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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

DECEMBER, 1854.

Art. I.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XII.

GRAIN—PROVISIONS—WOOL AND WOOLENS—HEMP AND ITS ENCOURAGEMENT—FLAX—BOUNTY ON CANVAS—IRISH LINEN—COTTON—SILK AND WINE—TOBACCO—RICE MADE UNENUMERATED—LEATHER—HAT MANUFACTURE AND TRADE—RUM—PAPER—SHIP-BUILDING—EUROPEAN TRADE—THE ENUMERATED LIST—GREAT BRITAIN—IRELAND—SOUTH OF EUROPE—THE WEST INDIES—TRADE WITH THE FOREIGN ISLANDS—COMPLAINT OF THE BRITISH ISLANDS—REPLY OF THE CONTINENTALS.

PRODUCTS OF AGRICULTURE.

GRAIN, &c. All kinds of English grain, together with Indian corn, peas, &c., were produced in all the colonies, and formed important articles of export. Flour, meal, and biscuit were also exported in considerable amount from the middle colonies. The export of wheat, flour, and bread, &c., from Pennsylvania for the years 1729, 1730, and 1731, was as follows:—

Year.	Wheat. Bush.	Flour. Bbls.	Bread. Casks.	Value of wheat, flour, bread, and flaxseed exp'rtd. £.
1729.....	74,800	35,438	9,730	62,473
1730.....	38,643	38,570	9,622	57,500
1731.....	53,320	56,639	12,436	68,582

South Carolina exported in 1739, of Indian corn and peas, 20,165 bushels, and of potatoes 790 bushels. The price of wheat in New York in 1742 was 3s. 6d. per bushel.

A considerable quantity of grain was shipped to the West Indies, but the chief markets at this time were in Spain and Portugal. From Great Britain there was exported to these countries, together with France and Italy, yearly, about 1732, 800,000 quarters of grain, the estimated value of which, including freight, was 1,000,000*l.* The total export of wheat from England in 1735 was 153,343 quarters, upon which a bounty was paid of 38,335*l.*; and of grain of all sorts, 433,893 quarters, upon which

the bounty was 72,433*l.* The colonists lacked the encouragement of such a bounty upon the exportation of their cereals.

The French had cleared much of the fertile lands around the lakes, and were raising there plentiful crops of wheat, which they designed to make an article of export, by way of the Mississippi, to their sugar colonies.

PROVISIONS. The production and export of various kinds of provisions was common to all the colonies, but the middle colonies were in the lead in this branch. Pennsylvania exported barreled beef and pork, bacon, hams, butter, cheese, &c. For provisions and liquors, she received yearly from the Dutch island of Curacoa, 4,000 to 6,000 pistoles. The trade of New Jersey was chiefly in provisions, shipped through Pennsylvania and New York. New England, beside those produced by herself, bought large quantities from the other colonies.

The great markets were the South of Europe and the English and foreign West Indies. The Northern colonies sent large amounts also to the Dutch colonies in South America—Surinam, Essequibo, &c.

HORSES AND OXEN were exported in large numbers from the Northern and Middle colonies to the West Indies, being raised expressly for that business.

WOOL was raised to some extent in all the colonies. In New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and in Somerset county, Maryland, there were some coarse woolen manufactures; but this was all for private use. The enterprise had started and made most progress in Massachusetts, but was declining about 1730, the country people, who had formerly made most of their clothing, now using British woolens for more than two-thirds their whole consumption, these being cheaper than the home-made cloth. The Board of Trade admit the raising of sheep to be essential to the colonial farmers. They also pronounced the wool of Virginia and Maryland equal to the best English qualities.

There were computed to be, in 1739, employed in the woolen manufactures of Great Britain 1,500,000 people, the average earnings per day of each individual being sixpence. With operatives so paid to compete with, it is no wonder that family weaving decayed in New England.

HEMP. The act of Parliament, in 1721, to encourage naval stores, also continued for sixteen years the existing premium of 6*l.* a ton upon hemp raised in and imported from the colonies, and made the importation free of all customs whatever. The Commissioners of the Navy were to have pre-emption of the hemp so imported for 20 days after landing.

In 1730 there was imported 50 cwt. of hemp from New England and Carolina, and 3 cwt. from Virginia, which is described as an entirely *new* export of those colonies. Pennsylvania, about 1730, encouraged the production of hemp by a bounty of 1½d. per lb. additional to that of the Parliament.

The policy of further encouragement was much discussed in England about 1737. The merchants petitioned for the prohibition of foreign hemp, declaring if it had been done before, America, under the existing bounty, would have been able to supply Great Britain with all the hemp she needed. The effort failed, along with the attempt to offer encouragements to the production of iron in the colonies.

FLAX was raised, like hemp, in all the colonies, and in the Southern ones it was of excellent quality. Linen cloth had been to some extent manufactured, especially in Massachusetts, but was sharing the fate of the

woolen manufacture, and from the same cause, except in New Hampshire, where, from the large immigration of Irish people, it was continually growing. The Massachusetts General Court, before 1732, offered a bounty of 30s. upon every piece of duck and canvas made in that province, which did not particularly please the Board of Trade and Plantations. The brown-holland made there was still felt upon the export thither of the calicoes and some other goods of the East India Company. Small quantities of sheeting and shirting were made of a mixture of cotton and linen, the former being obtained from the West Indies.

A great part of the linen used in the colonies were imports from Ireland. The linen manufacture of that kingdom had progressed with astonishing rapidity. In 1688, at William the Third's accession, the value of linen exported from Ireland was not above 6,000*l.*; by 1740 it had risen to 600,000*l.* annually. Though England discouraged the manufacture in the colonies, she could not herself at all supply them. The imports into London of linen from Holland, Germany, &c., in 1731, were 14,000,000 ells, the greatest part of which was re-exported to the colonies. The interest of the shipping employed in the transportation was her main concern in this point.

Cotton, about 1730, was an article of export from Jamaica; but the French islands far excelled the English ones in its production. Of St. Domingo it was a staple export. Large quantities of cotton-wool were exported to various parts of Europe from thence, and some amount also to the English continental colonies.

In 1734 the Georgia Trustees sent out a paper of cotton-seed presented them by a gentleman in England. Cotton was much planted in that colony about 1740, and also in the French colony of Louisiana.

About 1735 the culture commenced in Surinam.

In 1727 Manchester, England, had a population of about 50,000, and had grown up by the cotton manufacture, the material being derived mostly from the East India Company's trade.

In 1730, Mr. Wyatt first spun cotton yarn by machinery.

In 1741 there was imported into England 1,900,000 lbs. raw cotton, and in 1742 the first cotton mill was set up in Birmingham, the motive power being horses and mules. So late as 1760 the total value of cotton goods manufactured yearly in Great Britain was but 200,000*l.*

The cotton culture of Louisiana was greatly benefited by the invention of a cotton-gin by M. Dubreuil in 1742.

Silk and Wine. These articles were imported by New England in considerable quantities from the French islands, whither they were brought from France. The Georgia Company endeavored their cultivation from the outset, but though some progress was made, the effort succeeded little better than it had before done in some of the other colonies. In 1721 Parliament passed an act, granting a bounty of 6d. to 4s. per lb. on the export of the various qualities of silk manufactured in Great Britain, the manufacture having, under efficient encouragements, been now "brought to perfection" there.

Tobacco. The average export of tobacco to England from Maryland and Virginia in this period, was about 60,000 hhds., or 36,000,000 lbs. yearly, of the value, at 2½d. per lb., of 375,000*l.* sterling. The profits to England on the freightage between that country and the colonies, employing about 124,000 tons of shipping, was 90,000*l.*; and from the distribu-

tion of this import for the uses of her own people and of Europe, a profit was derived of over double the original value. The English revenue derived 2s. per hhd. from the import. The first price had been reduced so low that the profits of the planters were very small.

Chalmers states that in 1732 Virginia petitioned Parliament for liberty to have her tobacco bonded in warehouse, but their object was defeated by the opposition of the English tobacco factors. The privilege denied to subjects, was granted after they became foreigners.

The Legislature of Maryland, in 1732, made tobacco a legal tender at one penny per lb. Indian corn was alsomade a tender at twenty-five pence a bushel.

A little tobacco was raised in Pennsylvania and Connecticut, and in other colonies. The French had also introduced its culture into Louisiana.

Rice. The export of rice from South Carolina for the year 1724 was 18,000 bbls.; for the ten years ending 1728, it was 26,488 bbls., or about 44,081 tons.

In 1730 Parliament took rice out of the list of enumerated articles, and permitted it to be exported from Carolina direct to any part of Europe south of Cape Finisterre; that is, to all places below France, or on the Mediterranean. It was considered rice would not bear the expense of being bonded in England and re-shipped. The export was to be in British vessels navigated according to law. The same privilege was extended to Georgia in 1735.

In consequence of this act, the rice of America soon superesed that of Verona and Egypt wherever they came in competition. The import into Spain and Portugal from Venice was entirely stopped. In 1731 South Carolina exported 41,597 bbls. rice; in 1739 the amount was 71,484 bbls.; and in 1740 it was 91,110 bbls. The market of Europe became overstocked, the price fell, and the profits of the grower became very small.

Miscellaneous. Among other articles of export coming under this head, were sassafras—of such repute at the time of the early adventures to America—of which South Carolina exported 27 tons in 1733; snake-root, and other medicinal herbs and drugs; beeswax, of which Virginia exported 156 quintals in 1730; apples, cider, &c.

PRODUCTS OF MANUFACTURES.

These we have alluded to wherever the raw material has come under any of the preceding heads.

In 1732 the Board of Trade and Plantations voluntarily took up the consideration of colonial manufactures, and found that while not generally very forward, they had in some points been carried to an extent quite injurious to the interests of British manufactures, and that there was, moreover, a strong ambition in some colonies, New England especially, to establish a large manufacturing interest. They earnestly advise Parliament to withdraw them from this object, by potential encouragements to other pursuits. Manufactures were very few in the middle colonies, and scarcely existed in the southern ones.

Leather. Most of the leather used in Massachusetts was made in that colony, and it was also a considerable article of export. There were a few tanneries in Connecticut. Pennsylvania exported tanned hides; and

from South Carolina there were sent, in 1739, of the same article, 1,535 hides.

HATS. Within a few years the manufacture of fur hats had made such progress in New England, as to cut off the British export thither, and also to deprive them of a considerable part of their market in the West Indies and the south of Europe. The Board of Trade represented this matter to Parliament in 1732, and an act was at once passed prohibiting, under heavy penalty, the export of hats or felts from the colonies to any foreign parts, forbidding also the manufacture of hats in the colonies by any who have not *served an apprenticeship of seven years*, and allowing but *two apprentices* at one time, and *no negro* to be employed by any hatter. Had the Americans not been restrained in this manufacture, says Anderson, "they would soon have supplied the world with hats," which, of course, would have been a great catastrophe to England, who could not supply one-half the world.

SPIRITS. The manufacture of Rum had grown up in New England since the peace of 1713, upon the change in the exportation of Jamaica rum occasioned by its improvement, from the colonies to England. The molasses was brought therefor from the foreign islands, and it is said 20,000 hogsheads, or 1,260,000 gallons of rum were made at this time at Boston in a single year from French molasses. This liquor was used in the Indian and African trades and the fisheries.

PAPER. In 1728, Daniel Henchman and others, desiring to commence the manufacture of Paper in Massachusetts, the General Court granted them the right of manufacture, on condition of making within the first fifteen months 140 reams of brown, and 60 reams of printing paper. The mill was set up in 1729, and produced paper in the two or three years next succeeding to the value of about $1,000 yearly. It was complained of, together with the act of encouragement, to the Board of Trade, who mentioned both in their report of 1732 as interfering with the profit of the British merchant in the trade of foreign paper, that being almost the only kind sent to the colonies. Thus did England vitiate her protective principle. The tendency of encouraging *all* her interests, as illustrated in this effort to benefit the British carrier, was to bring her directly back from her starting-point—that is, to unqualified free trade.

SHIP-BUILDING had become a very prominent interest of New England. Beside their own use, great numbers of vessels were built for England, and for clandestine sale to the French and Spanish West Indies. In 1741 there were on the stocks in Massachusetts about forty topsail vessels of 7,000 tons burden.

Pennsylvania appears to have entered the business about 1720. In 1724 were built there 19 vessels, of 954 tons. At 1732, about 6,000 tons are said to have been built yearly in that province for its own use, and about 2,000 tons to sell in the French islands.

A few vessels were built at this time in New York, and some in Virginia also, but the latter were wholly by and for English merchants. Beverley, in his account of Virginia in 1722, states that the colony rather discouraged such undertakings among its own people.

MISCELLANEOUS. Among the exports of Pennsylvania were starch, soap, myrtle-wax, and tallow candles, linseed-oil, hair-powder, strong beer, &c. Many minor manufactures were also made for home use and for the outward and Indian trades, in Massachusetts, and some in New York.

Let us now see with what countries and places the outward trade of the colonies connected them, and to what extent:—

European Trade Generally. About one-half of the shipping of New England, say 20,000 tons, was at this time employed in the Commerce with Europe, which was almost or entirely confined to Great Britain, Ireland, and the southern countries.

The *enumerated* articles, or such as were allowed export to the European continent only by a re-shipment from England, were, of the produce of the continental colonies, tobacco, furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, masts, yards, bowsprits, and copper ore; and of the English islands, the same articles, so far as produced by them, and sugar, molasses, cotton-wool, indigo, dyeing-woods, ginger.

Pennsylvania, next to England, carried on the largest European trade in her own vessels.

Great Britain. The trade of Virginia and Maryland with other places than England was inconsiderable. The Northern colonies eagerly sought to extend their intercourse as much as possible; yet the whole proceeds of their Commerce with all parts of the world eventually centered in Great Britain, and so naturally, that no restrictions were needed to bring it there. The manufactures and many other goods which the colonists needed for their own use, and which were sought by those with whom they traded elsewhere, could, generally, be nowhere else so cheaply and so favorably obtained as from Great Britain. The perception that all other colonial trade was but accessary to their British trade, though not suggesting to the English government its proper policy toward the colonies, yet induced the disregard of many irregularities and positive violations of law upon their part, which would not have been tolerated had not Britain been found to share largely in the gains resulting.

The colonies obtained from England all manner of wearing apparel, of woolen, linen, silk, &c.; manufactures of iron, brass, copper, and other metals; household, office, and other furniture; all kinds of domestic utensils; paper, books, &c. Almost every kind of manufacture, whether of use, ornament, or luxury, except the most ordinary and less transportable kinds, was included.

Beside articles of British origin, great supplies came through this channel, of the goods of Holland, Germany, and other parts of the north of Europe, of the East Indies, and of China. Even coal was, in 1742, imported into New York from England as a cheaper fuel than wood, with which the province abounded. New England supplied her own wants to a far greater degree than any other portion of the British colonies, yet her ability in that respect was very limited. According to a pamphlet published in England in 1730, the yearly imports of the several colonies from Great Britain were about as follows:—

CONTINENTAL COLONIES.		WEST INDIES.	
New England	£400,000	Jamaica	£147,700
New York	150,000	Other British West Indies	92,300
Pennsylvania	150,000		
Maryland and Virginia	375,000	Total	£240,000
Carolina	60,000		1,135,000
Total	£1,135,000	Total to British America	£1,375,000

A large portion of the imports into New England must have been indi-

rect, as that section was less provided than the others with articles adapted for direct trade with England, and had to avail itself of their products and of exchanges with other places to make up the payment for its British purchases. But there is much discrepancy between the whole statement and others of the same period.

The author above alluded to concludes that through her trade with them, exclusive of the slave traffic, Great Britain gained yearly from her colonies in America 1,000,000*l.*, and Anderson conceives the profit to be still greater. By her colonies, England employed and maintained 18,000 seamen and fishermen. France employed by her fishing colonies alone about 30,000 seamen.

Ireland. We have noticed the export of Irish linens to the colonies. The latter carried on much illicit trade with Ireland, and, the Board of Trade complain, had, by the clandestine carriage thither of sugar from the British and other islands, nearly excluded England from the trade between Ireland and the West Indies.

In 1732 there arrived in Pennsylvania from Ireland, 14 vessels; cleared for Ireland, 23.

In 1731, the act passed under William III., prohibiting the importation of any American goods into Ireland, unless first landed in England, was so far amended or explained as to permit the importation in British ships of *unenumerated* articles, which was simply putting Ireland, in regard to the trade of America, upon the level of *foreign nations*. As there were different interpretations regarding the intention of that law, it was until now doubtful which was Ireland's real position. If totally excluded from direct intercourse with America, she occupied the attitude neither of a colony of England nor of a distinct power. The policy of England, meanwhile, toward this part of the empire seems to have been shaped to the *mixed* understandings of the law in question.

Spain, Portugal, and Italy. We have noticed the trade to these countries, extending also to the Azores, Madeira, Canary, and Cape de Verde Islands, dependencies of the former two, in which New England, Pennsylvania, and South Carolina, were mainly concerned. This trade was of a most lucrative character. In exchange for their fish, grain, rice, provisions, staves, lumber, &c., and for the vessels, often, of New England and Pennsylvania, the colonists received wines, brandies, and other spirits, olives and olive oil, raisins, figs, currants, nuts, silks, straw hats and bonnets, and other of the rich products and costly manufactures of those countries. The colonial vessels often returned by way of England, exchanging their valuable cargoes there for British and continental manufactures and East India goods.

The West Indies—English, French, Dutch, &c. The importance of the West India trade was perpetually augmenting with the natural development of the colonies and islands. All the colonies enlarged their trade thither except Virginia and Maryland, which, at this time, had been in a degree pushed out of a traffic to the Leeward Islands by New England, New York, and Carolina. They, however, obtained as much of the products of the West Indies as they required, by the exchange of wool and other articles with Pennsylvania and other colonies engaged in a coast trade with them.

The ships of New England had got into the practice of loading at Jamaica directly for England, thus sharing with the English their carefully

guarded carrying business. Pennsylvania also carried sugars to England by the indirect voyage.

The great bulk of the sugar of the West Indies was carried to Europe. The molasses, so far as exported in its raw shape, was carried mostly to the English continental colonies, where the greater part of it was manufactured into rum.

