

The patentee claims the substitution of lime water for other alkaline solutions heretofore employed in the maceration of straw, grass, or other vegetable fiber, or gunney bagging, or hemp bagging, used to form the pulp or half-stuff in the manufacture of such descriptions of paper as are produced from the aforesaid materials.

THE GLASS TRADE AND MANUFACTURE.

At Sunderland, England, Mr. James Hartley, the extensive glass manufacturer, recently, in a lecture on the art and manufacture of glass, stated the following interesting facts in reference to that business:—

Previous to the repeal of the glass duty in 1845, there were 14 companies engaged in the manufacture of crown and sheet glass; they were increased during 1846 and 1847 to 24, and now are reduced to 10. In 1844, the last year of the duty, there was made by the 14 companies 6,700 tons of crown and sheet glass, paying £500,000 duty; there are now 10 companies, working 40 furnaces, with 284 pots, making 35,500,000 feet annually, equal to 15,000 tons, value £225,000, being an increase of considerably more than cent per cent, and at a charge to the public of less than one-half of the former duty. In polished plate there are six companies, being the same as existed in 1837, and, consequently, their number has remained stationary since the repeal of the duty, but their production is estimated to have doubled. They now make 3,000,000 feet polished plate annually, equal to 5,500 tons, valued at £450,000. Of Hartley's patent rough plate, which has only been fairly in the market about two years, the quantity now manufactured annually is 2,240,000 feet of 2 lbs. to the foot, valued at £30,000. The produce of the little kingdom of Belgium, the greatest glass producing country in the world, is 50,000,000 feet of sheet glass annually, equal to 22,300 tons, or 25 per cent more than is made in England of both crown and sheet glass. They export of this quantity 85 per cent, of which 6 per cent comes to England, and they retain 15 per cent for home consumption; England retains 85 per cent of its produce for home consumption, and exports 15 per cent, being about double what she imports. In Hartley & Co.'s glass tariff there are 7,329 figures; also 17 descriptions of glass with 51 thicknesses.

MANUFACTURE OF AMERICAN STEEL.

Mr. Thaddeus Selleck, (as we learn from the *Tribune*,) well known as an ingenious iron-master, informs us that he has just succeeded in making cast steel of the finest quality from the ore of the Franklinite Iron Company, Franklin-Town, Sussex Co., New Jersey. Said ore was deoxydized at Sidney Forge, in Sussex Co., and then melted at the Adirondack Steel Works, Jersey City, and the product of this melting is pronounced by the best judges equal to any cast-steel in market. We are not aware that any steel, no matter of what quality, was ever made so easily and cheaply before. We trust that this is the beginning of the emancipation of this country from her long dependence on England for steel. We are assured that fine razors, equal to the best imported, have already been made of this steel, from ore once melted with apthracite alone, at a cost far below the price of steel in any market. If there be no mistake in this, the production of this steel is an event in our national growth of more importance than the battle of New Orleans. It will doubtless draw the attention of metallurgists generally to the possibility of making steel, from fit ores or combinations of ores, at far less expense than the process has hitherto involved.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

MERCANTILE EDUCATION AT ANTWERP.

It has always afforded us pleasure to note the practical and the useful in the progress of society; and we confess to no little gratification, says the *Commercial Bulletin*, in perusing a document handed to us a few evenings since by our esteemed friend H. Meugens, Esq., Belgian consul for New Orleans. This document contains a statement and details of a higher grade of commercial institute, formed under the auspices of the Belgian government, than we ever met with before.

The Coburgs bid fair to hold the highest rank in the old world. The favorite project of Prince Albert carried out in the Great Exhibition of 1852 has given an impetus to the arts and to useful inventions which, we trust, as the stone cast into the pool spreads the circling waves over its surface, will carry the impulse outward and onward until the wide world reaps the benefits which its industrial exhibition was well calculated to produce. Another of this family has originated the grand scheme which, when properly matured and established, will give the Belgian merchant a name and rank second to none.

"Practice," as said, "is the soul of Commerce," and this appears to be fully kept in view throughout the whole course pursued in the proposed institute, while at the same time theory goes hand in hand with equal step—still further other and appropriate studies combined, afford the future merchant all the advantages the counting-room and the university can give.

The location is Antwerp, and the plan comprehends a vast trading community on the largest scale, divided into sections kept perfectly separate and distinct, and each section representing a designated portion of the commercial world. One supposed to be at Paris, and showing a Parisian banking house with all its routine of business; another at London, and then the office of a large ship-owner; a third, that of a commercial house at Hamburgh; a fourth, insurance office at Antwerp; here a New York business house; then another of far-off Australia, at Sydney; others of Rio, Havana, Odessa, Alexandria, etc. Importing and exporting, whether on account or consignment, freight, commission, insurance, etc., are all daily and duly attended to. Books regularly kept, and everything conducted as though real business was actually involved, in all its details and ramifications.

Thorough instructions are given in political economy, statistics, exchange and custom-house regulations of all countries, maritime and commercial law, general history of Commerce and industry, commercial and industrial geography, history of staple products and manufactures, etc. English, German, French, Spanish, and Italian are to be taught, both as to correspondence in these languages and to speaking them fluently. At the completion of the course, judges, appointed by the government, will deliver to each of the students whose merit entitles him to it, a diploma of capacity, and he who obtains the first place receives a traveling purse from the Belgian government, and authority and permission to travel for several years at its expense.

The programme of the courses, and all the regulations, are approved annually by the government and by the city administration.

The institution is under the direction and control of seven commissioners, two of whom are chosen by the government, two by the Chamber of Commerce, and two by the Common Council of Antwerp, the Burgomaster of that city acting as President.

We have been thus particular in describing this institution, because we feel an interest in all that tends to advance the commercial community as a body, and we think there are merchants in this country who, if the matter was once properly brought before their minds, would feel pleasure in endowing and establishing something of the same kind, adapted to the wants and characteristics of our people. How much better for a young man intended for Commerce to commence his career thoroughly drilled and ready to take his place in active life, prepared to decide correctly and advisedly, on the questions appertaining to his business, whether foreign or domestic, brought before him in his daily intercourse with the world. We have a military and a naval school equal to any, certainly not surpassed by any in the world. We still need a commercial and an agricultural one, in which a uniform and perfect system of a like grade and thorough instruction in all that pertains to Commerce and agriculture should be given to those who will likely be engaged in after life in those pursuits.

COMMERCIAL VIEW OF TEMPERANCE.

The *Philadelphia Merchant* says: We shall not here enter into any defense of the distinction between moderate drinkers and temperance people; nor shall we affirm either that all the intemperate folks deserve to be in prison, or that all teetotalers receive their just deserts by managing to keep out. We shall merely call attention, briefly, to a common-sense commercial view of temperance.

The money expended annually in intoxicating beverages defies calculation; and it cannot be doubted that millions of dollars are thus diverted from honorable, because useful, trade. In the ratio that the bar-room prospers, the merchant suffers loss. Every dollar spent in liquor by the laboring man or the mechanic, deducts one dollar's worth of necessaries or comforts from the just expectations of his family. Shoes, clothing, provisions, sugar, furniture, and all other useful or essential things, are either wholly cut off from the list of the husband's expenditures, or greatly diminished in their quality or quantity, for the use of his household.

We here speak in a general way. There may be exceptions, as in cases of a competency not yet squandered in wine, strong drink, or other destructive beverages. The masses of mankind seldom accumulate property. Usually they spend as they go, and are glad if they can make both ends meet at the end of the year. Surely it is best that they should do this by contributing as much as possible to the happiness and comfort of their families; and it is an easy question for all philanthropists to decide, whether the avails of labor shall be devoted to the purchase of whisky or flour, brandy or beef, gin or shoes, wine or sugar, beer or potatoes, grog or clothes.

The merchant has also his own interest at stake, and there can be no impropriety in considering *his own advantage* when it coincides with the well-being of his neighbor. The liquor seller is directly pitted against the dealer in all wholesome and useful articles of consumption, and we submit that all merchants—by which we mean all traders in the comforts and conveniences of social life—should array themselves promptly and decidedly on the side of temperance and against all forms of alcohol as a beverage. We will not now insist that they should take ground in favor of the Maine Law, though it is clear that the nearer the community is brought to total abstinence from intoxicating drinks, the more largely and certainly will the interest of the merchant be promoted.

GROWTH OF COMMERCE.

All that any one has to do, says the *Philadelphia Merchant*, to find a specimen of the extension of Commerce is to take up the history of some article which has come into general use within a few years. Take, for instance, gutta-percha. In 1844 only 200 lbs. of this gum were exported from Singapore for an experiment, and so speedily did this article get into use, that in 1849 over two million of pounds were exported from that same place. How much from elsewhere we know not; but think of the growth of Commerce in this one article, from one port in five years, from two hundred to two millions of pounds!

When Webster made his great plea in the India-rubber Case, many thought it ludicrous to find him so eloquent on the uses to which that article would yet be put. But that eminent lawyer always looked into the facts of every case he undertook, and he was greatly surprised to see what was doing, and would be doing, by india-rubber. One of the latest uses is its application as flexible gas pipes – one of the handiest arrangements for a chamber, sitting-room, or study. By it gas can be brought to a movable stand on a table, where it will burn like an astral lamp. But a still later use is that of the "Great Coat Umbrella," a Parisian invention, intended to serve as a great coat and an umbrella. It is made of any impervious material, and has, running along the lower edge, an air-proof tube. Under the collar is a little blow-hole communicating with this tube. The wearer applies his mouth to this hole, and with a few vigorous exhalations he inflates it with air. The tube takes the consistency of a hoop, the great coat takes the form of a diving-bell, and the drops fall a long way outside the wearer's feet.

Some of our ingenious mechanics must take this idea and invent something which will serve as a lady's fan, and yet capable of expanding into a parasol or umbrella. What a sensation might be caused in Chesnut-street some spring day, when the fair ladies are fanning themselves because of the heat caused by shopping, and a little shower coming up, lo! fans become umbrellas, and the flying ribbons and feathers are protected. May we be there to see!

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF SAN FRANCISCO.

FROM THE ALTA CALIFORNIAN.