The arrivals and clearances at Philadelphia, to and from the chief English islands, were, in 1735, as follows:—

	Antigua.	Barbadoes.	Jamaica.	St. Christopher.	Total.
Arrived	20	19	9	9	57
Cleared	20	26	16	9	71

But it was found the Commerce of the colonists was being rapidly withdrawn from the English to the foreign islands. Immediately after the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, although one of the conditions of that treaty on the part of England and France was non-intercoursee between any subjects of one with the outward possessions of the other, an active trade had sprung up between New England and the French islands, in which the other northern colonies soon joined. This contraband traffic extended as well to the Dutch islands, and to their colony on the continent at Guiana. All the foreign West Indies, indeed, were embraced, though it appears that Pennsylvania had no intercourse with the Spanish islands. The colonists thus greatly extended the market for their provisions, fish, lumber, grain, &c., and found a large and ready sale for horses and oxen, which they could raise so easily, but for which there had before been little demand. English manufactures were also carried there. The returns from the French islands were vast quantities of molasses, and less quantities of sugar and rum. Large amounts of silver were also obtained, beside indigo, cacao, coffee, ginger, cotton, and other products. Considerable amounts of French manufactures were also said to be imported thence. From Surinam and the other Dutch possessions, sugar, molasses, and rum were brought in great quantity. The Island of Curacoa alone paid Pennsylvania, for provisions and liquors, about 4,000 pistoles yearly.

The northern colonists were not the only active contrabandists in the West Indies. A general intercourse prevailed between all the foreign islands, and by this means the products of all could easily be obtained by the traders of any nation, and the merchandises of any nation obtained by any of the islands. The free islands greatly facilitated these operations, and it was almost impossible to put in full force in any part of the West Indies, or the near portions of the continent, the various regulations of exclusion set up by the powers there in leading dominion. With the magnitude and tangible character of the interests concerned, those restrictions were certainly effective in directing the course of a vast bulk of the West India trade; but the fragment which escaped the supervisory effort was still an immense interest. The Dutch and Yankees took the lead in this illicit Commerce. It was shared in by the vessels of England to some extent, and by those of almost all commercial nations.

The French, indeed, were not anxious to cut off a trade so beneficial to their islands. The contrabandists were allowed to visit their colonies direct; and while they might at any time seize all the vessels of English subjects found there, under the treaty of Utrecht, it was considered a better policy to give them all possible, though not open, encouragement.

The northern colonists found this trade more profitable than their legit-

imate intercourse with the British Islands. Though exposed to some risks, it was of course, as regards duties and other expensive regulations, mainly free. The products of the foreign islands were also cheaper than those of the English, and their wants were more varied and extensive, as the possessor nations were less able than England to supply of themselves the needs of a colony.

But this trade was made in a manner necessary to New England by the direction which of late had been given an important part of the trade of Jamaica and the other English islands. Until about 1690 molasses was entirely wasted in Jamaica; but they at length learned from the Barbadians to convert it into rum. The northern colonies, at first, took all that was made in the English islands; but they soon learned to make it so well, that it answered better to send to England, and the price was raised so high, that thenceforth scarcely any of it was taken by New England. This put the latter upon the manufacture herself, to effect which she was obliged to import molasses from the French islands. Until this time, these had wasted their molasses, as the Jamaicans used to, not being permitted to make it into rum, on account of the interference this would occasion with the sale, in the islands and elsewhere, of French brandies.

Under the stimulus communicated by this Commerce, and the industry of their inhabitants, the French islands started forward with unexampled strides of prosperity. In 1726 the French government had the wisdom to allow the exportation of their products *direct* to other parts of Europe; while England still forced a *double* voyage upon the shipments from her islands for Europe. At about the same time, England had begun to feel the effect of the development of her enemy's colonies in the limitation of the demand for her own colonial sugar. The French rapidly excluded her from the markets she had before almost totally supplied, and in a few years she was almost limited to the supply of her own immediate consumption, even Ireland depending upon the vessels of the northern colonies instead of the English vessels.

According to the tables of the Abbe Raynal, the produce of the French part of Hispaniola was, about 1730, of more value than that of all the English islands, and of eighteen times the amount of that of Cuba. The exports of Martinico amounted to 660,000*l.* sterling. In 1742 the former produced 848,000 cwt. of sugar; and the latter, with the other French islands, 622,500 cwt., a total of 1,470,500 cwt.

The Dutch colonies at Surinam, Essequibo, and in the Archipelago, had also prospered in a remarkable manner, greatly augmenting their products of sugar, molasses, and rum.

The decline of their trade with the northern colonies, and the loss of their European markets, very materially affected the prosperity of the English islands. No trading communities are so susceptible to influences of this kind as are sugar-planting countries. Their productions fell off, and the population of some of them diminished. Of the trade remaining with the northern colonies, the character was materially changed. Instead of taking the products of the islands altogether in payment of the necessaries furnished them, as formerly, the North Americans demanded, and for about half their sales received specie, and either returned with this, or proceeded to the French islands and bought with it their productions.

The total product of sugar in the British islands, about 1730, was 85,000 hhds., or 1,020,000 cwt., of which Great Britain herself consumed

840,000 cwt. Her annual import from Jamaica alone was, in the average of the years 1730–4, per year 539,420*l.*; and her export thither, 147,675*l.* To all her sugar colonies her yearly export was about 240,000*l.* In 1742 she imported from her islands 60,950 hhds. sugar, and the export to the other colonies was 5,000 more—a total of 65,950 hhds., or 791,400 cwt. The total re-exportation from England in 1742 was but 60,000 cwt.*

Alarmed by the decline of their interests, the British islands, which had complained of the trade of New England with the French islands so early as 1715, united in 1731 in an urgent appeal to the home government for the repression of this illicit intercourse. The matter was referred to the examination of the ever-watchful Lords Commissioners of Trade and Plantations, who, viewing the whole condition of the whole colonial empire, endorsed the complaints of the sugar planters. The subject was also freely discussed in Parliament. On the part of the planters, was represented as the effects of the irregularity, the lamentable decay of their interests, the advance of the foreign islands, the enhanced price of negroes thereby occasioned, the use of French manufactures by the northern colonies in lieu of British, &c.

The continental provinces were assumed to be only beneficial to England, as the sources whence the sugar colonies were to derive their chief supplies of certain necessary articles, to effect which result their trade in that quarter must be confined to the said islands. They must be merely attendants upon the concerns of the sugar growers. The colonies for whom this position was proposed, with their advocates, replied, that all the products of the British islands were taken off by Great Britain and the continental colonies; that the British islands could not supply the great amount of molasses and rum required in the fisheries and Indian trade of the northern colonies; and that if the trade with the French islands were cut off or heavily taxed, these pursuits could not possibly be maintained; that the Indian trade alone, by its consumption of British manufactures, furnished employment to a larger number of persons in Great Britain than the whole interest of the sugar islands could do; that these colonies gave employment in their trade to ten British ships for every one employed by the sugar islands; that if debarred from the trade to the foreign islands, the colonies would suffer the loss of employment for several thousand tons of shipping; that the French islands would still obtain provisions and lumber from the Louisiana and Florida settlements, which would thus be rapidly built up, to the danger of the English colonies, and horses from the Dutch Island of Curacoa, or mules from Mexico or New Andalusia; that the loss of the profits from the French trade, hitherto remitted to Great Britain, must further limit their use of British manufactures; that the measure would lead to a great increase of French shipping, as they would then transport all their molasses and rum to Europe. Finally, it would give an unfair and dangerous monopoly to the British sugar planters, and would enable them to advance enormously the prices of their products.

The reason of the embarrassment of the British islands, they said, instead of the causes alleged, was simply the notorious indolence and extrav-

* It may be mentioned, as showing the greater cost of retaining possession of, and maintaining quiet within the British West Indies, over the continental colonies, that while the latter were left to their own resources usually, Jamaica had eight companies of king's troops stationed there, and six forts, and Barbadoes had twenty-one forts and twenty-six batteries, mounting four hundred and sixty-three pieces of cannon.

agance of the planters; while the prosperity of the French and Dutch islands was attributable to the industry and frugality of their inhabitants, together with a lower rate of taxes.

They predicted the failure of any expectations of benefit to either Great Britain or her sugar colonies from restricting the Commerce of the other portion of her provincial dominions.

Art. II.—A STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.

NUMBER I.

GENERAL ASPECT—CENTRAL POSITION OF ILLINOIS—TERRITORIAL EXTENT OF SEVEN LARGEST STATES—COMPARED WITH OTHER STATES AND EUROPEAN COUNTRIES—MANUFACTURES OF RHODE ISLAND AND SOUTH CAROLINA COMPARED—MISSISSIPPI VALLEY—RIVERS—TEMPERATURE—ADVANTAGES OF LOCATION OF ILLINOIS, ETC.; ETC.

THE United States, occupying the middle portion of North America, and stretching across the continent 2,900 miles, and containing 3,260,000 square miles, is divided into three distinct regions, the Atlantic slope, the Valley of the Mississippi, which may be considered as extending from the Alleghanies to the lofty summits of the Rocky Mountains, and the transmontane, or country lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific ocean. In these grand divisions, considered without reference to the North or South, there is every variety of soil, climate, production and scenery—magnificent rivers, great inland seas, inexhaustible agricultural and mineral resources, and all the elements of national wealth, independence and greatness. The Confederacy enjoys, by an extended coast of about 3,000 miles on the East and South, every facility for commercial intercourse with Europe, Mexico and the Atlantic States of South America, and by a sea-coast of something over 1,500 miles on the Pacific, like facilities of free intercourse with Asia and all that portion of the globe. Commercial men esteem it a settled question that the largest part of what has been known for so many ages as the Eastern trade, will be diverted to our western shore and across the continent through the United States. The rapid settlement of California and Australia, with their increasing commercial relations, and those of all the countries lying on both sides of the Pacific, taken in connection with the onward progress of improvements in this country, lead unerringly to this conclusion. It is difficult to estimate the advantages which will accrue to the United States from such a trade, and the splendid destiny of a country with such vast resources, and by whose enlightened policy every quarter of the globe is made to contribute to its substantial wealth, advancement and prosperity.

The State of Illinois is in the centre, or I should rather say is centrally situated in this wide-spread country, and from the peculiar advantages of her position enjoys the trade of an immense region, and free, easy and natural means of communication with almost every part of the Union. Her north-eastern boundary for fifty miles is upon Lake Michigan, which gives her a valuable trade with the Lake country of the North and the Canadas, and the means of communicating through the Saint Lawrence with all the world.

As a physical section Illinois occupies the lower section of an inclined

plane of which Lake Michigan and both its shores are the higher sections. This plane, falling off from its upper sections, embraces much the larger part of the State of Indiana. The lowest section of the plain is at Cairo, which is 340 feet above tide-water in the Gulf of Mexico. The extreme arable elevation of the State may be stated as 800 feet above tide-water, and the mean hight of 550 feet. The periphery of the State is 1,160 miles, two-thirds of which is made by navigable streams. Her greatest length, which is on the meridian line of Cairo, is 378 miles, and her greatest width, which occurs on the parallel of Danville, is 212 miles, and she contains area of 55,405 square miles. This gives her, as to territorial extent, the eighth rank among the States of the Union. The seven larger States are :—

	Square miles.		Square miles.
Virginia, whose area is.....	61,852	Michigan	56,243
Georgia	58,000	California.....	188,981
Florida.....	59,268	Texas	237,321
Missouri....	67,380		

She is more than forty-two times larger than Rhode Island, and is but 10,720 square miles less in extent than the six New England States. She is then, one of the first States of our government in size, and will occupy among those States a more prominent position when California shall have been divided, of which there is very little doubt, and when five new States have been erected out of the domain of Texas, for which provision was made in the joint resolutions of annexation. Her influence in the national councils will always be felt—a leading State, her voice will always be heard with interest and respect.

Considered with reference to European powers, she has 5,018 square miles more of territory than England, is equal in extent to the united territories of Holland, Belgium and Portugal, and is more than twice as large as Denmark, including Holstein and Luneburgh. She only ceases to be in extent a great empire when compared with such colossal powers as our whole Union of States, Russia, France and governments of similar size. But it has been well said, " It is not the immense extent of a territory, happily, which constitutes the grandeur of a State ; for example, the United provinces of Holland, after having thrown off the yoke of Philip II., the most powerful king of his age, sustained with advantage a contest against Louis XIV., and having conquered vast distant provinces, has since given a new destiny and high prosperity to a small kingdom. See also England, who started out with a territory of less than 150,000 kilom.: (square) and now rules over millions."

This fact is so well established as scarcely to justify being illustrated, but the remarkable results which have been obtained by the indomitable enterprise and industry of the people in an inhospitable climate and upon a flinty soil, as contrasted with those obtained in a genial climate and on a generous soil, will justify the introduction of the following facts as to the States of Rhode Island and South Carolina, and settle beyond a cavil or a doubt the true grounds upon which a state must rely for its greatness. The manufactures of Rhode Island are more valuable than the manufactures and cotton of South Carolina. Thus—

Rhode Island manufactures	$8,640,626
South Carolina "	2,248,915
South Carolina raises cotton to value of.....	4,628,270

The population of Rhode Island is but 147,545, while that of South Carolina is 668,507. The area of Rhode Island is but 1,306 square miles, while that of South Carolina is 29,000!

Illinois is traversed by no ranges of hills or mountains, and is, with the two exceptions of Delaware and Louisiana, the most level of the United States. The southern portion, however, is hilly, and there are many high and abrupt bluffs upon the Illinois and Mississippi rivers. Prairies are not so numerous or extensive east of the Mississippi as west, south of the Ohio as north, but Illinois is emphatically a Prairie State. There is but one prairie west of the Mississippi larger than Grand Prairie in this State, none of greater fertility. This prairie has its southern commencement in Jackson county, and extends, varying in width from one to twelve miles, north through the counties of Perry, Washington, Jefferson, Marion, Fayette, Effingham, Cumberland, Coles, Champaign and Iroquois, where it connects with the prairies that project east from the Illinois river. Prairie is a French word signifying a meadow or pasture ground. In the West they are divided into those that are flat and those that are rolling. The soil of both is deep, friable, and of unexampled fertility. The flat present in summer an expanse of green grass as boundless as the ocean, and the effect is magnificent when the tall grass is bent to and fro by the winds. Like all plains they are monotonous, and especially desolate and dreary when covered with snow or blackened by recent conflagration. Their aspect is varied and even picturesque, when there is a large growth of uneven and scattered timber, following the streams that pass through them, which creates the impression that there are inequalities of surface.

The rolling prairies as they spread out before you, in their vastness resemble the waves of the ocean after a storm. Between the "swells," which vary in hight from twenty to sixty feet, there are sloughs, or sections of wet and marshy grounds—when ditched a running stream is produced and the ground is ready for the plow. For the most part they are interspersed with woodlands or solitary clumps of trees, which give them a diversified and beautiful appearance. They are covered during the spring and summer with an endless variety of bright and beautiful flowers. There have been many conjectures and theories as to the manner in which the prairies were formed. The indications are very conclusive that Illinois was once covered with water—was once the bottom of a great lake. The writer of the following lines has fallen, in my opinion, upon the true origin of the rich alluvions of the Mississippi valley and the contiguous prairies."

"There is no question that the richest soil in the United States is to be found in the Mississippi valley. There is not, as in so many other cases, a thin covering over the clay, the sand, the gravel, the chalk or the rock, but the deposit of ages, effected by the constant operation of mighty agencies. In some cases the rich black mould is found as much as a hundred feet deep, and when turned up is as light and free as the driven snow. The pedestrian as he walks over it can in most instances sink his cane to the very head of it. Nor is it any wonder that it should be found so deep, when we consider that the vast desert which intervenes between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains has been gradually despoiled, that this rich deposit should be made in the lower portions of the valley. The great trail which commencing some hundreds of miles to the west of the river slopes gently up toward the mountains, has been gradually denuded of its soil, nothing being now left upon it but the dry sand, through which the rocks project as the bones sometimes protrude through the skin, the whole looking like the cadaver of what was once a fertile region."

The entire northern portion of the State is composed of rolling prairies, dispersed with timber. The State of Illinois has been divided and arranged under three general heads: First, the alluvions of the rivers, which are from one to eight miles in width, in some places elevated and in others low and subject to inundation. They consist of an intermixture of wood and prairie. The most remarkable of these alluvions from its extent and the depth of its soil is known as the American bottom, which name it derived from having once been the western boundary of the United States. It commences at the mouth of the Kaskaskia river and runs up the Mississippi between 80 and 100 miles to the mouth of the Missouri. It is bounded on the east by a continuous bluff varying in hight from 50 to 200 feet. Its area is 450 square miles, or 288,000 square acres. Along the bank of the Mississippi there is a growth of timber, with an exceedingly thick undergrowth from a half to two miles in width. Second; after leaving the alluvions and the rising bluffs that bind them, there is a tract of level country elevated from 50 to 100 feet, which is sometimes called table land. The greater proportion of this is called prairie, which is sometimes dry and at others wet and marshy, depending on the convexity or concavity of the surface. Third; the hilly and broken sections, consisting of intermixtures of woods and prairies, the soil in places being indifferent, as in portions of Fayette and Clark counties. Cook county deserves to be mentioned in this connection, as it neither, properly speaking, is prairie or alluvion, and does not come under the third general head in the foregoing classification. It is more level than the genuine prairie, less fertile, owing to the presence of large quantities of sand, and resembles the low districts or salt marshes on the sea-coast. The nature of the soil and the traces left for some distance in the interior, have led to the conclusion that the lake at no distant day swept over it. Though these lands be not of equal fertility with others in the State, they have been successfully reduced into cultivation and are highly productive.

The alluvions constitute a considerable part of the territory of the State, as may be readily conjectured from the number of streams. It is a source of regret that there is no sufficient data for ascertaining their exact extent, but a tolerably correct idea will be derived from a view of the large number of rivers in the State. Much of the largest of these is the Illinois, an Indian name signifying THE RIVER OF MEN. It is formed by the Des Plaines and Kankakee some fifty miles southwest of Chicago, and after pursuing a course in this direction 500 miles empties into the Mississippi 25 miles above the mouth of the Missouri. The current below the mouth of the Vermillion is gentle, the bed is wide and deep, and the navigation good during the whole summer. It spreads out into a beautiful lake called Lake Peoria, about 200 miles from its mouth. The banks are uniformly low to the mouth of Spoon river. The alluvions are bounded by high bluffs consisting of perpendicular ledges of rocks from 200 to 300 feet in hight.

It receives the Fox, Aux Sable, Little Vermillion rivers, and Crooked-creek and other streams of less note from the north, and the Vermillion, Mackinaw, Sangamon and other streams from the south.