The Mercantile Library Association of San Francisco has had its library open nearly a year. It began with about 1,500 volumes of the library of Gen. Hitchcock, and about 1,100 volumes have since been added, so that the stock of books now numbers about 2,600. Among these are some very curious volumes; one is a manuscript book about 600 years old, and it is so neatly written that a close inspection is necessary to do away with the first impression that the book is printed. There is a full file of the "*Gentleman's Magazine*" since 1731, and there is a complete file of the "*Edinboro' Magazine*" since its foundation. The library, though not very large, contains a large proportion of standard works, and is particularly well provided with American authors. The original stock were all exceedingly valuable books, for Gen. Hitchcock is not less a thorough scholar than an able soldier.

The association is called the *Mercantile* Library, but there is no distinction in regard to membership between merchants and men of any other occupation. At the late election, however, there was quite an anxiety that the officers of the institution should be all merchants. This demand was at first looked upon as rather unjust to some members not merchants who had done a great deal for the association, which would have failed entirely if left to the support of merchants only. The result, however, has been that the new officers have entered zealously into the performance of their duty, and the merchants, as a class, take more interest in the library, and the association is now in a more flourishing condition than ever, and promises to become, at no distant day, such a library association as the merchants of the third commercial city of the Union should support. There are about 250 members, though there should not be less than a thousand. The reading room contains a very extensive collection of the latest papers and periodicals from all portions of the State and Union, including all the daily city papers, which the librarian preserves upon file for future reference. There have been as yet but five large donations. The principal donors, so far, have been Gen. Hitchcock, who gave the original collection, at a very low sum for California; Mr. Haskell, of Adams & Co., who gave a collection worth about $500; Mayor Garrison, who gave $500 in cash; and Col. Crockett, and the present President, D. S. Turner, both of whom have spent much money and labored zealously to place the library in successful operation.

ADULTERATION OF LIQUORS.

Eminent chemists assert, says the Albany *Evening Journal*, that nine-tenths, at least, of all the liquors consumed in the United States are more or less drugged. To say that half of all that pretends to come across the Atlantic is wholly manufactured on this side of it, would be to fall short of the truth.

There are numbers who live and thrive by such nefarious trade. Long practice in the use of sugar of lead, capsicum, acids, aloes, juniper berries, verdigris, logwood, &c., &c., in varying and nicely graduated proportions, has enabled them to bring the art to a degree of perfection that seems almost fabulous. Cheap Monongahela whisky brought into their vaults by the hogshead, comes out bottled and ready for sale as Madeira, Cognac, Champagne, Pale Brandy, Cream of the Valley, and Old Port. In these, the color, flavor, and smell of the originals will be so closely imitated, that experienced taste is deceived by them. So complete and minute are their operations, that not only are foreign brands forged, and the shape of bottles, the devices of seals and corks imitated, but even artificial dust and cobwebs are fabricated to give them an air of respectable antiquity.

If other proof of this were needed, besides the results of chemical analysis, it might be found in the facts that more Port is drank in the United States in one year than passes through the custom-house in ten; that more Champagne is consumed in America alone than the whole Champagne district produces; that Cognac brandy costs four times as much in France, where it is made, as it is sold for in our corner groggeries; and that the failure of the whole grape crop in Madeira produced no apparent diminution in the quantity, nor at all corresponding increase in the price, of the wine.

It is these compounds that madden and destroy such multitudes in our towns and cities. In vine growing countries, where wine is cheap and plentiful and its use almost universal, there are none of these horrors of intemperance that shock and alarm

us here. France, Italy, Spain, suffer no more from the free use of their wines, than we do from our cider, or "Sparkling Catawba."

If none but pure liquor was permitted to be sold, its price would instantly become so great as to put it beyond the reach of those who now fall victims to "red-eye" and "rot-gut." Genuine brandy, gin, and rum, are the most costly of all fermented drinks, instead of being, as we are accustomed to think, the cheapest. To say nothing of the cost of transportation, they cannot be bought on the spot where they are made at anything like the rates they are sold at in our drinking saloons. Brands that at wholesale bring $3 a bottle, are sold at retail for three cents a glass!

A law providing for the prohibition and punishment of these adulterations could be faithfully carried into effect, for all parties would have a common interest in its enforcement. It could be resisted by few, for no man *wants* to drink these poisons, and no dealer would acknowledge that he sold them. Temperance men would gain their end of driving these beverages out of use, and all respectable liquor merchants would profit by the rise in prices. Constitutional rights would not be more infringed than by the detection and punishment of any other fraud; and no property would be destroyed except the liquid poisons and the implements of their manufacture.

THE IMPORTANCE OF GETTING GOLD.

The Boston *Transcript* truly says (what the *Merchants' Magazine* has often said before) that it is a great thing to be rich, but it is a greater thing to have the reputation of being rich. It is not the wealth which a man expends, but that which he is supposed to possess, which gives him importance in the world. We know an old landlady who, though she charged all travelers alike, was careful to ascertain if her guest was "smart" in appearance, and if so the best in the house was placed before him, while a plainer man, who paid the same amount, was put off with meaner food. And so it is universally. The rich man gets more for his money than the poor man. And of course he is wiser! His opinions upon all subjects are listened to with the greatest deference.

But let him lose his wealth, and what a poor, weak fool he becomes! As Shakspeare says—"Men's judgments are a parcel of their fortunes." Gold is therefore not only powerful but wise, in the public estimation. It is not the man, but the money that is respected. The servant has become the master, and governs alike both the man who has it and him who has it not. Great is gold; and therefore to be sought after not only by the evil but by the good, for social influences which it confers, whereby the possessor may become useful to society by his precepts and example. Now if the reader would get gold, get it fairly, get it honestly, get it wisely, and above all use it well, let him invest a gold V. (good money of paper will do) in the *Merchants' Magazine*, and then "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest," and outwardly put in practice its "facts and figures," and what is of more importance, its maxims of mercantile morality, and our word for it, he will win gold from mines, and golden opinions from "all sorts of men."

MERCANTILE AMBITION.

The true province of the merchant is not merely to sell to his customers such goods as they may order, but it is incumbent upon him to keep himself so posted as to enable him not only to purchase to advantage himself, but to advise his customers in regard to all the newest, most economical and appropriate styles of goods in his peculiar branch of trade. He thus advances their interest by securing to them a wider sale and a more speedy return of their outlay, and renders their commercial transactions mutually more advantageous to both parties. By energy, liberality, and candor, the shrewd merchant unites his interest with that of his customers, secures an extensive and permanent trade, and in due time achieves a fortune.

In those branches of business affected not only by some general change in the wants of society, or the new application of mechanical skill, but by the more fickle and often arbitrary behests of taste or conventional caprice, the merchant has a field for the exercise of all those talents which render the scholar learned, the artist eminent, and the statesman illustrious. The candidate for the highest civic honors has not before him a more worthy object to prompt his ambitious aspirations. Hence he often encounters labors and difficulties and privations with an energy and self-denial which command success.

ELEMENTS OF SUCCESS IN BUSINESS.

What are they? Knowledge to plan, enterprise to execute, and honesty and truthfulness to govern all. Without these elements, without them deeply impregnated on his nature, no man can conduct any business successfully. Without them, he is like a ship that has lost its rudder, or an engine that has no regulator. With them, success is certain—as sure as the decrees of destiny. But with them, there are other qualities which must be considered. A man must not waste his life away in small things, if he would achieve honor or renown. He must strike boldly, lay out gigantic plans, follow great thoughts, and drive them, curbed by reason, to a successful issue, as he would drive noble steeds to the end of a journey. He must have the boldness to grasp, the vigor and intelligence to execute. He must look above the ordinary ideas of those in the same business as himself, and attain an eminence far above them—one they may have observed, but had not courage and resolution to ascend. It is a trite saying that some men are great because their associates are little. A bragging captain of country militia, a spouting demagogue, and the chief of a half exterminated horde of savages, are all examples of the truth of the observation. None of these must be emulated; none of the traits of their characters must be held up as models. A man who would acquire fame in the present age of social and political progression, must not be behind the times. He must not live in the past, but in the future. He must not only be a thinking man, but a working machine—know how to form great plans, and how to put them into force. Mind must be the monarch of matter, and annihilate time and space. Man should not be an animal, nor a mere machine of flesh and blood; he is a child of God, and should copy from his Maker. He should not be a mere earth-worm; but live as befits a being with a highly-gifted and immortal soul!

There are men who peddle sand to gain their bread; there are others who just as easily build cities, create kingdoms, and revolutionize one-fourth of the world. One of the first sect drives an old horse and cart before your door, unloads his sand, carries it into the cellar and deposits it in a bin, pointed out by a greasy looking servant girl, and chalks the number of measures down with a smile of satisfaction, as he wipes the sweat from his brow. A member of the other sits by his fireside, reads the news, and sends a vessel with a valuable cargo up the Mediterranean to run the blockade of the Baltic, and give him a clear profit of fifty thousand dollars! Both are men; nothing more or less. Each has bones, flesh, and muscle; eyes to see, and ears to hear; and perhaps in all physical respects, one is just as well provided for as the other. Where, then, lies the difference? Not in the body, but in the mind; mind rules matter. One lives by a sort of an animal instinct, and is a sort of a living automaton; the other lives by calling into exercise the all-powerful faculties of an immortal soul, and is a possessor, in a humble degree, of the power and magnitude that characterizes his God!

SLAVERY FOR MONEY.

We pity the man who wears out his energies in the accumulation of riches, which when amassed, he will have lost the capacity to enjoy. He finds himself at the end of his labors a guest at his own feast, without an appetite for its dainties. The wine of life is wasted, and nothing remains but the lees. The warm sympathies of his heart have been choked by his inexorable spirit of avarice, and they cannot be resuscitated. The fountain-head of his enthusiasm is sealed; he looks at all things in nature and in art with an eye of calculation; hard matter of fact is the only pabulum his mind can feed on; the elastic spring of impulse is broken; the poesy of existence is gone.

Are wealth and position an equivalent to these losses? Is not the millionaire, who has acquired wealth at such a cost, a miserable bankrupt? In our opinion, there is little to choose on the score of wisdom between the individual who recklessly squanders his money as he goes along in folly, and the false economist who denies himself the wholesome enjoyments of life, in order to swell the treasure which, in the hardening process of scraping up he had been too mean to spend, and too selfish to give away.

The only rational way to live is to mix labor with enjoyment—a streak of fat and a streak of lean. There is nothing like a streaky life; a pleasant mixture of exertion, thankfulness, love, jollity, and repose. The man who slaves for riches, makes a poor return to that God who took the trouble of making him for a better purpose.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*English Serfdom and American Slavery.* By LUCIEN B. CHASE. New York: Long Brothers.