The Fox river is a clear and beautiful stream which rises near Lake Michigan and pursues a southwest course to the Illinois.

The Kankakee is a large and navigable stream, but near the State line it loses itself in a marsh.

Rock river rises in Wisconsin and pursues a westerly course 300 miles, emptying into the Mississippi 300 miles above the mouth of the Illinois. It is a beautiful stream, and the lands upon it are very fertile.

The Kaskaskia is a large stream rising in the south-eastern part of the State, near the head waters of the Embarras, and runs in a south-western direction and enters the Mississippi about 100 miles above the Ohio. It has numerous tributaries, of which the principal are Lost, Crooked, Elk-horn and Plumb creeks, Fort river, Hurricane fork, Shoal, Sugar, Silver, Richland and Horse creeks. The river is navigable 150 miles to Vandalia in high water. Its banks and those of its tributaries are generally fertile. The Little Wabash has a course of 150 miles. The banks are very fertile, but subject to excessive inundations. The country between it and Skillet fork is particularly liable to inundation, and is in many places low and marshy, so that the water remains upon it during the whole season. In autumn the stream is very low and sluggish.

The Embarras River is a navigable stream, the banks of which are flat and subject to inundation, but very fertile and heavily timbered. Spoon River is a large and beautiful stream. The land on this river is high and undulating, well watered, and handsomely diversified with timber and prairie. It is considered one of the most eligible sections in the northern part of the State.

The Sangamon is a large stream, emptying into the Illinois, 130 miles above its mouth. It is about 150 miles in length. The lands bordering on it and its tributaries are uncommonly fertile.

The Big Muddy runs through a fine prairie country. It is navigable about fifty miles, and empties into the Mississippi about sixty miles above its junction with the Ohio.

In addition to these streams, there are one hundred and ten or twenty others not enumerated, whose banks are alluvial deposits. It is safe to affirm that there is not in this country a territory of similar extent and equal fertility, nor is there on the face of the globe any like quantity of land of greater resources. This fact will be fully demonstrated in a future number, by a reference to its productions, agricultural and mineral.

Lying between latitudes 37 deg. and 42 deg. 30 min. north, and longitudes 87 deg. 49 min. and 91 deg. 28 min. from Greenwich, Illinois has a climate differing with the different parts of the State. Every flat country is subject to extremes of temperature, unless it be surrounded by modifying circumstances. This is the case with Illinois. The causes which operate to correct the extremes of weather in the State are two great ranges of mountains on either side of the Mississippi Valley and the chain of lakes extending to the frozen regions of the North.

In a State of such size, stretching through five degrees of latitude, there is a wide difference between the climate of the north and south. In southern Illinois the climate is exceedingly mild and pleasant, except for a short time in summer, when the sun is very powerful and the heat extremely enervating. Fruits, wines, and almost every production of the soil which delights in a warm climate, flourish here. In middle Illinois the climate is delightful, owing to the exhilarating breezes which prevail during the whole summer from the northwest. During the most oppressive weather of the summer, the nights are cool and bracing—the thermometer sinking at night to sixty deg. and frequently below, when during the day it has stood as high as 96 deg. and 100 deg.

The following results, drawn from three years' observations made upon the state of the thermometer near the center of the State, furnish a correct idea of the temperature through the entire year for this region :—

Mean temperature for the 1st year	55° 52′
" " 2d year	56° 98′
" " 3d year	56° 18′
Mean temperature for the three years	56¼

MEAN TEMPERATURE FOR EACH MONTH DURING THE ABOVE YEARS :—

January	30° 62′	May	62° 66′	September	70° 10′
February	38° 65′	June	74° 47′	October	59° 00′
March	43° 13′	July	78° 66′	November	53° 63′
April	58° 47′	August	72° 88′	December	34° 33′

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENT WILL SHOW THE ANNUAL RANGE OF THE THERMOMETER :—

1st year—Lowest	5° below zero.	Highest 101°	Range 96°
2d year—Lowest	8° below zero.	Highest 96°	Range 88°
3d year—Lowest	6° below zero.	Highest 100°	Range 94°

THE AVERAGE MONTHLY RANGE DURING THESE YEARS IS AS FOLLOWS :—

	Deg.		Deg.		Deg.		Deg.
January	3 to 59	Range	56	July	61 to 99	Range	38
February	6 74	"	68	August	59 96	"	37
March	16 73	"	57	Sept.	40 92	"	50
April	32 83	"	51	October	24 81	"	57
May	43 89	"	46	November	37 78	"	41
June	52 94	"	42	December	19 63	"	44

THE MEAN TEMPERATURE OF THE DIFFERENT SEASONS IS AS FOLLOWS :—

Winter	34° 53′	Summer	75° 34′
Spring	54° 74′	Autumn	60° 77′

The winter generally commences about the middle of December, and continues till the middle of February. In the same latitude, west of the Alleghanies, the climate is milder than it is east. In the winters of 1819 and 1820, the Mississippi at St. Louis was covered with ice for two months; but this is very unusual. In the winters of 1851, 1852, 1853, and 1854, it was covered over, but not during the winter.

In northern Illinois, the springs are wet and disagreeable, the summers pleasant, the autumns excellent, but the winters extremely cold. There is not, during the winter, a great fall of snow; nor is it the extremity of the cold which makes the weather so disagreeable, but the perpetual winds which blow from almost every quarter over the open country. The winds, when from the lake, can be borne; but from the prairies, they are icy, freezing, merciless.

The following meteorological observations, taken in Hancock county, during three years, give the following large proportion of fair, to rainy days :—

	Fair days.	Cloudy.	Rainy.	Snow.
First year	246	74	42	3
Second year	250	67	43	5
Third year	229	98	48	10

With such a display of figures, it ceases to be remarkable that this climate is regarded as one of the mildest and most agreeable in the northern portion of the country.

About the middle of October or first of November, the Indian summer commences, and continues from fifteen to twenty days. During this season the weather is dull and cheerless, the atmosphere is smoky, and the sun and moon are sometimes almost totally obscured.

Notwithstanding, then, the varieties of her climate—its severity during the winter at the north, and the enervating heat of the summer at the south—Illinois may be regarded as having one of the most desirable and favored climates of the States in the Union.

With all the advantages of her fine situation—an empire in extent—the richest portion of the richest country in the world—with navigable streams on every border, and penetrating her remotest sections—rapidly increasing her population with an industrious, enterprising, and educated class of citizens—can any one doubt her future position of empire in that great valley fated to control the destinies of our republic?

Art. III.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

CHAPTER I.

THE CENSUS OF 1850, BEING THE SEVENTH DECENNIAL ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

This census differs from every other which preceded it in one important particular. Hitherto the population had been distributed into classes, according to age, sex, and race, by the officers who took the census, but by the act of Congress for taking the seventh census, the census-taker was required to return each individual by name, with his or her sex, age, color, occupation, &c., and left the classification to be made at the seat of government, in the office of the Secretary of the Interior.

This mode was recommended by its promise of greater accuracy, and by its affording materials for additional classes of the individual citizens, according to other points of similarity. It has, however, been found to be attended with the disadvantages of adding largely to the expense, and of requiring a much longer time to complete a digest of the returns. These objections, which, if not obviated, must acquire additional force at each succeeding census, have given rise to a doubt whether the certain inconveniences of the new mode do not outweigh its presumed benefits.

The act also greatly enlarged the field of inquiry. It appointed a Census Board which had the power of prescribing the objects of inquiry, not exceeding one hundred. In the exercise of its authority, this Board augmented the number of agricultural items from twenty-nine to forty-five. It required a valuation of each person's lands, improved and unimproved, and of their implements and machinery; the annual taxes levied in each district; the number of aliens, with the places of their nativity; of paupers; of convicted criminals; of church establishments, with the property of each; and of the public libraries; and, lastly, it aimed at copious details of medical statistics—as the number of deaths within the year preceding the census, the age and color of each person deceased, and the disease of which he died. Though this part of the census is not to be relied on, from the incompetency or carelessness of most of those from whom the census-takers received their information, the seventh census, on the whole, furnishes the materials for a greater stock of statistical information than

has probably ever been afforded in a country containing more than twenty millions of people.

The decennial increase in 1850, by multiplication and the accession of Texas, New Mexico, and California, was—

Of the whole population	23,191,876	35.87 per cent.
Of the whites	19,553,068	37.74 "
Of the free colored	434,495	12.47 "
Of the slaves	3,204,313	28.82 "

The distribution of the different classes under this census, compared with that of 1840, was as follows:—

	In 1840.	In 1850.
The whites amounted to	83.16 per cent.	84.32 per cent.
The free colored	2.26 "	1.87 "
The slaves	14.58 "	13.81 "

The result of the census of 1850, as to the population of each State and Territory, distributed according to age and sex, white or colored, bond or free, may be seen in the four following tables:—

WHITE POPULATION IN 1850, CLASSED ACCORDING TO AGE AND SEX.

States and Territories.	Under 1.		1 and under 5.		5 and under 10.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
Maine	7,041	6,915	31,497	30,161	37,765	36,580
New Hampshire	3,057	3,030	13,660	13,247	17,379	16,833
Vermont	3,345	3,226	15,623	15,366	19,437	18,640
Massachusetts	11,527	11,463	45,460	44,544	54,148	50,697
Rhode Island	1,740	1,804	6,939	6,844	7,589	7,611
Connecticut	3,851	3,649	16,190	15,908	19,292	19,052
New York	38,090	37,125	162,659	159,831	187,834	184,305
New Jersey	6,401	6,436	26,444	25,687	30,614	29,081
Pennsylvania	31,929	31,017	131,268	135,990	157,099	154,424
Delaware	983	970	4,191	4,120	5,036	4,882
Maryland	6,059	5,962	24,309	24,037	27,558	27,016
District of Columbia	493	506	2,081	1,964	2,451	2,466
Virginia	12,026	11,715	57,266	55,190	66,363	63,809
North Carolina	8,171	7,680	35,721	34,080	40,793	39,407
South Carolina	3,313	3,139	17,973	17,084	20,589	19,988
Georgia	7,894	7,271	37,844	36,698	42,642	41,118
Florida	651	646	3,365	3,139	3,811	3,647
Alabama	6,289	5,927	30,241	28,983	34,205	33,485
Mississippi	4,464	4,209	22,045	20,689	24,404	23,495
Louisiana	3,467	3,421	15,380	14,907	16,931	16,274
Texas	2,437	2,326	11,133	10,638	12,277	11,317
Arkansas	2,817	2,655	12,441	11,944	13,476	12,912
Tennessee	11,679	11,247	52,801	50,780	60,471	58,416
Kentucky	12,035	11,528	52,441	50,140	59,604	57,315
Missouri	10,044	9,529	41,124	39,466	46,356	44,606
Illinois	13,546	12,995	58,383	56,436	66,392	63,513
Indiana	16,344	15,636	68,294	65,613	79,563	76,369
Ohio	28,488	27,707	127,036	123,348	145,958	141,724
Michigan	5,462	5,362	25,016	23,775	30,384	28,847
Wisconsin	5,279	5,124	20,845	20,045	21,765	20,432
Iowa	3,141	2,952	14,302	13,850	15,864	15,095
California	148	122	840	784	1,080	1,011
Minnesota	66	102	388	363	363	356
Oregon	161	149	902	835	907	934
Utah	220	212	871	863	696	668
New Mexico	639	594	3,773	3,792	4,402	4,325
	273,307	264,354	1,198,746	1,160,051	1,372,438	1,331,690

States and Territories.	10 and under 15.		15 and under 20.		20 and under 30.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
Maine	36,408	35,188	33,352	33,439	51,456	48,279
New Hampshire	17,426	16,844	16,920	18,821	28,232	28,948
Vermont	18,485	17,609	17,480	16,778	27,431	25,661
Massachusetts	49,129	48,634	48,868	55,044	101,306	107,856
Rhode Island	7,365	7,378	7,172	7,828	14,652	15,192
Connecticut	19,373	18,534	18,527	19,486	35,239	35,050
New York	170,053	167,472	157,151	171,592	308,816	308,392
New Jersey	28,213	26,913	24,294	25,706	42,193	43,152
Pennsylvania	138,633	133,258	116,773	124,483	209,438	206,801
Delaware	4,581	4,342	3,814	3,954	6,354	6,335
Maryland	25,307	24,608	20,767	22,461	40,164	38,173
District of Columbia	2,156	2,235	1,829	2,220	3,523	3,950
Virginia	59,955	57,485	47,638	50,015	77,492	77,559
North Carolina	37,577	35,722	30,178	31,777	46,618	49,630
South Carolina	18,842	18,132	14,732	15,530	23,474	23,833
Georgia	37,075	35,674	28,497	30,085	44,873	43,527
Florida	3,077	2,812	2,338	2,412	4,778	3,727
Alabama	30,145	29,059	24,548	25,215	36,360	35,732
Mississippi	21,105	20,081	15,847	16,157	27,164	23,630
Louisiana	14,103	13,857	10,620	12,498	30,729	24,569
Texas	10,346	9,456	7,836	8,073	16,454	12,311
Arkansas	11,930	11,178	9,059	8,990	15,193	13,238
Tennessee	54,444	51,825	43,870	45,094	64,089	64,537
Kentucky	51,610	49,454	42,115	42,801	69,673	64,506
Missouri	40,589	38,673	32,250	32,299	58,245	40,952
Illinois	58,559	54,301	46,959	45,739	79,465	70,579
Indiana	68,240	64,447	55,477	55,196	86,785	80,349
Ohio	128,101	123,632	107,689	111,126	178,777	168,373
Michigan	25,491	24,040	21,216	21,238	36,186	32,491
Wisconsin	17,571	16,375	14,522	14,217	31,922	26,366
Iowa	13,172	12,137	9,961	10,134	16,702	15,646
California	1,134	813	4,569	877	44,770	1,597
Minnesota	209	263	225	231	1,154	565
Oregon	717	692	677	525	2,375	802
Utah	683	685	659	666	1,264	891
New Mexico	3,678	3,187	3,187	3,833	6,326	6,270
	1,225,575	1,176,554	1,041,116	1,087,600	1,869,092	1,758,469

States and Territories.	30 and under 40.		40 and under 50.		50 and under 60.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
Maine	35,935	33,606	27,436	25,802	17,644	17,460
New Hampshire	19,558	20,222	15,837	16,445	11,299	12,372
Vermont	19,766	19,262	15,860	15,212	10,679	10,397
Massachusetts	72,540	70,002	47,696	47,612	28,340	31,293
Rhode Island	10,335	10,191	6,636	7,005	4,047	4,665
Connecticut	25,078	24,251	17,902	18,190	11,845	13,436
New York	216,542	197,333	144,496	128,561	85,440	78,911
New Jersey	30,181	28,151	20,887	19,631	12,796	13,039
Pennsylvania	144,039	133,072	97,558	89,451	58,632	55,919
Delaware	4,605	4,481	3,106	2,948	1,713	1,805
Maryland	29,460	26,685	18,740	17,414	10,647	10,802
District of Columbia	2,679	2,599	1,647	1,633	995	1,056
Virginia	51,451	49,907	36,105	34,756	22,631	22,258
North Carolina	29,340	31,753	20,315	21,922	13,084	14,316
South Carolina	15,534	15,273	10,573	10,603	6,895	6,778
Georgia	28,062	25,534	18,830	17,403	10,891	10,125
Florida	3,558	2,347	2,076	1,410	1,269	810
Alabama	21,862	21,057	15,976	13,721	9,842	7,842
Mississippi	19,061	14,216	11,378	8,776	6,667	4,742
Louisiana	27,451	15,054	13,829	7,529	5,639	3,637
Texas	12,117	7,353	6,939	4,366	3,452	2,117
Arkansas	10,043	7,420	6,056	4,501	3,041	2,186

States and Territories.	30 and under 40.		40 and under 50.		50 and under 60.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
Tennessee	38,947	38,361	25,541	25,860	16,269	14,950
Kentucky	45,345	38,672	28,587	25,376	16,995	15,142
Missouri	41,006	30,761	23,540	18,170	12,481	9,594
Illinois	57,178	45,248	34,389	27,683	19,119	14,709
Indiana	57,445	49,853	35,213	32,010	23,538	18,501
Ohio	120,512	107,098	80,204	70,128	43,352	42,520
Michigan	28,120	23,032	19,412	14,809	10,356	7,712
Wisconsin	26,086	18,638	14,345	10,428	7,634	5,567
Iowa	13,613	10,451	7,784	5,968	4,115	3,026
California	21,460	986	7,536	453	2,029	182
Minnesota	720	251	290	131	129	53
Oregon	1,343	546	583	274	307	119
Utah	761	598	513	404	221	204
New Mexico	3,949	3,293	2,407	1,981	1,627	1,243
	1,288,682	1,128,257	840,222	748,566	498,660	459,511

States and Territories.	60 and under 70.		70 and under 80.		80 & under 90.		90 & u. 100.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.	m.	fe.
Maine	10,493	10,230	5,224	5,247	1,683	1,760	149	180
New Hampshire	7,173	8,169	3,905	4,556	1,320	1,731	151	251
Vermont	6,639	6,720	3,521	3,554	1,226	1,165	116	139
Massachusetts	16,743	69,807	7,784	10,003	2,335	3,420	197	393
Rhode Island	2,443	2,967	1,050	1,510	319	489	38	48
Connecticut	7,408	8,978	3,698	4,754	1,174	1,661	109	202
New York	45,927	43,920	19,947	19,264	5,709	5,877	618	713
New Jersey	7,254	7,705	3,126	3,454	888	1,143	72	122
Pennsylvania	31,814	32,224	13,188	13,869	3,344	4,035	335	406
Delaware	881	1,005	373	440	76	109	9	15
Maryland	5,429	6,008	2,161	2,631	508	749	63	114
District of Columbia	464	537	133	208	35	52	5	8
Virginia	12,724	12,711	5,548	5,914	1,659	1,819	228	289
North Carolina	7,169	8,407	3,383	3,858	1,054	1,136	135	216
South Carolina	3,659	3,809	1,547	1,825	494	623	78	133
Georgia	6,202	5,508	2,447	2,329	725	797	119	149
Florida	544	376	188	125	40	37	5	8
Alabama	4,544	3,795	1,822	1,580	479	490	103	84
Mississippi	2,847	2,246	968	860	228	225	35	32
Louisiana	2,055	1,678	621	573	126	149	30	29
Texas	1,212	840	365	231	81	63	9	13
Arkansas	1,304	902	414	278	69	82	7	13
Tennessee	8,567	8,234	4,006	3,797	1,231	1,168	180	196
Kentucky	8,904	8,616	3,994	3,620	1,188	1,156	177	180
Missouri	5,206	4,212	1,631	1,340	373	316	50	37
Illinois	7,969	6,441	2,527	2,050	504	434	55	54
Indiana	10,395	8,846	3,672	3,091	871	796	144	129
Ohio	27,462	23,224	10,790	9,157	2,667	2,349	306	268
Michigan	4,804	3,775	1,593	1,200	317	239	42	25
Wisconsin	3,201	2,339	886	653	177	127	5	13
Iowa	1,631	1,261	463	369	97	68	15	9
California	388	69	64	19	15	8	6	2
Minnesota	39	23	17	3	3	2	2	.
Oregon	108	40	16	5	3	.	1	1
Utah	100	94	31	22	1	3	.	.
New Mexico	1,010	684	313	259	194	125	59	28
	264,742	256,480	111,416	112,648	31,243	34,403	3,653	4,499