Here is a work, the character of which may be in a measure inferred from its title. It is a forcible presentation of the "mild beauties" of the serfish system under which the masses of England suffer, as contrasted with the institution of slavery on our own soil. The author, Hon. Lucien B. Chase, ex-member of Congress, is a gentleman who makes no hap-hazard statements, and arrives at no impulsive conclusions. Whatever pictures he draws have their basis and color in facts—facts that challenge scrutiny from the record. Around an interesting thread of romance, running through his work, the author has thrown his web of facts and arguments, making it very plain that the government and institutions under which caste is permitted to crush the poor and lowly forever; under which imprisonment for debt, evictions, and a worse than slave life in the mines and factories, impressments into the navy, &c., awaken no loud voice of condemnation, are not preferable even to the worst social and political conditions of our own country. Mr. Chase has not set himself up as the vindicator or apologist of American slavery, further than as he brings it in favorable contrast with English serfdom. He carefully avoids passionate assault and exposure on the one hand, and partial defense on the other. His discussion of the question is candid, and if the reader is swayed to one side or the other, he feels that the facts developed have swayed him. Now, that the Uncle-Tom's-Cabin sort of books have had their run, it is only fair that such works as Mr. Chase's have a hearing. They throw a new light upon, and show a new side to a question that some have thought has but one side. Particularly to sympathizers with English agitators of the slavery question would we recommend Mr. Chase's volume. It should be read widely, North and South.

2.—*Theological Essays.* By FREDERICK DENISON MAURICE, M. A., Chaplain of Lincoln's Inn. From the Second London Edition, with a Preface and other additions. 12mo., pp. 359. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This is a somewhat remarkable work, has already created considerable sensation in the Established Church of England, and since its publication it has led to the author's expulsion from a college connected with that Church. Mr. Maurice maintains in these essays, what most will accept, that a theology which does not correspond to the deepest thoughts and feelings of human beings, cannot be a true theology. The volume contains seventeen essays, in which all the leading doctrines of the Church, as the Incarnation, the Atonement, Regeneration, Justification by Faith, Inspiration, Judgment Day, Trinity in Unity, &c.—these and other doctrines—are treated in an original manner, and with great apparent freedom. The book will be read by inquirers after truth of all sects.

3.—*Essays on Philosophical Writers, and other Men of Letters.* By THOMAS DE QUINCY. 2 vols., 18mo., pp. 292 and 291. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

As a literary essayist, De Quincy is justly entitled to a high rank, and his productions are worthy the enduring form in which they have been produced by the American publishers. The volumes before us contain essays on Sir William Hamilton, Sir James Mackintosh, Kant, in his Miscellaneous Essays, John Paul Frederick Richter, Lessing, Richard Bentley, and the celebrated Dr. Samuel Parr and his contemporaries. The fifteen volumes already published by the enterprise of Ticknor, Reed & Fields, thus far the only complete collection of De Quincy's writings, must be appreciated by, and find a place in the library of every gentleman who makes any pretension to literary taste.

4.—*Minnie Hermon;* or the Night and its Morning. A Tale for the Times. By THURLOW W. BROWN. 12mo., pp. 472. New York: J. C. Derby. Auburn and Buffalo: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

A story whose characters are drawn from life, the materials of which were collected by the author during the active participation in the temperance reform. It is a true picture of the evil effects of intemperance upon individuals and society, simply and truthfully illustrated.

5.—*History of Oliver Cromwell and the English Commonwealth, from the Execution of Charles I. to the Death of Cromwell.* By M. Guizot. Translated by Andrew R. Scoble. 2 vols. 12mo., pp. 425 and 430. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The entire history of the English Revolution embraces a period extending from the accession of Charles I. to the fall of James II. It may be naturally divided by the great events which it includes into four periods. The first comprehends the reign of Charles; the second contains the history of the Commonwealth; the third, the restoration of monarchy; and the fourth, the downfall of the race of Stuarts. Such is the order adopted by this eloquent writer; and the present volumes are devoted to the second period above stated. The translation is extremely well rendered from the French. The views of English affairs taken by this distinguished author, and the eloquence with which they are presented, render these volumes indispensable to the reader of English history, especially at a period when those troubles existed which led to the rapid settlement of America.

6.—*Tempest and Sunshine;* or Life in Kentucky. By Mrs. M. J. Holmes. 12mo., pp. 381. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

An interesting romance, illustrating the different characters of two sisters, whose dispositions suggest the title of the book. The story shows that those who are actuated by true and pure motives in their daily lives, though they may become victims of dishonesty and duplicity, yet in the end justice will be done; while those who are successful for a time in their baseness and evil designs, will eventually find only exposure and remorse. The plot is well laid. The character of Julia may be somewhat overdrawn, still many defects may be overlooked where a book has a good moral tendency. It may be read with profit as well as amusement.

7.—*Russia as it is.* By Count A. De Gunowski. 12mo., pp. 300. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We have no hesitation in saying that this volume displays a more intimate knowledge of Russia than any hitherto published in this country. The present state of its society, its civil organization, the character of its government, and the condition of the people, are described with a fullness and intimacy which could have been obtained only by a long residence in that country. The work has already, as we learn, met with a large sale, and is still in good demand.

8.—*Sacred Poems and Hymns, for Public and Private Devotion.* By James Montgomery. With the Author's latest corrections, and with an Introduction by John Holland. 12mo., pp. 388. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

As a writer of sacred poetry, Montgomery ranks among the first. This collection, prepared by the author, is very extensive and accurate. The excellence of sentiment, and the smooth and easy versification, will make this volume a treasure with all who once become familiar with it. The introductory essay is worth the price of the volume.

9.—*The Forestiers.* By Alexander Dumas. 12mo., pp. 225. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Dumas is well known as one of the most popular novelists of Paris. This story is among the best from his pen. It is the first of a series which will be published simultaneously in this country and France. The English translation is prepared by a competent French scholar, alike familiar with both languages, and with the approval of the author.

10.—*The Sunshine of Greystone.* A Story for Girls. By E. J. May. 16mo., pp. 321. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is an admirable story, by the author of "Louis' Schoolboy Days," which has met with such a favorable reception. As that was designed for boys, so this one has been expressly prepared for girls. It is written in a chaste and elevated style, abounds in excellent sentiments, and is full of interest.

11.—*Africa and America Described.* With Anecdotes and Numerous Illustrations. By the Author of "The Peep of Day," &c. 12mo., pp. 319. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

This work is designed for children, and contains descriptions of the most remarkable geographical features of Africa and America, including South America and the United States. It is copiously illustrated with wood engravings.

12.—*The British Poets.* 18mo. 8 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. New York: Evans & Dickerson.

We noticed in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine* the progress of this enterprise, and referred in terms of general commendation to the series, which, when completed, will form the most complete collection of the poets, from Chaucer to Wordsworth, extant. We referred in our previous notices to the publication of the works of Gray, Goldsmith, Pope, Prior, Cowper, Butler, and Collins. We have since received from the Messrs. Evans & Dickerson, the publishers' agents in New York, the poetical works of Charles Churchill, with copious notes, and a life of the author by Wm. Tooke, F. R. S., in three volumes; the poetical works of Edward Young, in two volumes, with a life by the Rev. John Mitford; the poems of Thomas Hood, in two volumes, with some account of his life, and the poetical works of Henry Kirke White, in one volume, with a memoir by Sir Charles Nicolas. These eight volumes cover some twenty-six hundred pages. The poems of Young, White, and Hood, are prefaced with handsomely engraved portraits of each, and a concise and comprehensive life is prefixed to the works of each of the poets embraced in the series. The size and style of the volumes are those of Pickering's celebrated Aldine Poets, and such of the works of that edition as fall within the plan of Little, Brown & Co's. collection, have been and will be embodied in it. Each separate work is sold by itself, but the price of each volme is such (75 cents,) as to place the entire series in the hands of every one who has the means of forming a private library. The uniform and beautiful style in which the series is published, so far as paper and print are concerned, is excellent, and but one opinion exists as to the great merits of the enterprise. We shall have occasion to refer to it again, and will not, therefore, exhaust our vocabulary of praise.

13.—*Hand-Book of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy.* By Dionysius Lardner, D. C. L., Formerly Professor of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy in University College, London. Third Course. Meteorology, Astronomy. With thirty-seven plates, and upwards of two hundred illustrations on wood. 12mo. pp. 768. New York.

This appears to be a very full and complete treatise on the whole subject of astronomy as well as meteorology. The author has evidently taken great pains to render the work as complete in all respects, and as nearly co extensive with the actual state of the sciences, as the objects to which it is directed admit. He has detected several errors of considerable importance, which have hitherto been almost universally disseminated in elementary works, and under the authority of the most eminent names. This is the last of a series of three hand-books of Natural Philosophy. The first course related to mechanics, hydrostatics, hydraulics, pneumatics, sound and optics, and the second to heat, magnetism, common electricity, and voltaic electricity.

14.—*Annual of Scientific Discovery;* or Year Book of Facts in Science and Art for 1854. Edited by Daniel A. Wells, A. M. 12mo., pp. 398. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

This is the fifth or sixth year of the publication of this valuable annual. The present volume is equal in value and interest to any that have preceded it. It exhibits in a clear and concise form the most important discoveries and improvements in mechanics, useful arts, natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, meteorology, zoology, botany, mineralogy, geology, geography, and antiquities, made known through various authoritative mediums during the year 1853. The present volume contains a list of recent scientific publications, a classified list of patents, obituaries of eminent scientific men, and notes on the progress of science during the year. It is a convenient book of reference, and highly creditable to the research and skill of the editor and compiler.

15.—*The Art Journal,* for April, 1854. London: George Virtue. New York: 26 John-street.

A superb number of an unrivaled art-work. Besides the numerous engravings on wood in the best specimens of that art, we have three matchless pictures on steel, viz., Christ Lamenting over Jerusalem, from the painting of Sir C. L. Eastlake, engraved by J. Outrim, and The Surprise, from Dubuff, engraved by W. Roffe, both from the Vernon Gallery, and the Summer Holliday, from a spirited painting by Goodal, engraved by the same. We are gratified to learn that the "Art Journal" has a large and increasing circulation in the United States. It deserves it.