States and Territories.	100 & upw'ds.		Age unknown.		Total males.	Total females.	Grand total.
	males.	females.	m.	fe.			
Maine	9	4	613	207	296,745	285,068	581,813
New Hampshire	5	6	28	24	155,960	161,496	317,456
Vermont	4	4	26	11	159,658	153,744	313,402
Massachusetts	4	9	1,016	177	484,093	501,357	985,450

States and Territories.	100 & upw'ds. males.	100 & upw'ds. females.	Age unknown. m.	Age unknown. fe.	Total males.	Total females.	Grand total.
Rhode Island	.	3	15	..	70,340	70,535	143,875
Connecticut	4	2	194	62	179,884	183,215	363,099
New York	33	29	1,174	510	1,544,489	1,503,836	3,048,325
New Jersey	4	6	85	71	233,452	232,057	405,509
Pennsylvania	20	31	664	446	1,142,734	1,115,426	2,258,160
Delaware	.	2	24	14	35,746	35,423	71,169
Maryland	7	10	8	6	211,187	206,756	417,943
District of Columbia	0	0	3	14	18,494	19,447	37,941
Virginia	28	35	156	128	451,300	443,500	894,800
North Carolina	18	43	69	57	273,025	280,003	553,028
South Carolina	58	24	39	42	137,747	136,816	274,563
Georgia	28	27	104	94	266,233	255,339	521,572
Florida	1	1	4	1	25,705	21,498	47,203
Alabama	10	10	57	41	219,483	207,031	426,514
Mississippi	7	11	67	62	156,287	139,431	295,718
Louisiana	9	12	253	41	141,243	114,248	255,491
Texas	11	12	170	19	84,869	69,165	154,034
Arkansas.	6	4	18	12	85,874	76,315	162,189
Tennessee	28	34	112	102	382,235	374,601	756,836
Kentucky	28	31	108	72	392,804	368,609	761,413
Missouri	12	11	80	51	312,987	279,017	592,004
Illinois	10	5	489	303	445,544	400,490	846,034
Indiana	18	8	179	132	503,178	470,976	977,154
Ohio	23	22	349	257	1,004,117	950,933	1,955,050
Michigan	5	2	61	59	208,465	186,606	395,071
Wisconsin	1	1	112	80	164,351	140,405	304,756
Iowa	.	1	27	27	100,887	90,904	191,881
California	.	.	669	4	84,708	6,927	91,635
Minnesota	.	.	....	..	3,695	2,343	6,038
Oregon	.	.	38	27	8,138	4,949	13,087
Utah	.	.	....	..	6,020	5,310	11,330
New Mexico	19	21	142	1	31,725	29,800	61,525
	357	430	7,153	3,154	10,026,402	9,526,666	19,553,068

FREE COLORED POPULATION IN 1850.

States and Territories.	Under 1. males.	Under 1. females.	1 and under 5. males.	1 and under 5. females.	5 and under 10. males.	5 and under 10. females.	10 and under 15. males.	10 and under 15. females.
Maine	26	13	64	59	83	75	83	64
New Hampshire	7	7	22	23	30	22	24	23
Vermont	15	8	41	25	42	34	44	30
Massachusetts	85	114	409	440	459	493	428	433
Rhode Island	37	29	164	159	197	194	159	184
Connecticut	74	72	350	360	434	412	397	411
New York	582	539	2,213	2,390	2,666	2,800	2,507	2,619
New Jersey	361	358	1,302	1,395	1,484	1,579	1,498	1,421
Pennsylvania	637	748	2,897	2,911	3,286	3,417	2,900	3,121
Delaware	271	271	1,145	1,140	1,391	1,361	1,232	1,146
Maryland	1,017	998	4,422	4,502	4,950	5,131	4,516	4,582
District of Columbia	125	125	523	511	657	662	534	614
Virginia	695	717	3,403	3,288	3,924	3,911	3,633	3,609
North Carolina	412	385	1,812	1,837	2,138	2,067	1,907	1,815
South Carolina	77	78	571	541	695	712	653	634
Georgia	44	30	178	165	221	202	203	180
Florida	9	16	55	54	70	89	62	55
Alabama	20	29	143	143	160	144	147	154
Mississippi	8	6	58	61	57	53	56	60
Louisiana	191	213	910	931	1,188	1,182	1,059	1,034
Texas	..	2	27	24	38	27	25	19
Arkansas	6	5	42	39	35	31	37	36
Tennessee	81	83	418	423	483	501	440	407
Kentucky	101	141	545	530	673	648	501	539

States and Territories.	Under 1.		1 and under 5.		5 and under 10.		10 and under 15.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
Missouri	31	28	110	143	136	143	110	122
Illinois	75	65	331	329	376	371	312	343
Indiana	161	155	772	737	867	915	823	765
Ohio	370	319	1,565	1,493	1,793	1,811	1,572	1,613
Michigan	39	35	177	175	176	169	133	122
Wisconsin	15	6	26	32	50	32	25	37
Iowa	3	3	18	21	29	28	17	20
California	1	2	3	1	4	5	11	20
Minnesota	..	..	..	..	..	2	3	3
Oregon	..	..	23	18	13	19	9	11
Utah	..	..	4	1	1	1	1	1
New Mexico	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..
Total	5,576	5,600	24,743	24,902	28,806	29,246	26,061	26,247

States and Territories.	15 and under 20.		20 and under 30.		30 and under 40.		40 & under 50	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
Maine	69	65	123	127	105	85	69	48
New Hampshire	22	18	41	44	32	35	26	26
Vermont	28	40	66	75	57	32	33	37
Massachusetts	381	448	944	891	704	685	472	485
Rhode Island	153	163	363	339	287	309	180	206
Connecticut	361	397	815	732	543	541	367	389
New York	2,045	2,541	4,556	5,280	3,719	3,911	2,619	2,635
New Jersey	1,174	1,183	2,018	2,101	1,525	1,538	1,049	1,000
Pennsylvania	2,397	2,975	4,607	5,787	3,480	3,792	2,471	2,589
Delaware	1,033	971	1,328	1,522	975	996	683	677
Maryland	3,396	4,015	5,437	6,816	4,344	5,273	3,030	3,625
District of Columbia	394	637	672	1,156	531	763	367	606
Virginia	2,637	2,978	4,298	5,159	2,787	3,344	2,014	2,272
North Carolina	1,520	1,520	2,195	2,581	1,250	1,574	793	1,003
South Carolina	395	495	606	812	474	635	283	356
Georgia	147	171	198	287	131	179	97	96
Florida	36	44	58	64	44	71	29	47
Alabama	115	127	142	226	89	131	95	98
Mississippi	44	38	90	70	49	56	35	41
Louisiana	704	998	1,147	1,761	900	1,474	678	975
Texas	18	24	40	34	23	23	17	19
Arkansas	24	43	43	87	39	31	41	23
Tennessee	307	364	455	497	249	339	236	277
Kentucky	396	459	634	749	492	554	460	489
Missouri	114	79	298	228	205	198	151	136
Illinois	285	292	551	533	353	277	216	198
Indiana	627	625	903	981	561	560	400	371
Ohio	1,332	1,513	2,324	2,457	1,556	1,431	980	961
Michigan	105	104	281	243	252	143	146	76
Wisconsin	27	27	81	56	86	46	26	17
Iowa	18	17	35	37	24	17	11	12
California	72	14	374	29	256	12	111	3
Minnesota	4	2	7	6	4	4	3	1
Oregon	11	10	38	15	20	9	4	5
Utah	3	2	2	2	1	2	..	1
New Mexico	1	..	7	1	5	3	4	..
Total	20,395	23,399	35,782	41,765	26,153	29,052	18,199	19,741

States and Territories.	50 and under 60.		60 and under 70.		70 and under 80.		80 & under 90.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
Maine	43	47	29	30	11	13	8	4
New Hampshire	22	29	15	12	8	11	8	8
Vermont	26	27	9	15	8	10	4	5
Massachusetts	284	337	129	158	61	88	29	36
Rhode Island	83	128	58	106	40	51	15	26

States and Territories.	50 and under 60.		60 and under 70.		70 and under 80.		80 and under 90.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
Connecticut	237	269	147	161	61	89	25	29
New York	1,432	1,476	702	820	208	355	100	171
New Jersey	715	682	407	439	166	188	63	79
Pennsylvania	1,467	1,513	744	790	297	357	120	152
Delaware	450	480	310	269	143	132	40	52
Maryland	2,104	2,252	1,242	1,334	503	605	175	239
District of Columbia	256	353	115	203	52	97	20	67
Virginia	1,259	1,461	794	869	349	432	137	182
North Carolina	628	671	337	362	176	210	89	103
South Carolina	188	281	105	151	47	73	25	41
Georgia	62	99	44	67	35	44	8	18
Florida	16	27	20	23	7	11	6	8
Alabama	63	61	43	36	18	31	13	13
Mississippi	31	33	25	25	17	9	4	6
Louisiana	370	683	172	420	87	156	35	87
Texas	14	9	2	2	3	1	1	2
Arkansas	20	22	12	15	12	9	3	1
Tennessee	205	173	123	144	72	56	29	28
Kentucky	458	440	335	334	178	156	62	68
Missouri	108	92	64	56	23	14	5	9
Illinois	171	124	64	74	27	34	9	11
Indiana	346	217	166	124	57	52	16	16
Ohio	568	524	413	294	137	138	53	47
Michigan	78	40	30	22	10	13	1	3
Wisconsin	15	13	8	2	3	1	3	..
Iowa	6	5	1	5	..	2	..	1
California	32	4	6	..	2	..	..	..
Minnesota	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Oregon	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Utah	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
New Mexico	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	11,771	12,572	6,671	7,362	2,878	3,438	1,106	1,512

States and Territories.	90 & under 100.		100 & up'rds.		Age unkn'n.		Total.		Grand Total.
	m.	f.	m.	f.	m.	f.	males.	females.	
Maine	3	..	..	..	..	..	726	630	1,356
New Hampshire	2	2	1	..	..	..	260	260	520
Vermont	1	3	1	1	..	1	375	343	718
Massachusetts	7	16	3	3	29	12	4,424	4,640	9,064
Rhode Island	1	7	..	..	1	1	1,738	1,932	3,670
Connecticut	5	7	1	3	3	1	3,820	3,873	7,693
New York	24	44	12	14	7	22	23,452	25,617	49,069
New Jersey	23	28	3	12	9	9	11,798	12,012	23,810
Pennsylvania	22	60	9	15	35	30	25,369	28,257	53,626
Delaware	17	13	2	3	15	5	9,035	9,038	18,073
Maryland	45	110	11	48	..	1	35,192	39,531	74,723
District of Columbia	2	11	..	5	..	1	4,248	5,811	10,059
Virginia	51	64	20	35	1	10	26,002	28,331	54,333
North Carolina	22	20	7	17	2	..	13,298	14,165	27,463
South Carolina	8	13	3	7	1	..	4,131	4,829	8,960
Georgia	9	14	2	4	1	..	1,375	1,556	2,931
Florida	2	4	4	1	..	..	418	514	932
Alabama	5	10	3	5	..	1	1,056	1,209	2,265
Mississippi	..	1	..	2	..	1	474	456	930
Louisiana	11	45	11	21	16	3	7,479	9,983	17,462
Texas	3	..	..	..	..	..	211	186	397
Arkansas	..	2	..	..	..	..	314	294	608
Tennessee	11	5	7	1	1	4	3,117	3,305	6,422
Kentucky	18	25	6	11	4	5	4,863	5,148	10,011
Missouri	1	4	1	4	4	1	1,361	1,257	2,618
Illinois	5	4	1	2	1	2	2,777	2,650	5,436
Indiana	7	9	..	6	9	14	5,715	5,547	11,262

States and Territories.	90 & under 100. m.	f.	100 & up'rds. m.	f.	Age unkn'n. m.	f.	Total. males.	females.	Grand total.
Ohio	14	18	5	8	9	11	12,691	12,588	25,279
Michigan	..	..	1	1	2	1	1,431	1,152	2,583
Wisconsin	..	1	..	..	..	.	365	270	635
Iowa	..	..	..	..	..	..	165	168	333
California	..	..	..	..	..	..	872	90	962
Minnesota	..	..	..	..	..	..	21	18	39
Oregon	..	..	..	..	..	..	120	87	207
Utah	..	..	..	..	..	..	14	10	24
New Mexico	..	..	..	..	..	..	17	5	22
Total	319	540	114	229	150	136	208,724	225,771	434,495

SLAVE POPULATION OF 1850, CLASSED ACCORDING TO AGE AND SEX.

	Under 1. males.	females.	1 under 5. males.	females.	5 and under 10. males.	females.	10 & under 15. males.	females.
New Jersey	..	..	..	..	1	2	2	2
Delaware	27	32	155	148	223	178	203	194
Maryland	1,243	1,203	5,961	5,931	6,902	6,712	6,963	6,400
District of Columbia	30	41	165	184	208	287	239	341
Virginia	5,341	5,814	32,419	32,687	35,356	34,897	33,883	32,331
North Carolina	4,022	4,064	21,891	22,043	23,400	23,536	20,711	19,830
South Carolina	4,450	4,744	27,019	28,229	27,069	28,131	24,890	24,825
Georgia	4,730	4,889	27,984	28,070	28,941	28,711	26,834	26,749
Florida	463	451	2,840	2,918	2,889	2,874	2,507	2,442
Alabama	3,992	4,118	25,471	25,687	25,724	25,671	23,190	22,260
Mississippi	3,611	3,788	22,705	23,417	23,240	23,106	20,666	19,812
Louisiana	2,349	2,591	14,260	14,814	14,874	15,009	13,865	13,410
Texas	705	724	4,406	4,366	4,356	4,504	4,152	4,091
Arkansas	540	619	3,475	3,572	3,480	3,546	3,389	3,179
Tennessee	3,452	3,609	17,620	18,075	18,647	19,087	17,889	17,252
Kentucky	3,023	3,245	14,952	15,311	16,761	16,828	15,602	15,203
Missouri	1,365	1,334	6,420	6,684	7,090	6,845	6,492	6,358
Utah	..	..	2	3	2	1	1	3
Total	39,343	41,266	227,745	232,140	239,163	239,925	221,480	214,712

	15 and under 20. males.	females.	20 and under 30. males.	females.	30 and under 40. males.	females.	40 & under 50. males.	females.
New Jersey	5	2	10	1	..	..	2	9
Delaware	219	151	212	213	67	84	31	43
Maryland	5,643	5,466	8,092	7,443	4,269	4,500	2,953	2,931
District of Columbia	207	319	239	325	127	245	91	182
Virginia	25,584	24,659	39,991	36,974	25,435	24,240	18,416	17,514
North Carolina	15,710	15,800	23,969	23,536	13,687	13,927	8,444	8,631
South Carolina	20,521	21,875	31,745	33,472	20,583	22,938	13,138	14,543
Georgia	21,865	23,072	33,959	34,590	19,146	20,427	12,100	13,006
Florida	1,974	2,087	3,878	3,681	2,277	2,312	1,344	1,340
Alabama	18,989	19,871	31,658	31,208	19,635	19,514	11,433	11,779
Mississippi	16,611	17,087	29,915	30,021	18,565	18,986	9,996	9,933
Louisiana	11,151	11,799	26,047	23,971	20,250	18,415	12,690	10,550
Texas	3,175	3,442	5,585	5,683	3,131	3,449	1,750	1,878
Arkansas	2,745	2,765	4,930	4,684	2,528	2,612	1,415	1,421
Tennessee	14,004	14,621	21,709	21,064	11,370	11,984	6,550	7,115
Kentucky	12,370	12,695	19,031	17,627	10,325	10,422	6,520	7,156
Missouri	5,295	5,400	8,623	7,988	3,902	4,300	2,278	2,779
Utah	1	2	2	4	2	..	1	..
Total	176,169	181,113	289,595	282,615	175,300	178,355	109,152	110,780

	50 and under 60.		60 and under 70.		70 and under 80.		80 & under 90.	
	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.	males.	females.
New Jersey	21	38	27	42	17	31	9	7
Delaware	20	22	8	11	6	7	..	2
Maryland	1,926	1,850	1,187	1,175	549	510	190	196
District of Columbia	55	129	44	70	12	29	4	8
Virginia	12,138	10,850	7,614	6,981	3,028	3,264	958	1,196
North Carolina	6,814	6,327	3,637	3,606	1,520	1,665	570	658
South Carolina	8,771	8,750	5,426	5,502	2,008	2,022	613	638
Georgia	6,584	6,560	4,585	4,544	1,399	1,430	480	519
Florida	895	798	474	397	141	126	45	45
Alabama	6,368	6,030	3,774	3,451	1,068	959	338	338
Mississippi	4,854	4,390	3,139	2,839	825	727	288	243
Louisiana	5,955	4,864	3,032	2,388	937	771	319	225
Texas	898	829	373	332	100	93	40	34
Arkansas	653	580	378	339	75	88	30	24
Tennessee	4,421	4,468	2,050	2,137	719	833	233	287
Kentucky	3,744	3,985	1,819	2,123	621	913	198	255
Missouri	1,136	1,291	535	632	141	220	63	65
Utah	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	65,254	61,762	38,102	36,569	13,166	13,688	4,378	4,740

	90 & under 100.		100 & over.		Unknown.		Total.		Grand
	m.	f.	m.	f.	m.	f.	males.	females.	Total.
New Jersey	2	5	..	..	..	1	96	140	236
Delaware	..	..	1	1	..	..	1,174	1,116	2,290
Maryland	41	74	24	31	1	2	45,944	44,424	90,368
District of Columbia	1	3	..	2	..	..	1,422	2,265	3,687
Virginia	263	334	87	184	49	41	240,562	231,966	472,528
North Carolina	132	202	66	98	8	14	144,581	143,967	288,548
South Carolina	154	200	81	86	1,288	1,303	187,756	197,228	384,984
Georgia	142	162	81	79	27	17	188,857	192,825	381,682
Florida	22	21	15	14	40	..	19,804	19,506	39,310
Alabama	97	93	65	61	1	..	171,804	171,040	342,844
Mississippi	85	85	47	73	127	119	154,674	154,626	309,878
Louisiana	81	59	57	66	7	3	125,874	118,935	244,809
Texas	12	12	6	10	11	14	28,700	29,461	58,161
Arkansas	11	6	9	5	..	1	23,658	23,442	47,100
Tennessee	82	98	31	47	3	2	118,780	120,679	239,459
Kentucky	61	94	28	53	8	8	105,063	105,018	210,981
Missouri	25	25	8	9	11	8	43,484	43,938	87,422
Utah	..	..	..	..	..	..	12	14	26
Total	1,211	1,473	606	819	1,581	1,533	1,602,245	1,601,490	3,204,313

TABLE SHOWING THE AGGREGATE NUMBER OF WHITES, FREE COLORED PERSONS, AND SLAVES IN THE SEVERAL STATES AND TERRITORIES, ON THE 1ST JUNE, 1850:—

States & Territories.	WHITES.			FREE COLORED.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Maine	296,745	285,068	581,813	726	630	1,356
New Hampshire	155,960	161,496	317,456	260	260	528
Vermont	159,653	153,744	313,402	375	343	714
Massachusetts	484,093	501,357	985,450	4,424	4,640	9,060
Rhode Island	70,340	73,535	143,875	1,738	1,932	3,670
Connecticut	179,884	183,215	363,099	3,820	3,873	7,693
New York	1,544,489	1,503,836	3,048,325	23,452	25,617	49,069
New Jersey	233,452	232,057	465,509	11,798	12,012	23,810
Pennsylvania	1,142,734	1,115,426	2,258,160	25,369	28,257	53,626
Delaware	35,746	35,423	71,169	9,035	9,038	18,073
Maryland	211,187	206,756	417,943	35,192	39,531	74,723
District of Columbia	18,494	19,447	37,941	4,248	5,811	10,059

States & Territories.	WHITES. Males.	Females.	Total.	FREE COLORED. Males.	Females.	Total.
Virginia	451,300	443,500	894,800	26,002	28,331	54,333
North Carolina	273,025	280,003	553,028	13,298	14,165	27,463
South Carolina	137,747	136,816	274,563	4,131	4,829	8,960
Georgia	266,233	255,339	521,572	1,375	1,556	2,931
Florida	25,705	21,498	47,203	418	514	932
Alabama	219,483	207,031	426,514	1,056	1,209	2,265
Mississippi	156,287	139,431	295,718	474	456	930
Louisiana	141,243	114,248	255,491	7,479	9,983	17,462
Texas	84,869	69,165	154,034	211	186	397
Arkansas	85,874	76,315	162,189	314	294	608
Tennessee	382,235	374,601	756,836	3,117	3,305	6,422
Kentucky	392,804	368,609	761,413	4,863	5,148	10,011
Missouri	312,987	279,017	592,004	1,361	1,257	2,618
Illinois	445,544	400,490	846,034	2,777	2,659	5,436
Indiana	503,178	470,976	977,154	5,715	5,547	11,262
Ohio	1,004,117	950,933	1,955,050	12,691	12,588	25,279
Michigan	208,465	186,606	395,071	1,431	1,152	2,583
Wisconsin	164,351	140,405	304,756	365	270	635
Iowa	100,887	90,904	191,881	165	168	383
California	84,708	6,927	91,635	872	90	962
Minnesota	3,695	2,343	6,038	21	18	39
Oregon	8,138	4,949	13,087	120	87	207
Utah	6,020	5,310	11,330	14	10	24
New Mexico	31,725	29,800	61,525	17	5	22
Total	10,026,402	9,523,666	19,553,068	208,724	225,771	434,495

States and Territories.	SLAVES. Males.	Females.	Total.	Grand total.
Maine	.....	.....	.....	583,169
New Hampshire	.....	.....	.....	317,976
Vermont	.....	.....	.....	314,120
Massachusetts	.....	.....	.....	994,514
Rhode Island	.....	.....	.....	147,545
Connecticut	.....	.....	.....	370,792
New York	.....	.....	.....	3,097,394
New Jersey	96	140	236	489,555
Pennsylvania	.....	.....	.....	2,311,786
Delaware	1,174	1,116	2,290	91,532
Maryland	45,944	44,424	90,368	583,084
District of Columbia	1,422	2,265	3,687	51,687
Virginia	240,562	231,966	472,528	1,421,661
North Carolina	144,581	143,967	288,548	869,039
South Carolina	187,756	197,228	384,984	668,507
Georgia	188,857	192,825	381,682	906,185
Florida	19,804	19,506	39,310	87,445
Alabama	171,804	171,040	342,844	771,623
Mississippi	154,674	154,626	*309,878	606,526
Louisiana	125,874	118,935	244,809	517,762
Texas	28,700	29,461	58,161	212,592
Arkansas	23,658	23,442	47,100	209,897
Tennessee	118,780	120,679	239,459	1,002,717
Kentucky	105,063	105,918	210,981	982,405
Missouri	43,484	43,938	87,422	682,044
Illinois	.....	.....	.....	851,470
Indiana	.....	.....	.....	988,417
Ohio	.....	.....	.....	1,980,329

* See census of Mississippi.

States and Territories.	SLAVES. Males.	Females.	Total.	Grand total.
Michigan	.....	.....	.....	397,654
Wisconsin	.....	.....	.....	305,391
Iowa	.....	.....	.....	192,214
California	.....	.....	.....	92,597
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	6,077
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	13,294
Utah	.....	.....	.....	11,380
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	61,547
Total	1,602,245	1,601,490	3,204,313	23,191,876

The States of Texas and California, and the Territories of New Mexico and Utah, have been acquired since the census of 1840. Though the accession thus acquired to the population is not precisely known, there are authentic data for a near approximation to it. Texas was annexed to the United States in 1845; and two years afterwards, by an official census, its population was 143,205. Supposing its increase to have been nearly as great in these two years when annexation was expected, as it was in the five years succeeding, then its population in 1845 must have been about 100,000. The increase in five years, exclusive of emigrants from the United States, estimating it at 15 per cent, would make the accession from this source 115,000.

The population of New Mexico in 1850 that was exclusively born in the Territory or some other part of Spanish America, was 60,775; the whole of which may be regarded as a further accession to the population of the United States.

Nothing can be added from Utah, it being exclusively in the possession of the Indians before it was occupied by the Mormons.

The population in New or Upper California was, according to Humboldt, 15,600 in 1803; and from the previous rate of its increase, he estimated that it doubled in twelve years. Yet by a census in 1831, it was only 22,995—showing a reduction in the rate of increase to about 50 per cent in twenty-eight years, owing, doubtless, to the troubles consequent on the rupture with the mother country. At this rate, the population at the time of the cession in 1848, would have been about 30,000, but its amount seems to have been considerably less—1st. Because of the 92,507 returned on the gross population in 1850, 62,576 were born in the United States, and 21,802 were born in foreign countries; the whole of the former and a considerable part of the latter had migrated thither between 1848 and June, 1850, attracted by the gold mines discovered in 1848. 2dly. The whole number of females in California in 1850, according to the census, was 7,799. There is no satisfactory reason for supposing that the number of the males much exceeded that of the females. But, supposing it to have been double, the whole population would then be, exclusive of emigrants from the United States, 23,397.

The result of the accessions from these sources in 1850 would be 115,090 + 60,778 + 23,397 = 199,192, which, for the sake of round numbers, we will call 200,000.

The slave population, which from 1830 to 1840 had increased 33 per cent, had, from 1840 to 1850, increased 28.8 per cent—showing a greater ratio in the last ten years of five per cent. A part of this difference admits of a ready explanation. The whole number of slaves in 1850 was

increased by the acquisition of Texas; while in 1840 the number had been diminished by the migrations of slaveholders of the United States to that country. The number in Texas at the time of annexation (1845) was about 21,000, which by natural multiplication would have increased to somewhat more than 35,000. This double operation of Texas on the slave population is sufficient for nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on the ratio of increase. The residue is to be referred to several circumstances; there have been few cases of manumission in the last ten years, owing partly to a change of public sentiment on this subject in the slaveholding States, and partly to an extension by State legislation of the policy of prohibiting it. The same circumstances contribute to explain the falling off in the increase of the free colored class in the last ten years, from 20.88 per cent to 12.47 per cent. Another cause of the greater increase of slaves is a diminished mortality between 1840 and 1850, both because the Asiatic cholera and yellow fever had been less prevalent in that period, and because there was a greater proportion who had become acclimated in the South. That this class of our population have been better cared for, or have experienced more frequent or more efficient medical treatment, would also contribute to explain the difference; but I am aware of no facts that would much support such an hypothesis.

The males and females of each class were thus distributed according to age:—

1. WHITE POPULATION.

	Males. Per ct.	Females. Per ct.		Males. Per ct.	Females. Per ct.
Those under 5....	14.68	14 95	50 and under 60....	4.97	4.83
5 and under 10....	13.69	13.98	60 " 70....	2.64	2.69
10 " 15....	12.23	12.35	70 " 80....	1.11	1.18
15 " 20....	10.39	11.42	80 " 90....	0.31	0.36
20 " 30....	18.64	18.46	90 " 100....	0.04	0.05
30 " 40....	12.85	11.84	100 and upwards.....	0.04	0.05
40 " 50....	8.35	7.86	Age unknown.....	0.07	0.03
				100.00	100.00

2. FREE COLORED.

	Males. Per ct.	Females. Per ct.		Males. Per ct.	Females. Per ct.
Under 5....	14.53	13.51	50 and under 60....	5.64	5.57
5 and under 10....	13.80	12.95	60 " 70....	3.20	3.26
10 " 15....	12.49	11.63	70 " 80....	1.38	1.52
15 " 20....	9.77	10.37	80 " 90....	0.53	0 67
20 " 30....	17.14	18.05	90 " 100....	0.15	0.24
30 " 40....	12.53	12.88	100 and upwards	00.5	0.10
40 " 50....	8.72	8.74	Age unknown.... ...	00.7	00.6
				100.00	100.00

3. SLAVES.

	Males. Per ct.	Females. Per ct.		Males. Per ct.	Females. Per ct.
Under 5....	16.67	17.07	50 and under 60....	4.07	3.85
5 and under 10....	14.92	14.98	60 " 70....	2.38	2.28
10 " 15....	13.82	13.40	70 " 80....	0.82	0.85
15 " 20....	10.99	11.31	80 " 90....	0.27	0.30
20 " 30....	18.07	17.64	90 " 100 ...	0.08	0.09
30 " 40....	10.94	11.14	100 and upwards.....	0.04	0.05
40 " 50....	6.81	6.92	Age unknown.....	0.12	0.11
				100.00	100.00

As the proportion of children under ten was less in 1840 than it had been in 1830 in all the three classes, so was it less in 1850 than it had been in 1840. Their proportion under that age was—

	In 1840.	In 1850.
Of the whites	31.63 per cent.	28.00 per cent.
Free colored	28.88 "	27.36 "
Slaves	33.93 "	31.60 "

This proportionate diminution of children in the class of whites, may be caused by the greater delay of marriage, an increase of celibacy from any cause, and it may in part proceed from an increased mortality among children, from a greater number having been transported to less healthy regions. It certainly is affected by the increased number of immigrants, who have a larger proportion of deaths. But in the class of slaves, only the second cause, of a greater number removing to a less healthy climate, seems likely to have any influence, unless some gradual and unseen change of manners and sentiments with them also produces postponement of marriage.

The population in the slaveholding States is distributed among the three classes, as follows:—

States and Territories.	Whole population.	Whites.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Per centage. Whites.	F. col.	Slaves.
Delaware	91,532	71,169	18,073	2,290	77.7	19.07	02.05
Maryland	583,083	417,943	74,723	90,368	71.7	12.08	15.05
District of Columbia	51,687	37,941	10,059	3,687	73.4	19.04	07.01
Virginia	1,421,661	894,800	54,333	472,528	62.9	03.08	33.02
North Carolina	869,039	553,028	27,463	288,548	63.6	03.01	33.02
South Carolina	668,507	274,563	8,960	384,984	41.0	01.03	57.06
Georgia	906,185	521,572	2,931	381,682	57.5	00.03	42.01
Florida	87,445	47,203	932	39,310	54.0	01.00	45.00
Alabama	771,623	426,514	2,265	342,844	54.0	01.00	45.00
Mississippi	606,526	295,718	930	309,878	55.3	00.03	44.04
Louisiana	517,762	255,491	17,462	244,809	49.3	03.04	47.03
Texas	212,592	154,034	397	58,161	72.4	00.02	27.04
Arkansas	209,897	162,189	608	47,100	77.3	00.03	22.04
Tennessee	1,002,717	756,836	6,422	239,459	75.5	00.06	23.09
Kentucky	982,405	761,413	10,011	210,981	77.5	01.00	21.05
Missouri	682,044	592,004	2,618	87,422	86.8	00.04	12.08
Total	9,664,656	6,222,418	238,737	3,204,051	64.9	02.46	33.15
The distribution in this class of States in 1840, was					63.41	2.92	33.67

From which it appears that the whites in the slaveholding States have continued to gain on both the colored classes, though the gain of the one and the loss of the other is not quite one per cent. But in seven of the States—North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Arkansas, Tennessee, and Kentucky—the slave population has gained somewhat on the whites.

CHAPTER II.

PROGRESS OF THE POPULATION IN EACH STATE, AND IN THE UNION, IN SIXTY YEARS.

THE POPULATION OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY, AS EXHIBITED BY SEVEN ENUMERATIONS IN SIXTY YEARS, WITH THE DECENNIAL INCREASE OF EACH.

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	DECENNIAL INCREASE. 1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	399,455	501,793	583,169	57.16	50.74	30.45	33.89	25.62	16.22
New Hampshire	141,899	183,762	214,360	244,161	269,328	284,574	317,976	29.50	16.65	13.90	10.03	5.66	11.73
Vermont	85,416	154,465	217,713	235,764	280,652	291,948	314,120	80.08	40.95	8.29	19.04	4.02	7.59
Massachusetts	378,717	423,245	472,040	523,287	610,408	737,699	994,514	11.76	11.53	10.88	16.65	20.82	34.81
Rhode Island	69,110	69,122	77,031	83,059	97,199	108,830	147,545	0.01	11.44	7.83	17.02	11.97	35.57
Connecticut	238,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,675	309,978	370,792	5.40	4.40	5.02	8.17	4.13	19.62
	1,009,823	1,233,315	1,471,801	1,639,808	1,954,717	2,234,822	2,234,822	22.13	19.34	12.77	17.77	14.33	22.07
New York	340,120	586,756	959,049	1,372,812	1,918,608	2,428,921	3,097,394	72.51	63.45	43.14	39.76	26.60	27.52
New Jersey	184,139	211,949	245,555	277,575	320,823	373,306	489,555	15.10	15.86	13.04	15.58	16.36	31.14
Pennsylvania	434,373	602,365	810,091	1,049,458	1,348,233	1,724,033	2,311,786	38.67	34.49	29.55	28.47	27.87	34.09
Delaware	59,096	64,273	72,674	72,749	76,748	78,085	91,532	8.76	13.07	0.01	5.50	1.74	17.22
Maryland	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040	470,019	583,034	6.82	11.42	7.04	9.74	5.14	24.04
Dis. of Columbia	.....	14,093	24,023	33,039	39,834	43,712	51,687	....	70.45	37.53	20.57	9.74	18.24
	1,337,456	1,820,984	2,491,938	3,212,983	4,151,286	5,118,076	6,624,988	36.15	36.85	28.77	29.20	23.29	29.44
Virginia	748,308	880,200	974,622	1,065,379	1,211,405	1,239,797	1,421,661	17.63	10.73	9.31	13.70	2.34	14.67
North Carolina	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	753,419	869,039	21.42	16.19	15.09	15.52	2.09	15.35
South Carolina	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	581,185	594,398	668,507	38.75	20.12	21.11	15.60	2.28	12.47
Georgia	82,548	162,101	252,433	340,987	516,823	691,392	906,185	96.37	55.71	35.08	51.57	33.78	31.07
Florida	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,730	54,477	87,445	....	....	....	....	56.86	60.52
	1,473,680	1,865,995	2,197,670	2,547,936	3,082,130	3,333,483	3,952,837	26.62	17.77	15.94	20.96	8.16	18.58

PROGRESS OF THE POPULATION IN EACH STATE, AND IN THE UNION, IN SIXTY YEARS.—(CONTINUED.)

THE POPULATION OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY, AS EXHIBITED BY SEVEN ENUMERATIONS IN SIXTY YEARS, WITH THE DECENNIAL INCREASE OF EACH.