16.—*Saxton's Hand Books.* 2 vols., 12mo. New York: C. M. Saxton.

These volumes contain a collection of works of rare value to the agriculturist. The several works embraced in the series were originally published separately, but they are now embraced in two volumes, and form a very complete and comprehensive treatise on the subjects discussed. In the first series we find distinct works on the hog, the horse, the bee, the domestic fowl, the pests of the farm—by Richardson, whose writings on subjects connected with farming in England are very popular, and are fast becoming equally so in the United States. The second series contain the hand books, with titles as follow: Every Lady Her Own Flower Gardener; Skinner's Elements of Agriculture; Brown's Bird Fancier; Dana's Essay on Manures; Fessenden's American Kitchen Gardener; and the American Rose Agriculturist. The English works embraced in these volumes have been improved and adapted to the conditions of American agriculture by a competent and experienced hand; and altogether the series form one of the best collections of books extant on the several topics, and should form a part of every agriculturist's library.

17.—*Rambles in Brazil;* or a Peep at the Aztecs. By one who has seen them. Second Edition. With Maps and Illustrations. 12mo., pp. 264. New York: Charles B. Norton.

The author gives an animated account of his experience while journeying through Brazil. The first part is written in the form of a journal, recording the thoughts and sentiments which were suggested by the many incidents occurring at the time, and growing out of the circumstances which surrounded him in this country. The events are penned in a spirited, pleasant style, full of enthusiasm. The second part of the volume was composed after his return, and gives a historical account of the Valley of the Incas. He treats upon the government, military and civil institutions, modes of communication, building, domestic manners and customs, and pastoral life.

18.—*The Constitutional Text Book:* Containing Selections from the Writings of Daniel Webster; the Declaration of Independence; the Constitution of the United States; and Washington's Farewell Address. With copious Indexes. 12mo., pp. 503. New York and Boston: C. S. Francis & Co.

This work, designed for the higher classes of educational institutes and home reading, contains selections from the writings of Mr. Webster, of a purely national character, and such as are calculated to strengthen the opinions of the old, and impress the young with a love of country and veneration for its institutions. The other documents alluded to in the title-page are in a convenient form for reference. It forms a very handsome and desirable book for every family library.

19.—*Jaqueline Pascal;* or a Glimpse of Convent Life at Port Royal. From the French of M. Victor Cousin, M. Prosper Faugere, M. Vinet, and other Sources. Translated by H. N. With an Introduction by W. R. Williams, D. D. 12mo., pp. 318. New York: R. Carter & Brothers.

Jaqueline Pascal is described as a woman in whom dignity and lowliness, wisdom and simplicity, lofty genius and saintly piety, the martyr's firmness and the woman's tenderness, were rarely and beautifully blended. These memorials of her life and character, blended with other matters, will be read with interest.

20.—*The Powers of the World to Come,* and Church Stewardship, as invested with them. By George B. Cheever, D. D. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: Robert Carter & Brother.

The present work had its origin in a course of lectures by the author, and purports to be "a practical survey of what is termed in some quarters the Extraology of the Scriptures—the realities we are to meet beyond the grave." Dr. C. is a vigorous writer, and the present work will doubtless find many admirers among his theological disciples.

21.—*American Statistical Annual of* 1854. Compiled from Authentic Sources. By Richard S. Fisher and Charles Colby. 12mo., pp. 537. New York: J. H. Colton & Co.

This is a work embracing the latest general details and statistics respecting all the countries on the continent of America. It includes also those of some of the Pacific islands. It is very full in its particulars, prepared with care, and contains a large amount of valuable information nowhere else to be found.

22.—*The Standard Pronouncing Dictionary of the French and English Languages, in two Parts.* The first part comprehending, in French and English words in common use, terms connected with science and the fine arts, historical, geographical, and biographical names, with the pronunciation according to the French Academy and the most eminent lexicographers and grammarians. The Second Part, English and French, containing all English words authorized by eminent writers, with the pronunciation according to the best authorities. The whole preceded by a practical and comprehensive system of French pronunciation. By GABRIEL SURENNE, F. A. S. E. 8vo., pp. 920. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The contents of this very valuable dictionary of the French and English languages are stated very fully in the title. Some of the prominent features of this work are the excellence of the pronunciation, the fullness and accuracy of the definitions, the very convenient style in which it is published, and its excellent typographical appearance. For Americans, it is one of the most valuable dictionaries of the French which we possess.

23.—*The Works of Joseph Addison*, including the whole contents of Bishop Hand's edition; with Letters and other Pieces not found in any previous collection; and Macaulay's Essay on his Life and Works. Edited, with Critical and Explanatory Notes, by George Washington Green. In 5 vols. Vol. 4. 12mo., pp. 589. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

The whole number of papers comprised in the Spectator is 635, of which Addison wrote 274. The present volume contains 251—all presumed to be from the pen of Mr. Addison. One volume more completes the series of papers, and beyond all question the most complete and perfect edition of the writings of that celebrated British Classic heretofore published. The style in which these volumes appear is highly creditable to the taste and enterprise of the publishers; and we have no hesitation in commending it as the best library edition extant.

24.—*Humilities;* or the Theory of Preaching. By A. VINET, D. D. Translated and Edited by Thomas H. Skinner, D. D. 12mo. New York: Ivison & Phinney.

Preaching is the subject of this original work, to the theory of which and that of secular oratory the author strictly confines himself. His work is a directory for all public speakers, and for all who desire to excel in argumentation, oratorical and elegant writing. There is scarcely a question bearing upon these subjects which is not here treated with a charm of diction, and a strength and beauty of style, for which the author is greatly distinguished.

25.—*The Invalid's Own Book:* A Collection of Recipes from various Books and various Countries. By the Honorable LADY CREST. 18mo., pp. 144. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Most books of this description have been written and published to gratify the tastes and provoke the appetites of epicures, or persons in the enjoyment of good health. This has been prepared especially for those who do not enjoy the blessing. The simplicity and the economy of its arrangement must place it within the reach of all classes of society.

26.—*Memoirs of John Abernethy, F. R. S.* With a View of his Lectures, Writings, and Character. By GEORGE MACILWAIN, F. R. C. S., author of "Medicine and Surgery," "One Inductive Science," &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 434. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author of these memoirs in early life became, through his father, a physician, an enthusiastic admirer of Abernethy; and has in the present volume drawn what appears to be a faithful portraiture of his genius as exhibited in the lectures, writings, and character, professional and private, of that eminent surgeon. It is a work that will interest the medical student.

27.—*The Religion of the Northmen.* By RUDOLPH KEYSER, Professor of History in the University of Norway. Translated by BARCLAY PENNOCK. 12mo., pp. 346. New York: Charles B. Norton.

This is a translation of Professor Keyser's work. It is designed to give more extended publicity to a series of lectures, delivered by that learned professor, on the popular life of the Northmen in Heathendom. The work is prefaced by an elaborate introduction by the translator.

28.—*An Art Student in Munich.* By ANNA MARY HOWITT. 12mo., pp. 470. Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields.

This is quite a charming volume from the pen of Miss Howitt, written in a poetical and animated style, rarely found in a personal narrative. She relates her experience while sojourning in Munich, with sketches of the every-day life of an art student in that capital. The authoress certainly inherits much of her mother's genius and faculty for composition. Her artistic criticisms evince much ability—the many incidents which are recorded, and the happy descriptive talent which she possesses, render the volume very attractive.

29.—*The Two Roads:* Or the Right and the Wrong. By JAMES KNORR. 12mo., pp. 372. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Grambo & Co. New York: O. A. Roorback.

This volume consists of tales, anecdotes, sketches and poems, designed to illustrate the evils of intemperance, and the benefit of abstenance from intoxicating drinks. It is an excellent book, and should be in the hands of old and young. It alludes to movements in many of the States touching the traffic in liquors, and commends the enactment of prohibitory laws.

30.—*The Humorous Speaker:* Being a Choice Collection of Amusing Pieces, both in Prose and Verse, Original and Selected—consisting of Dialogues, Soliloquies, Parodies, &c., designed for the use of Schools, Literary Societies, Debating Clubs, Social Circles, and Domestic Entertainment. By OLIVER OLDHAM. 12mo, pp. 408. New York: Ivison & Phinney.

This valuable collection of humorous pieces are, as the title-page sets forth, every way adapted to the use for which they are designed. Nearly all the pieces come from the pens of our best authors, full of wit and humor, without vulgarity. The volume is well deserving of an introduction into our schools, as a text-book for reading and declaiming. It is admirably calculated for that purpose, and will be found a valuable acquisition to the school library.

31.—*Sketches of the Campaign in Northern Mexico in* 1846 *and* 1847. By an Officer of the First Regiment of Ohio Volunteers. 12mo., pp. 336. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

The author of this book was an eye-witness of what he describes, and he therefore claims for it the belief of the reader. His history purports to be one of facts, collected from notes taken almost daily during the campaign. He quotes only such orders, dispatches, &c., as are necessary to elucidate the narrative, and has recited plainly and briefly those interesting events in which the troops of Ohio participated, together with such incidents of Taylor's campaign as seemed necessary to afford the general reader a clear, connected, and comprehensive view of the war in Northern Mexico.

32.—*Emblems, Divine and Moral.* By FRANCIS QUARLES. 18mo., pp. 323. New York: Carter & Brothers.

Quarles was cup-bearer to Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia, Secretary to Archbishop Usher, and chronologer to the city of London in the reign of King Charles the First. The late Rev. John Ryland styles him "a man of spiritual wit and imagination," and regards him as the first, as Herbert was the second, divine poet of the English nation. There is a quaintness in his style that will interest many, and under it lies a vein of common sense that will perhaps please more.

33.—*Lectures on the Formation of Character, Temptations, and Mission of Young Men.* By Rev. RUFUS W. CLARK, author of "Memoir of Emerson," "Heaven and its Emblems." 12mo., pp. 380. Boston: J. P. Jewett & Co.

An excellent manual for young men, replete with sound and judicious suggestions. The work is divided into three parts, and several lectures are given under each general head. Part I., Character, with lectures on Home Influence, Formation of Character, Energy of Character, and Examples of Energy. The "temptations" to which young men are exposed are set forth in six lectures, and their Mission and Duties in eight more. The lectures on "Energy of Character" and the "Principles of Trade," we commend to the particular attention of all who are starting in life, and would succeed in the mercantile or any other occupation or pursuit.