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	DECENNIAL INCREASE. 1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Alabama	.....	.....	*144,317	.....	309,527	590,756	771,623	....	....	....	142.00	90.86	30.62
Mississippi	.....	8,850	40,352	75,448	136,621	375,651	606,526	....	355.95	86.97	81.08	174.96	61.46
Louisiana	.....	.....	76,556	153,407	215,739	352,411	517,762	....	....	100.39	40.63	63.35	46.92
Texas	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	212,592	....	....	....	....	....	....
Arkansas	.....	.....	.....	14,273	30,388	97,574	209,897	....	....	....	112.95	221.09	115.12
Tennessee	35,791	105,602	261,727	422,813	681,904	829,210	1,002,717	195.05	147.84	61.55	61.28	21.60	20.92
	35,791	114,452	378,635	810,258	1,374,179	2,245,602	3,321,117	219.78	230.82	113.99	69.60	63.41	47.89
Missouri	.....	.....	20,845	66,586	140,455	383,702	682,044	....	....	219.43	110.94	173.18	77.75
Kentucky	73,077	220,955	406,511	564,317	687,917	779,828	982,405	202.35	83.98	38.82	21.90	13.36	25.98
Ohio	.....	45,365	230,760	581,434	937,903	1,519,467	1,980,329	....	408.67	151.92	61.30	62.00	30.33
Indiana	.....	4,875	24,520	147,178	343,031	685,866	988,416	....	402.67	500.24	133.07	99.94	44.11
Illinois	.....	.....	12,282	55,211	157,445	476,183	851,470	....	....	349.30	185.17	202.44	78.81
Michigan	.....	.....	4,762	8,896	31,639	212,267	397,654	....	...	86.80	255.65	570.90	87.34
Wisconsin	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30,945	305,391	....	....	....	....	....	886.88
Iowa	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	43,112	192,214	....	....	....	...	....	345.85
	73,077	271,195	699,680	1,423,622	2,298,390	4,131,370	6,379,923	271.11	158.00	103.47	61.45	79.75	54.43
California	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	92,597	....	....	....	....	....	....
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,077	....	....	....	....	....	....
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	61,547	....	....	....	....	....	....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	13,294	....	....	....	....	....	....
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,380	....	....	....	....	....	....
	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	184,895	....	....	....	....	....	....
Aggregate	3,929,827	5,305,925	7,239,814	9,654,596	12,866,020	17,069,453	23,191,876	35.01	36.45	33.35	33.26	32.67	35.87

* This number exceeds by 16,416 that recently published at the census office which has followed the first official statement of the census, whereas the number here given conforms to a later official statement. (See *ante*, page 32.)

THE DECENNIAL INCREASE OF EACH OF THE GREAT LOCAL DIVISIONS IN SIXTY YEARS.

INCREASE OF POPULATION FROM AUGUST 1, 1790.

Local Divisions.	10 Years.	20 Years.	30 Years.	40 Years.	50 Years.	60 Years
1. New England States..	122.4	145.8	164.4	193.6	221.3	270.2
2. Middle States with District of Columbia....	136.2	186.3	240.2	310.4	382.7	495.4
3. Southern States.....	126.6	149.1	172.9	209.1	226.1	268.2
4. Southwestern States..	319.8	1,058.0	2,264.0	3,839.0	6,174.0	9,279.0
5. Northwestern States..	371.6	857.5	1,948.0	3.145.0	5,654.0	8,730.0
Total of the U. States..	135.0	184.2	245.3	327.4	434.5	490.1

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION INTO THE THREE CLASSES OF WHITES, FREE PERSONS OF COLOR, AND SLAVES, WITH THE DECENNIAL INCREASE OF EACH CLASS.

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.
Whites.....	3,172,464	4,304,489	5,362,004	7,861,937
Free colored	59,466	108,395	186,446	233,524
Slaves.	697,897	803,041	1,191,364	1,538,038
Total free	3,231,930	4,412,884	6,048,450	8,195,461
Total colored	757,363	1,001,436	1,377,810	1,771,562

	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites.....	10,537,378	14,195,695	19,553,068
Free colored	319,599	386,303	434,495
Slaves.....	2,009,043	2,487,455	3,204,313
Total free	10,856,977	14,581,998	19,987,563
Total colored	2,328,642	2,873,758	3,638,808

DECENNIAL INCREASE.

	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites.....	35.68	36.18	34.12	34.03	34.72	37.74
Free colored.....	82.28	72.00	25.25	36.86	20.87	12.47
Slaves	28.1	33.04	29.10	30.62	23.81	28.82
Total free	97.72	37.06	35.05	32.47	34.31	37.07
Total colored ..	32.23	37.58	28.59	31.45	23.41	26.62

THE RELATIVE PROPORTION OF THE THREE CLASSES AT EACH CENSUS FROM 1790 TO 1850.

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.
Whites.....	80.7	81.1	81.0	81.5	81.9	83.1	84.3
Free colored...	1.5	2.1	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.3	1.9
Slaves	17.8	16.8	16.4	16.0	15.6	14.6	13.8
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

By which the whites have gained and the colored population have lost 3.6 per cent in sixty years, and the free population have gained and the slaves have lost 4 per cent.

CHAPTER III.

PROPORTION BETWEEN THE SEXES.

The seventh census exhibits the same preponderance as its predecessors, of males until the age of 70, with the single exception of the class from 15 to 20, in which, as well as in the census of 1830 and 1840, there is an excess of females of about 5 per cent. In the census of 1850 the difference of the sexes between those two ages is only about 2½ per cent. This concurrence in three different enumerations indicates some general cause for the exception. Can that cause be a greater mortality of males at that age, or is a portion of the females of more than 20 placed in this class? So far as this question is affected by immigration, it tends to increase the proportion of males, as the male immigrants exceed the female at every age. In this census as well as the preceding, after the age of 70 the females exceed the males until the age of 100 is passed, when the males again preponderate. But we could not safely deduce any general law from this last exception, unless we know the several places of birth in these rare cases of longevity.

The number of females for every 100 males in the last census—

Of the white population is	95.0
Of the free colored	108.2
Of the slaves	99.9

This showing an excess of males in the whites, an excess of females in the free colored, and an equality of the two in the slaves.

In both classes of the colored population the females exceed the males in those who are under one year of age, who are between one and five, and those who are between five and ten. Thus:—

	FREE COLORED.		SLAVES.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Children under 1 year	5,576	5,600	39,343	41,266
Children between 1 and 5	24,743	24,902	227,745	232,140
Children between 5 and 10	28,816	29,246	239,163	239,925
Total under 10	59,125	59,748	496,251	513,331

Showing an excess of females under ten in both the colored classes of something more that 1 per cent.

In this respect the last census differs from those of 1830 and 1840, in which the males under 10, both of the free colored class and the slaves, exceed the females. In the census of 1820, also, the males in both classes of the colored children under 14 exceed the females. If the census should, from its supposed greater accuracy, be deemed sufficient to overrule the preceding enumerations, a deviation from what appears to be a general law as to sex, seems to merit further inquiry. Supposing the fact established, is it referable to race, or must its cause remain among the unsolved problems of physiology respecting sex?

The white males which, according to the census of 1840, exceed the females 209,424, by the last census exceed them by more than twice the amount—499,736. In like manner the females of the free colored class which in 1840 exceeded the males 7,271, by the last census exceed them 17,044. This increased excess of white males was caused by the great increase of white immigrants, and the increased excess of free colored females was caused by the greater emigration of that class, of which emigrants by far the larger part are males.

Art. IV.—THE PROFITS AND WASTES OF AGRICULTURE.*

I INVITE you to notice with me some commonplace facts and practical suggestions touching the profits and wastes of agriculture in Massachusetts. I do this confidently, under the impression that I have the fortune, distinguished though common in this country and rare in most other lands, to address an assembly of practical men. Everything in agriculture that is not practical, is pernicious, or at least useless. There are no good theories whose value cannot be demonstrated by experiments. The farmer whose return is less than his expenditures, whether the deficit shows itself in diminished crops or in exhausted lands, is not a practical man, and does not deserve the professional name he bears.

On the other hand, he who improves his land, but at such an expense as to cause a demand upon his other resources, if he is a man of wealth, or to burden him with a debt if he is not, is of little benefit to the pursuit he has chosen. It is easy in every branch of industry to demonstrate that unusual things may be done, but it cannot be said that such experiments are worthy of imitation until the question of profit is favorably settled. So in agriculture.

Amateurs have their place and real value. They demonstrate the feasibility of new projects, and practical men may sometimes take up these experiments and demonstrate their economy. But the useful, practical farmer, is he who so manages his affairs as to improve his farm, increase his products each year, realize a return sufficient to meet all his expenditures, and then have a balance in hand equal to the interest on his investment. That is to say, he demonstrates that the profession is a paying one, and shows at the same time the process by which it is made so. Such a man is to be numbered among the benefactors of his race. In his hands, the business is an interest; for the majority of farmers desire to so manage their affairs as to realize an adequate support for their families; and, as a whole, this branch of industry ought to show a better result. But, beyond this, there is a public expectation concerning agriculture which cannot be realized unless the business is profitable. If agriculture is indeed hopeless in this respect, then one result awaits it—extinction as a leading pursuit of the people. The profits of agriculture are taken to be small, and so they are; but it is likewise true that the profits of all other branches of business are small also.

Massachusetts is more than two hundred years old; in all her history she has been blessed by an enterprising, industrious population; yet the aggregate accumulation of these two centuries of labor and economy is only six hundred dollars for each person. Three years of non-production would make her poorer than she was the day the May Flower first gave herself to the icy gales of our coast.

There was even then great wealth in Massachusetts, according to the standard of civilization, in unbroken forests and a soil comparatively fertile. This wealth we and our fathers have consumed or so appropriated, that it appears in the valuation of the State. But however this

* We are indebted to Hon. GEORGE S. BOUTWELL, late Governor of Massachusetts, for the manuscript copy of his address, which was lately delivered before the Housatonic Agricultural Society, on the "Profits and Wastes of Agriculture." It is an able, carefully prepared article, and will be read with interest.

now may be regarded, it is plain that rapid accumulation, as a whole, has not been our fortune thus far; nor has it been the fortune of any American State, if from the aggregate valuation proper deductions are made for the original wealth which civilization has appropriated to its own uses. Moreover, as regards Massachusetts, one-half of its valuation in 1850 was added in the preceding ten years. A part of this addition came directly from labor, the source of all wealth; but another, and possibly the larger part, came from labor indirectly, and was manifested in the increased market value of real estate in cities and manufacturing towns. This appreciation of prices is sometimes deceptive; yet, as much property may have been omitted in the valuation, it is fair to assume that Massachusetts was worth six hundred millions of dollars in 1850.

The profits of business are also much over-estimated. There are successful merchants, mechanics, and manufacturers, who accumulate fortunes in short periods of time; but there are larger numbers who accumulate nothing, and more even, who are ruined in the race. Hence, it is unwise to infer the general profits of business from examples of great fortunes, which are few in comparison with the number of persons who enter the lists.

There are also examples of farmers who have accumulated wealth by their skill and industry, aided perhaps by an advance in the price of their real estate; and if the number of these is small compared with the number of wealthy men in other pursuits, so the number of those who fail entirely is small compared with the same class in the departments of which I have spoken.

As there is more certainty and more uniformity in agriculture than in other business, its profits have been more accurately determined. But, as I shall have occasion to say, they have been over-estimated in agriculture, while everywhere else they are vastly exaggerated. It is plain, from the single fact of the valuation of Massachusetts, that the proceeds of labor and trade over the support of the persons dependent thereon, are very small. Yet the farmers of Massachusetts have managed to retain in their own hands about the share of property to which, upon a basis of numbers, they would be entitled.

In 1850, according to the census, there were 55,082 farmers, and their numbers would have entitled them to one-fourth of the property of the State, or one hundred and fifty millions of dollars. At that time their farms were valued at one hundred and nine millions, live stock at nine-and-a-half millions, and agricultural implements at three-and-one-fourth millions more—in all, one hundred and twenty-two millions. If, in addition to this, it can be assumed that they had, on an average, five hundred dollars invested in notes, bonds, and stocks, we account for their share of the property of Massachusetts in their own hands. This fact is material, as showing the relation of agriculture to all other branches of business considered together. It is an average business even in Massachusetts, so far as wealth is concerned, while in health, happiness, and certainty, it is superior to any.

If, however, it is necessary to make some deduction from this estimate, we may find compensation for it in the fact that farmers, as a class, are freer from debt than any other portion of our population. Is it not true, then, that agriculture is now a fair profession? On one side of our farmers is a small number of wealthy men, and on the other side there are large

classes of poor men. I congratulate them that it is their fortune to have avoided both extremes, for they are thereby saved from complaint or repentance.

The average profits of farming are small, but the extremes are very great. A farmer, writing from the county of Norfolk, says that the profit there is very small—one, two, or three per cent—and then qualifies his statement by saying that he thinks it too high. But the same year a farmer from Worcester county presents an example which yielded thirteen-and-a-half per cent, after payment of labor. This difference ought not to appear. Of course, those farmers who cultivate land of the first quality, or reside near markets, will have an advantage over others; but we find in the same neighborhood the greatest diversity in results. In Commerce and manufactures there are great hazards, and men of skill are sometimes ruined, while those of ordinary capacities succeed. The hazards of farming are small. The seasons have, of course, great influence, but it is a general influence, affecting alike the fortunes of farmers in the same vicinity. It is not, therefore, in the nature of things, that of two farms in the same region, managed with equal skill, one should yield a profit of thirteen and the other of two per cent a year. But it does not admit of doubt that in the hands of some men, farming, even in Massachusetts, is a profitable pursuit; but this is not the general rule. The returns give an average net income of four-and-a-half per cent; but even this statement is not sustained by the examination I have made. If you allow liberal prices for the produce of 1850, and assume the growth of wood to be one cord per acre, and value it at one dollar and fifty cents per cord, the gross receipts from the farms of the State did not exceed twenty millions of dollars. There were, according to the returns, 55,000 farmers, besides occasional laborers. If you allow each farmer three hundred dollars for his services, the result is sixteen-and-a-half millions of dollars.

To this, add one million more for the labor of 20,000 women, at one hundred dollars each. Here is an expenditure of seventeen-and-a-half millions of dollars, leaving a balance of only two-and-a-half with which to meet incidental expenses and pay a per cent on the investment. The conclusion from these facts is, that the net income on the agricultural capital of the State does not exceed two per cent. This is an unsatisfactory result, and if it is a necessary one, the sooner our young farmers emigrate the better for them.

But it is due to agriculture and to the best interests of the Commonwealth that a careful examination be made, for the question of profit underlies all others. If agriculture from necessity is an unprofitable pursuit, then no general reason in its favor can be offered to young men who are choosing a profession. The facts and experience at my command do not enable me to examine the subject properly; yet I propose to pursue it with the aid of the materials within my reach.

As a result of small profits, many farmers are without active capital in their business, and the want of capital leads in turn to yet smaller profits. Others who have capital, decline to invest in agriculture, from an apprehension that the returns will be inadequate. Now capital, active capital, is as necessary in farming as in Commerce or manufactures; yet the majority have very little. There are, however, many farmers who can command reasonable sums of money, and it is their duty to show that it may be profitably used in the profession. When a farmer realizes nothing

from his investment besides the support of his family, he is destitute of the means of making the repairs and alterations, and of availing himself of the improvements in implements and modes of culture which are essential to his success.

If a farmer has not a barn cellar, or a suitable and comfortable barn, he needs money to build one. He needs ready money to pay for labor and tools, for fencing and reclaiming lands, and for the purchase of stock when it is low, that he may have the advantage of changes in the markets. Without money none of these things can be well done; and low profits have put it out of the power of a majority of farmers to avail themselves of these benefits which, if within their reach, would make a basis for yet larger profits in the future. Yet the prevailing idea of small profits leads farmers of means to lend their money or invest it in stocks, from a belief that improvements in agriculture will not pay. This policy is, of course, an exhausting and impoverishing one, and as a result, many farms are in a neglected condition, whose owners are proprietors of stock or enders of money.

Under this impression, a class, and a pretty large class, seek only to make the two ends of the year meet. Indeed, they do not even dream that they might do better. The admitted fact of small profits and the prevalent belief that they cannot be increased, are serious obstacles to such progress as is really practicable. But it is not true that agriculture is depressed beyond hope of recovery. One of the first things to be done is to economize labor; and as I am not here specially to compliment my hearers, I feel at liberty to say that farmers are often too indifferent to the changes which have been made in tools and modes of culture within the last twenty years. Labor is as high on the farm as elsewhere, and there is as much necessity for economy there as in the shop or manufactory. Civilization has so increased the means and wants of men, that all the improvements in machinery have failed to limit in the least the demand for manual labor. In truth, there is an increasing demand, which promises to render those who have labor to sell more independent than those who have labor to buy.

Under these circumstances, it is a plain duty as well as positive interest, to realize the greatest possible result from the investment in labor. Care should, of course, be taken to avoid those changes and innovations which are not improvements; and for this the judgment of the farmer will be a sufficient guide, if he is acquainted with what is going in the world. And the best security, gentlemen, for this, is to take and pay for the newspapers. The prevalence of the idea we are now discussing deters young men from settling at home, and of course encourages emigration to the West. It must be admitted that the chances of success are greater in the new than in the old States; but a New England man who emigrates ought to secure many positive and valued advantages as compensation for inevitable and appreciable losses. He abandons society and institutions whose purpose and character are defined and approved, and casts his lot with men whose experience is in the highest degree unlike his own. Under these circumstances, he cannot possibly anticipate his position. He exchanges a certainty for an uncertainty. He may gain by the change, but he may lose. But, as a State, we have a right to look at this subject in another view. The emigration of a young, intelligent, able-bodied man is a public loss. Massachusetts has already suffered in this respect; and while we rejoice in

the prosperity of the West, it is our duty to maintain, as far as possible, the character and position of our own State. Emigration has depressed agriculture, and this depression has again stimulated emigration by furnishing new and stronger evidence that the life of a farmer in Massachusetts is without hope.

A State is not advancing when the proportion of native freehold farmers is diminishing. To be sure there may be an appearance of prosperity, but there is always danger that its foundations are unstable. In 1800, 67 per cent of the laborers of England were employed upon the land; now the proportion is only 27 per cent. In Massachusetts there was a relative loss from 1840 to 1850 of about 15 per cent. We are then presented with two remarkable, and in some aspects inconsistent facts. First, farming is not in Massachusetts a profitable pursuit; and secondly, our farmers possess the share of property to which, upon a basis of numbers, they are entitled. The first fact is generally admitted, and the second is to be explained by the consideration that our agriculturists are more economical than any other part of our population. But if the depression of which we have spoken is unavoidable and permanent, then this interest is without hope in New England, and we must await the conclusion of a process fraught with ruin, not only to agriculture, but to other branches of industry. It is possible, however, that the errors of the past are evidence of a better future; and it is now my purpose to present some facts calculated to show, if they do not prove, that the wastes of agriculture are equal to a fair income upon the one hundred and twenty millions of dollars invested. These facts are drawn from the experience of Massachusetts, but I have no doubt that the experience of all the old States of the Union can furnish similar ones. Yet it is not possible to present every loss resulting from bad management, or indolence, or ignorance, and I hope, therefore, only to make it doubtful whether agriculture is necessarily the most unprofitable of professions, trusting that you may follow the suggestions of the hour, if in your judgment they are worthy of it, with such theories and processes as shall determine the question.

I. Farmers cultivate too much Land. This observation is old, for it is so true, and its truth is so apparent, that it must needs be old. For the reason that the manufacturer economizes his power of water or steam, or the trader his capital by diminishing his credits, or the merchant his voyages by increasing the speed of his vessels, the farmer should limit the amount of land in cultivation as far as practicable. It is true to an extent much beyond the common opinion that the cost of a crop per ton or per bushel is diminished as the aggregate per acre is increased. That is to say, a bushel of corn at twenty per acre costs more than a bushel at eighty. The same observation is true of every product of the land. The agriculture of Massachusetts from 1840 to 1850 was a process of deterioration and exhaustion. It was altogether a retrograde movement, and the lessening crop per acre, year by year, was so serious as to threaten the existence of the interest. It is hoped that the present decennial period will show a better result. In the year 1850 we cultivated 2,133,436 acres, and allowing one acre for twenty bushels of wheat, for fifteen bushels of rye, for sixty of corn, for forty of oats, for one hundred and fifty of potatoes, for thirty of barley, for one and a half tons of hay, for one hundred dollars' worth of orchard products, for two hundred dollars' worth of garden products, and seven acres for the pasturage of every horse, five acres

for every ox, four for every cow, two acres each for young cattle, one acre each for sheep, and allowing liberally for other crops and uses, the product of that year ought to have been obtained from 1,772,581 acres, showing a loss of the use of 360,855 acres, equal to about 17 per cent of the land in cultivation. This loss is obtained upon the aforegoing calculation of crops, but as I shall have occasion to say hereafter, the loss will appear much greater if compared with the returns of 1840, when the actual results exceeded the estimate I have now made.

The first waste to be pointed out is the use of this large quantity of land, which, if allowed to run to wood merely, would yield an annual average of one cord per acre, or 360,000 cords per annum. If this wood be estimated at one dollar and fifty cents per cord, you have an annual loss or waste of $540,000. In the next place this great quantity of land would be much benefited by allowing it to lie idle, for it is a general rule that nature yields a growth and improves the land at the same time, while what often passes for husbandry leaves the land poorer than it finds it. Now then, let this area of land rest for forty years untouched by the hand of man, and it will yield an aggregate of twenty millions of dollars, while its productive power for the future will be greatly increased.

II. As a consequence of this system, the farmers of Massachusetts fence, plow, sow, and mow six acres, when they ought to fence, plow, sow, and mow but five; and in fine, they extend all their agricultural operations over 17 per cent more land than is necessary to the result they attain. Here is a manifest loss of labor—a waste where there ought to be the strictest economy. It may not be easy to estimate this waste accurately, but it is plain that it materially diminishes the profits of this branch of industry. We have already estimated the entire cost of our agricultural labor at sixteen-and-a-half millions of dollars. It is moderate to say that one-eighth of this is wasted in the cultivation of 17 per cent more land than is necessary to the crop; but to avoid any unreasonable calculations, it may be well to put the loss at one-sixteenth, or one million of dollars. Be it remembered that the gross proceeds of agriculture do not exceed twenty millions of dollars, and of this at least one million is wasted in the misapplication of labor. Nor is this all. We shall have occasion to say that this misapplication of labor is followed by a more serious loss in the exhaustion of the land. But what would be said of a manufacturer who should be guilty of wasting one-twentieth of his whole product in the application of his labor? If his labors finally resulted in bankruptcy, would he be entitled to public sympathy? Or would judicious men comdemn the business because it failed in such hands? It is a duty to economize labor. Labor is the scarcest and dearest commodity in the market, and so it is likely to continue.

III. This waste of labor is followed by a waste of land. When we cultivate more land than we ought for the crop we get, the process of cultivation is necessarily defective and bad. This was the character of our farming through the whole of the last decennial period. As the land under bad cultivation loses heart and strength, more and more is required to meet the demand we make. So then, from 1840 to 1850, we not only cultivated more land than we ought, but we actually consumed it at the rate of many thousand acres a year. The produce of 1840 was much greater than that of 1850, yet we had 2,133,436 acres in cultivation at the latter period, and only 1,875,211 acres at the former. The product of

1840, at the rates before named would have required 2,317,696 acres, while they were really produced from 1,875,211 acres, showing that my estimate of the capacity of our soil under ordinary care was too low. If you take the excess of the crop of 1840 over that of 1850, and according to the rates before named, find the quantity of land necessary to produce that excess, and add that quantity to the acres in cultivation in 1850, and you have 2,507,353 acres, or 632,142 acres more than were cultivated in 1840. These statistics demonstrate two facts—one absolutely and the other approximately. First, that during the last decennial period our lands continually depreciated in productive power; and secondly, that that depreciation was equivalent to the annihilation of 63,000 acres of land a year, or nearly 3 per cent of the value of the farms of the State, exclusive of buildings and woodland.

In fine, it appears that in 1850 we were cultivating 632,142 acres more than we should have been if the production of 1840 had been sustained; 360,855 acres more than would have been necessary at the rates before assumed; and also that the impoverishing culture from 1840 to 1850 was equal to an annual waste of 63,214 acres, which was apparent in the diminished total product, and in the increased quantity of land in use. This waste may be estimated with considerable accuracy. The farms of the State were valued at $109,076,377. Two-and-nine-tenths of 1 per cent, the exact proportion which the annual waste bore to the quantity in cultivation, is $3,163,145. But if you allow that one-half of the total value of our farms is in woodland and buildings, the depreciation was $1,581,572 per annum. But whatever may have been the exact depreciation, it is plain that our culture from 1840 to 1850 was an exhausting one—the acres continually increasing and the production diminishing. These facts demonstrate what it is unpleasant to believe, and yet more unpleasant to say, that the farmers of Massachusetts, of that period, could not as a class be called good farmers. Good culture benefits land—bad culture exhausts it.

During the ten years to which our statistics refer, the culture of the State was bad. Land reclaimed from the water and the forest was not used to increase production, but its native fertility was required to supply those crops which our exhausted and abused fields refused to furnish. The process of our agriculture was that of a corporation which uses its capital in dividends, or of a merchant who lives beyond his means, and it tended to the same result—bankruptcy. The idea that cropping land necessarily exhausts it is an erroneous one, and it is, moreover, a reflection upon the Creator, who has provided for the support of his children, and not for their extinction by the exhaustion of the powers of nature.

The good farmer will so manage his acres that their productive power will yearly increase, and this he should do even though his acres in cultivation diminished.

I beg, in concluding this part of my address, to present an aggregate of the wastes to which I have already called your attention:—

1st. The annual income from the growth of wood on 360,855 acres of land more than was necessary to the crop of 1850	$540,000
2d. Loss of labor in cultivating this excess of land	1,000,000
3d. Loss of land per year by exhausting culture	1,581,572
Total	$3,121,572

This waste is equal to two-and-nine-tenths of 1 per cent on the value of the farms, and if it had been saved and added to the actual income, that income would have amounted to 5 per cent a year. Admit that the calculations I have presented are true, and admit, also, what I am sure is not true, that all the wastes have been stated, and all the profits of farming enumerated, and even then the result to which we come is not an unsatisfactory one, for we are to consider that an investment in land which pays for the labor and other expenses bestowed upon it, and yields an annual income of 5 per cent besides, is as good an investment as can be made. Here is no risk of frauds and bankruptcy, as when you purchase stocks or lend money. It is to be considered that this result has been attained without reference to an improved cultivation, which is to follow the dissemination of scientific and practical knowledge among farmers. The view taken contemplates only that amount of skill which the farmers of Massachusetts are known to possess, and it is my desire further to show that its proper exercise will place them above the evil of low profits.

In farming, three things are necessary: skill, labor, and implements. Proceeding upon the basis that the skill of our farmers is sufficient for the present inquiry, I have next to say that there is as much labor employed upon the farms of Massachusetts as there ought to be when we consider the claims of other branches of industry. The great practical question is to so economize it as to produce the best results.

The skillful farmer makes a judicious selection of his implements, and keeps them in good order. We can no more afford to work with poor tools than the manufacturer can afford to use worn or antiquated machinery.

Among the agencies, if not among the implements employed in agriculture in this region, we are certainly to reckon manures. They are to the farm what water or steam is to the mill. As the want of these, or their excessive cost, ruins the manufacturer, so the want of manure, or its great cost, hurries the farmer to the same end.

The advance made in agricultural knowledge in the last five years, has changed public sentiment on this point, yet it is feared that the remedy has been found in the purchase of expensive manures from abroad, rather than in the prudent husbandry of the resources we have at home. And the conclusion of this address will be devoted to an inquiry into the amount of waste in this respect in Massachusetts.

If it is profitable farming to purchase guano, phosphates, and animal manures from abroad, there is certainly no excuse for neglecting the means which every farmer can command at a small expense. He who neglects his harvest is hardly distinguished from the criminal, yet it is common to neglect the preparation on which the harvest depends.

A waste of manure is a waste of the elements, and renders it impossible for us to add to our crops, or to improve our land. The first thing, then, to be done, is to economize the manure we have at home, and there may then be hope of general and permanent improvement. It may be better to import manures than to be without them, but of all importations it is the least creditable to the country while the present customs remain. By the census of 1850, it appeared that there were 75,000 barns in the State, and the Secretary of the Board of Agriculture estimates the quantity of manure at five cords each, worth three dollars per cord, making a total of $1,125,000. If we assume, what appears liberal, that one-fourth of the

barns have cellars, it follows that three-fourths of this manure is exposed to atmospheric and other deteriorating influences. Many competent persons estimate the loss from this cause at one-half, but if it is only one-third, we show a waste from the exposure of manure of $281,250 per annum. Nor is this all. Without a barn-cellar it is impossible to secure the stale, which is nearly equal in value to the solid manure. Stockhardt estimates that of the manure of neat cattle 53 per cent is solid, and 47 per cent is stale. Farmers who neglect the latter ought not to be purchasers of foreign manures.

If the calculation of the Secretary is accurate, this waste is three-fourths of 47 per cent of $1,125,000, which is $748,230. Here is then an aggregate waste in the State in the matter of manures of $1,029,480, which might and ought to be saved. It may be mentioned, incidentally, as the observation of a practical farmer, and its truth has been established by experiments, that gravel, or subsoil, is a much better absorbent than soil which has been cultivated.

There are other losses of manures which amount to as much as that which has been mentioned. It is stated that there are three hundred thousand domestic fowls in the State, and their manure is superior to any except guano, and indeed is hardly inferior to that. Satisfactory experiments, made by competent persons in the counties of Worcester and Middlesex, show that this manure is sufficient for ten thousand acres of corn, and though it may be saved and prepared at very little cost, it is for the most part wasted. A few farmers have built reservoirs for the waste water of their houses, yet much the larger part neglect this means of wealth altogether. I think it safe to say that the farmers of Massachusetts neglect and waste more manure than they use, and the loss of a million of dollars in manure is followed by a loss of much labor, and many millions in the crop.

It is also practicable and economical for many farmers to avail themselves of manures or fertilizers from the shops and mills of the manufacturers. The dirt and waste of woolen factories is found to be a superior manure for potatoes. The liquor and deposit of the rag bleacheries are of inestimable value. They contain lime, soda, and whatever may be extracted from the rags. The value of this composition is apparent, and must be great in most sections of New England. An intelligent manufacturer and farmer, who has had many years' experience with this fertilizer, writes that when used upon land in the immediate vicinity of the bleachery, its value is equal to the cost of the lime and soda. There are also many other manufactories, from whose ordinary operations wealth, or the means of wealth, may be derived.

I have dwelt thus upon the wastes of agriculture for the purpose of showing that its profits may be materially increased, without the aid of that additional skill which we hope soon to acquire. We have not spoken of what may be done when agricultural science is better developed and more generally understood, but only of what can now be done by those changes in practice which, in the judgment of all good farmers, ought at once to be made. But we should not fix our minds so exclusively upon the profits of agriculture as to neglect the improvement of the landscape and scenery of Massachusetts. When we cultivate only so much land as we can cultivate well, and allow the rest to run to wood, our barren knolls, exhausted plains, and without pasture, will disappear, and the luxuriant

meadows, and lawns, and fields, rich with the promise of the harvest, or burdened by its weight, will add to the beauties of hill and mountain, green with the freshness of spring, or variegated by the frosts of autumn. And, gentlemen, indulge me further while I say, that it is not wise nor safe to accept the idea, sometimes suggested, that Massachusetts had better abandon her agriculture as a business, and trust to Commerce and manufactures. This we ought never to do. These latter branches are important, even essential, but they should not be the sole pursuits of any people. True prosperity does not rest upon any one branch of industry, and though Commerce and manufactures have brought great wealth to Massachusetts, they have not advanced her in those qualities which constitute her true renown more than has agriculture alone. Agriculture, gentlemen, can be made profitable even in Massachusetts. It is so in a limited number of instances, and it can be generally so if the farmers but will it. Let them seize upon the ingenuity and enterprise which distinguish our mechanics and merchants, and they will secure for the leading pursuit of the people the position to which it is entitled. The existence of agriculture in Massachusetts as the support of a large class of people is a question of profit, and it is for the farmers to so determine it, that our youth shall have courage to engage in a profession which promises a larger share of physical, moral, and intellectual health, than any of the other avocations of men.

Art. V.—COMMERCE OF THE CRIMEA.*

Some interest will be felt in knowing the nature and importance of the commercial relations kept up by the Russian province where the allied armies have already obtained a footing. The following sketch will give some idea on the subject:—

Let us first of all remark that the situation of the Crimea is admirable, situated, as it is, between the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff—that is to say, between the Danube on the west, the Dneiper on the north, and the Kuban on the east, all grand commercial affluents of the European continent, in its eastern portion, and of southern Russia, as likewise of the Caspian basin.

No position could be better for carrying on the international transactions of this part of the globe. The Crimea is, moreover, specially favored in its interior by mildness of its climate and by the fertility of a large portion of its territory, which is susceptible of every culture. In 1835, Mr. Schnitzler estimated its extent at 1,646 square miles, and its population at 400,000 inhabitants, about 100,000 of whom are Tartars—a race which is dwindling away and disappearing before the increase of the Christian population.

Corn, wine, cattle, wool, pelts and furs, hides, hemp, honey, oil, salt, and some fisheries—such are the chief elements composing the wealth of the land, where a transit trade also exists, since here corn and grain, ole-

* Translated from the *Journal des Debats.*

aginous seeds, tallow and grease, tobacco, silk, eastern tapestry, and the like, are brought for barter with the stuffs, sugar, hardware, and other articles wrought in Europe, more especially in Russia itself.

Corn constitutes the bulk of the exports from the Crimean harbors—these harbors being adjuncts, we may almost say dependents, on the harbor of Odessa, that granary of the Levant, or rather of southern Europe. According to the official reports for 1851 from the government of Taurida, the corn harvest had increased to 2,568,497 hectoliters. Ten years before it was hardly 1,000,000. It is particularly in the district of Berdiansk, peopled in part by foreign settlers, that the culture of the cereals is most developed, and it is thought that the entire basin of the Crimea, with that of the Sea of Azoff, may supply Commerce annually with 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 hectoliters. Moreover, the Crimea, in 1851, was found to possess nearly 2,000,000 sheep, half of which were fine-wooled, 248,260 head of horned cattle, and 85,700 horses.

The salt mines of Perekop and Eupatoria have some celebrity, and, although very inadequately worked, are a valuable source of wealth to the country. It is also well known what an importance the culture of the vine has acquired in the Crimea, especially the vineyards of Simpheropol, Yalto, and Theodosia. In 1851, their yield amounted to 83,798 hectoliters. The entire vintage of the Crimea—the greater part of which is consumed in the country, and the remainder of which is sold to customers in the provinces of southern Russia—may amount, it is said, to double the figure given above, that is, about 160,000 hectoliters.

The wines exported from the Crimea are, in general, of a secondary quality, and are chiefly used, like those from the Caucasus, for mixing with other wines or with other preparations. The rich vineyards of Prince Woronzoff are much praised. They yield a sparkling wine, something like Champagne. Brought originally from Hungary, the Rhine, and Burgundy, the plants to which the Crimea is now indebted for its wines have almost superseded the indigenous vine of the peninsula. M. de Tegoborski says that the Taurida possessed, in 1848, 35,577,000 vines, a number six times larger than what grew there sixteen years before. The Russian government has at all times made great efforts to develop the culture of the vine in the Crimea, and, to say the truth, it is almost the only culture which has acquired there any importance. Manufactures are at the lowest ebb. There are two or three factories for the weaving of common cloth, a few tanneries, and a few yards for making morocco (Russian?) leather, and that is all.

As for the value of the exchanges carried on in the entire basin of the Crimea and the Sea of Azoff, we will give the figures quoted in the *Annales du Commerce Exterieur*, the best authority on the subject, since it is formed either from foreign statistics, or from the correspondence of our consular and diplomatic agents. In 1841, the estimate was:—

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
Ports in the Crimea.....francs	780,000	2,308,000	3,088,000
Ports in the Sea of Azoff.....	5,208,000	22,088,000	27,296,000

Ten years later, in 1851, the value of the traffic of the Crimea was only 1,747,000 francs, a result showing a great diminution, and for the ports in the Sea of Azoff, 34,084,000 francs, which, on the contrary, shows a great increase. Kertch, placed on the straits separating the Crimea from the Transcaucasian provinces, and Taganrog, situated quite at the

bottom of the Sea of Azoff, count for much in this commercial total. They alone exported, in 1851, corn to the value of 7,564,000 francs—a sum almost equal to the aggregate amount from all the other ports.

We must not, however, measure the commercial activity in the ports of the Crimea and the Sea of Azoff simply by the results of the foreign trade. The coasting trade, which is there extremely active, would give almost an equal value of exchanges. The home trade is also of some importance in the Crimea, and it may be judged of by remarking that there are seventy-nine fairs held there every year. Goods to the value of 2,494,000 roubles (nearly 9,000,000 francs) were brought to them in 1851; and what is remarkable is the fact that, with the exception of the two fairs at Simpheropol, all of them are held in the northern districts, almost exclusively peopled with Christian agriculturists. To sum up, the foreign trade of the two seas, in 1851, employed 1,561 ships, carrying 400,000 tons; and the coasting trade may well have been three times larger.

The coasts of the Crimea offer, in fact, a large number of harbors, that in all times have been eminently useful to ships frequenting these difficult and sometimes dangerous seas. The chief harbors are Eupatoria, Theodosia or Kaffa, Kertch, and Sebastopol, to which we must add, as belonging to the same sphere of commercial activity, the ports in the Sea of Azoff, viz: Berdiansk, Mariopol, Rostoff, and Taganrog. The Genoese thoroughly understood the importance of such a line of coast when, towards the end of the 13th century, they purchased, or rather took, from the Mongol-Tartars the ancient Theodosia, spread their colonies over all Taurida, covered with their ships the shores of the Euxine, and founded Kaffa, which soon became the principal center of Europe's Commerce with Asia Minor, Persia, and the Indies.

Two centuries later, the Crimea was for a long time blighted, as it were, with sloth and sterility; its cultures, its Commerce pined away more and more through atrophy, and the yoke imposed upon it by the Muscovites in 1740 was little calculated to restore it. But, thanks to the franchise granted by the Empress Catherine to its ports subsequently, the peninsula saw its prosperity rapidly return. Unfortunately, the Czar Paul, through some malign inspiration, thought he ought to protect the Commerce of Taurida by canceling this franchise, and replacing it by an oppressive system of customs, with all their restrictive regulations. Nevertheless, the Crimea has progressed by the force of things, by its own elements of vitality, by the constant growth of the Christian population. And, now that the Black Sea and the mouths of the Danube, free at last, are about to be opened to navigation, to all the transactions of the western nations, we may look upon this country as destined for great things.

Art. VI.—THE USURY LAWS.

Public sentiment throughout the country has of late been directed more generally than ever before to the subject of a repeal or modification of the usury laws, and scarcely a leading journal, North or South, East or West, reaches us that does not urge a change in these superannuated enactments, and this, too, at a time when money has been commanding a high rate of interest. In all our commercial and industrial towns, the borrower and the lender, the capitalist and the customer, alike demand the entire abolition, or a radical modification of statutes so adverse to the principles of untrameled trade.

The usury laws in Great Britain have been for years gradually yielding to the requirements of industry and the demands of commercial and business men, until at the recent session of Parliament an act has been passed —known as chapter 90, 17, and 18 Victoria—and now in operation, by which it is lawful in the United Kingdom "to loan money at any rate of interest, and on any description of property, either real estate or otherwise." The bill passed the House of Lords on the 27th of July, 1854, was immediately brought forward in the House of Commons, and finally passed that body on the 5th of August, 1854, and, receiving the royal assent, it is now the law of the land.

Regarding this as one of the most important commercial measures of the age, we give the remarks made in the House of Lords on the second reading of the bill, as we find them reported in the London journals:—

The Marquis of Lansdowne moved the second reading of this bill. The inconveniences which had been found to result from the operation of the laws against usury had been so many and so great that, notwithstanding strong prejudices on the subject of usury and usurers, it had been found necessary to relax those laws from time to time. At the time of the commercial failures in the years 1836 and 1837, it was found that the greatest relief which was experienced was the result of a provision which had been introduced not long previously into the act for the renewal of the Bank Charter, enabling the Bank of England to dispense with the usury laws.

In consequence of this he (the Marquis of Lansdowne) had been induced to take charge of a bill in that house, by which, with respect to bills of exchange, and other securities of that description, the rate of interest was to be indefinitely extended. Considerable apprehension, however, was expressed as to the probable effect of such a law; and it was only passed at that time as a temporary measure. Nor were those apprehensions altogether removed for many years, although the difficulties and inconveniences which had been anticipated were not found to result from it. People could not be brought to believe that money was as much a commodity as any ordinary article of produce; that its value must be regulated, like the value of any other commodity, by the ordinary principles of demand and supply; and that it was as impossible to fix the rate of interest at which it should be lent as to fix the price at which corn and butter should be sold.

This prejudice, however, had gradually disappeared, and the object of this bill was, as the same considerations applied to land and other property as applied to bills of exchange, to apply to them the same legislation. People were not deterred from raising money upon such securities at a higher rate of interest than five per cent by the present state of the law; but they had recourse to collusive practices and fraudulent proceedings in order to evade its operation. The inconveniences to which this led were very seriously felt in England, but they were much more seriously felt in Ireland, where the circumstances of many estates

were such that it was impossible to borrow money upon them within the limits which the usury laws present. The result was that annuities were granted, and various subterfuges and contrivances were resorted to, and, in the end, a much higher rate was paid than if the money could have been had, at its market value, upon a mortgage in the usual way. The usury laws, in fact, did no good whatever, but they produced great inconvenience; they affected to do what all the powers of the legislature could not do—to apply a different principle to one description of commodity from that which was applied to every other, and they interfered with the principle of supply and demand.

Having referred to Calvin as among the distinguished men who had doubted their policy, and to Jeremy Bentham as having dealt the first great blow against them, the noble marquis concluded by expressing an earnest hope that their lordships would consent to the second reading of the bill.

Lord Campbell expressed his great satisfaction that the usury laws were about to be entirely swept away. From his long experience in courts of justice, he could bear testimony to the mischievous effects which they produced. They had been practically swept away in all cases except where real security was given; but in the cases in which they were retained, they led to a good deal of litigation, and proved most disastrous, and even ruinous to those whom they were avowedly intended to protect. They had given a great deal of employment to the Encumbered Estates Court in Ireland, and he believed that many estates in Ireland which might otherwise have been disencumbered, had been brought to the hammer through the operation of those laws.

Lord Brougham supported the bill, both on mercantile and moral grounds.

The Lord Chancellor also supported the bill. The usury laws could always be defeated by a person who was willing to resort to something which bordered upon fraud. Building societies had been exempted from their operation in order to encourage the industrious classes to make small weekly or monthly investments out of their earnings. But the exemption had been taken advantage of by people who had capital to lay out, and who found that by making use of these societies, they could obtain real security for their money without being subject to the restrictions which the usury laws imposed. This fact had been brought prominently before him in a case which had occupied his attention in the Court of Chancery during the last two or three days, and he thought it was a strong reason for placing these laws upon a rational footing, and for enabling people to do openly and directly what they could now accomplish by indirect and crooked means.

Lord Redesdale would not oppose the second reading of the bill, but thought it ought to have been introduced earlier in the session, that there might have been more time for consideration.

The Marquis of Lansdowne said every matter of detail had been omitted from the bill, and the principle was one which did not require any long discussion.

On the 5th of October, 1854, Caleb Barstow, Esq., chairman of a committee of the New York Chamber of Commerce, made a report to that body, embracing a most able argument in favor of a repeal or radical change in our usury laws, in adopting which the Chamber were unanimous as to abolishing these laws on all commercial paper, and on all ordinary business contracts, and were also unanimous as to the entire ground covered by the report.*

Subsequently the Chamber of Commerce recommended, without a dissenting vote, (at their meeting November 2d,) the subjoined memorial to the Legislature of the State of New York. As this memorial will be preseted to the next Legislature, we publish it entire, with the earnest hope that the prayer of the memorialists may be granted, or that the Legisla-

* See pamphlet report of Mr. Barstow, page 15.

ture will give us a law in keeping with the generally wise and exemplary commercial legislation of the Empire State.

To the Honorable the Legislature of the State of New York, in Senate and Assembly convened:—

The memorial of the undersigned, citizens of the State of New York, respectfully represents,

That the present laws of this State regulating the rate of interest are undoubtedly the most severe of any usury laws in the commercial world. That this severity has utterly failed of producing the end for which it was intended, or any other useful end, all experience having shown that any increased restriction, or attempted restriction, has never failed to enhance the price for the use of money during the existence of any money pressure, to which all commercial communities are occasionally liable.

That in addition to this increase in the rates of interest, the provisions of our present usury laws lead to circuitous devices and discreditable subterfuges and stratagems to evade them.

And these evasions are attempted by persons unmindful of the fact, that inasmuch as both parties can be made to testify in an action under this law, they cannot evade the penalty without a false oath, provided a prosecutor does his duty. All this has a demoralizing tendency, and can only result in evil.

Your memorialists, therefore, humbly pray that all the usury laws of this State may be abolished, retaining only a fair maximum rate to govern in the absence of a contract between borrower and lender, also a fair rate to accrue on a judgment in law, after its rendition.

Your memorialists would, at this point, respectfully suggest that this freedom can be extended to our banks with great benefit to our business community.

Those institutions, blended as they are with all the leading interests of society, are pre-eminently serviceable in the encouragement of credit and in the promotion of all the useful enterprises of the day. They are managed by men whose interest, as a general rule, must of necessity harmonize with the pecuniary interests of the community at large.

Even those who have favored restrictive usury laws, admit that banks are subjected to expenses and risks peculiar to that business. They are required to have a specie basis, and to conform to rigid requisitions of law in a way deemed necessary for the protection of the currency and for the protection of the commercial interests of the people. Hence, they argue that in any relaxation granted, banks ought not to be excluded.

Loans secured by mortgages of real estate should also, in the opinion of your memorialists, be allowed to enjoy the benefit of the wholesome competition among lenders that would immediateiy ensue from the relaxation now sought for.

Your memorialists, in conclusion, most respectfully advance the opinion that no matter whether money be called a commodity or not a commodity, parties owning it should be as entirely free from legal restraint in paying it away, or receiving it for the use of other money, as they are in parting with it or receiving it for any other service, or for any commodity or any gratuity whatever.

Thus entertaining the full opinion that our usury laws, as they now stand, have disappointed all hopes of their useful operation, your memorialists would humbly pray that a law may be enacted like the one herewith submitted:—

AN ACT REGULATING THE RATE OF INTEREST ON THE LOAN OR FORBEARANCE OF MONEY.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:—

SECTION 1. No grant, transfer, bond, note, bill of exchange, contract, or agreement, or loan, or forbearance of any money, goods, or things in action, shall be

void by reason of any paying or receiving, or agreement to pay or allow such rate of interest as the parties may agree upon.

Sec. 2. In all cases where the rate of interest is not specified, the interest shall continue to be at the rate of seven dollars upon one hundred dollars for one year, and after that rate for a greater or less sum, or for a longer or shorter time.

Sec. 3. No greater rate of interest than is specified in the second section of this act shall be charged on any judgment after the date of the rendition thereof, entered in any of the courts of this State, although such judgment may have been founded upon a writing stipulating a higher rate of interest.

Sec. 4. So much of title third, chapter fourth, and part second of the Revised Statutes, and so much of the laws of 1837, chapter 430, as are inconsistent with the provisions of this act, are hereby repealed.

Sec. 5. This act shall take effect immediately.

Art. VII.—THE COTTON TRADE.

The events of the past year have shown the utter insignificance of Russia as a commercial power. With all her ports blockaded on the Baltic, the White and the Black seas, the prices of merchandise have been scarcely disturbed. The demand for cotton, that great barometer of Commerce, has been undiminished. Though the peace of Germany, Sweden, Greece, and Italy had been threatened, no falling off in the English exports has been experienced. All the operations of Commerce move on undisturbed, just as they did in our war with Mexico. The price of hemp, tallow, sheet-iron, and a few unimportant articles, has been affected, but no great important interest in the commercial world has been seriously injured.

The consumption of cotton has, indeed, slightly declined in England, France, and on the continent; but so small is this decline, that it is fully explained by other causes well known and understood. The deliveries to the trade at Liverpool have only fallen off from 1,430,000 bales to 1,424,000 bales, up to the 7th of October. At Havre, the consumption was 27,000 bales less than it had been in 1853 at the end of the first half of the year, but part of this loss has since been regained; the exports from the United States and England to the continent of Europe have decreased more than either of these amounts; but this decrease is not over 100,000 bales.

If war, the deficient harvests in England, France, and Germany, and the consequent high prices of provisions, be considered, the wonder is that the decline in the consumption of cotton has not been larger from this cause alone than has been really experienced.

Russia may be a great country in territory, or population, or agricultural resources, but as a commercial power she is utterly insignificant.

The events of the past year have also shown the immense benefits which have already been received from the mines of California and Australia, and go far to establish the fact that a sensible appreciation in prices is already observable, from the large supply of the precious metals.

In former wars, the extra demand for specie for the military chests of the armies disturbed very much the currency of the war-making powers, and while it depreciated property generally, raised the price of wheat and

flour and other articles of this kind. The present war, though not less expensive, has hardly been felt in the monetary world. The extra expenditures of England have exceeded fifty millions of dollars; of France, about the same; of Austria, a large sum; and both Russia and Turkey have had heavy outlays of an extraordinary character. Amidst all, the price of English consols has not fallen over five or six per cent, the circulation of the Bank of England has not materially declined, the specie in her vaults has decreased only four millions sterling, and the demand for money has not largely increased either in Europe or America.

The rate of interest was, indeed, raised considerably in England, but this was due mainly to their deficient harvests. The stringency in their money market produced its effect in the United States, on account of our close connection with Liverpool and London, and of our large over-trading and borrowing in the preceding year.

The extra demand for coin for the support of distant, large, and expensive armies, has thus had but a slight influence on Commerce, and this can only be explained by the large supply of gold from the new fields which America and Australia have opened to the world.

The two facts that have now been referred to are of great importance in considering the demand and supply of cotton. If Russia is of small influence as a commercial power, the slight decline in the consumption of cotton during the past year is not due to the war; and if the extraordinary supply of the precious metals suffices to meet the extra demands made by distant and expensive armies, the fair and steady prices we have received for our exports have been due to the regular and legitimate demands of trade to meet the actual wants of the world. And if the war only affects, in the slightest degree, both the demand and the rate for cotton, our expectations for the coming year may be based on the usual circumstances that have heretofore influenced the consumption and the price of cotton.

In the United States, the purchases made by the Northern manufacturers have declined in 1854, if we compare them with 1853. This falling off is over 60,000 bales. But the amounts used by the factories have not probably been much less than during the preceding year. The tightness in our money market this summer compared with last, has made the Northern manufacturers lay in but small supplies, so that the stocks in their hands are very low. The prosperity, North and South, of all branches of the cotton manufacture, forbids the belief that the wants of 1855 will decline.

The average consumption for the three years ended			1845, were.....	bales 354,000
"	"	"	1848	461,000
"	"	"	1851	469,000
"	"	"	1854	628,000

650,000 bales will be needed for 1855, against 611,000 and 671,000 for the last two years.

The deliveries to the trade at Liverpool, which constitute over 95 per cent of the English consumption, have suffered no decline for the present year. In the earlier part of the season they were less than in 1853, but this loss has been entirely recovered.

On the 30th of June these deliveries were 904,000 bales, against 989,000 of the year before. During the months of July and August this deficiency remained about the same. On the 14th of July it was 90,000 bales; on

the 18th of August, 86,000; and on the 25th, 89,000 bales. About this time the favorable influence of the fine harvests began to be felt, and the deficiency has lessened every week since. On the 9th of September it was 58,000 bales; on the 23d, 37,000; and on the 30th, only 20,000 bales. On the 13th of October the consumption for 1854 was 1,456,600 bales, against 1,460,000 for 1853, exhibiting a decrease of only 4,000 bales. For the whole year we may expect no decline, and as the consumption of 1853 was 1,904,000, against 1,861,000 bales of 1852, the amount for 1854 will be above rather than below 1,900,000.

For 1855, even supposing the war to continue, we may anticipate an increase. The favorable harvests in England and on every part of the continent, and the moderate prices which are likely to prevail, will increase the demand for cotton goods. The prosperity of the agricultural interest, as well as every department of manufactures, will exert a favorable influence. In every part of the world, excepting only the United States and China, the demand for the English exports will be large, and in these two countries only a slight check will be experienced. The scarcity of money, the uncertainties connected with the war, the hesitating and undecided position of the German States, will be drawbacks on the other side; but, taking both into consideration, we may reckon the wants of Great Britain as not less than two millions of bales for 1855.

For France the consumption for the coming year will be as large as in any former year. The slight check it has received during the past season has been owing to the high prices of food. And though these will not be low in the coming year, because the supplies of the last crop have been entirely exhausted, and because the war will interfere with the usual receipts from the Baltic and the Black Sea, for 1854, the exports of American cotton to France have been 374,000 bales against 427,000 for 1853; and though both these are larger that for 1852 and 1851, the universal prosperity of France since the accession of Louis Napoleon to the Imperial throne, authorizes us to have our expectations for the coming year on the past two, rather than on the preceding results. For 1855 the demand for American cotton in France must therefore exceed 400,000 bales.

On the continent there has been a decline, in consequence of the war and the deficient harvest. Part of this will be recovered, but a deficiency in our exports to the north of Europe will still exist. Russia is, indeed, of small importance, still she wants some of our cotton. The decline in the English outgoings has been greater than ours, because nearly all the Russian imports were received from England, and not from the United States. To the whole continent, omitting France, our exports have fallen off 23,000 bales, while from Liverpool alone they have gone down from 223,000 to 156,000 bales. As the amounts for the whole year were 350,000 bales from the whole of Great Britain, the deficiency for 1854 will be fully 100,000 bales. The continental supplies exported from America and England during the year 1852 were 636,000 bales; for 1853 they were 715,000 bales, and for 1854 about 590,000 bales. For 1855 the moderate prices and abundant harvests will probably make up half this loss, and thus raise the demand to 650,000 bales.

These several estimates for the coming year make a total demand for 1855 of 3,700,000 bales against 3,475,000 for 1854, and 3,717,000 for 1853, as in the following table :—

	Consumption.	Estimate.	
	1853.	1854.	1855.
Great Britain.....bales	1,904,000	1,900,000	2,000,000
United States.....	671,000	611,000	650,000
France, of United States cotton.....	427,000	374,000	400,000
The continent, of United States and East India cotton.....	715,000	590,000	650,000
Total.....	3,717,000	3,475,000	3,700,000

The supplies for 1854 from the East Indies have fallen off largely from 1853. They were indeed excessively large in that year, compared with former years, having reached 485,000 bales, on account of the good price of cotton and the civil war in China. In Liverpool, on the 14th of October, the decline had reached 68,000 bales, and for the whole year the deficiency at London and Liverpool may reach 130,000 bales. But even with this falling off, the imports from the East Indies will exceed the amount of any former year. The average receipts from 1848 and 1849 were 205,000 bales; for 1850 and 1851 they were 318,000, and for 1852 and 1853 they were 354,000 bales. The probable troubles at Canton, on account of the Chinese rebellion, by lessening the demand in that part of the world, will tend to divert the Indian cotton to Europe; but this effect will be counteracted by the moderate prices, and the English receipts will not probably vary much from 350,000 bales.

The English imports from Brazil and the West Indies are small and stationary. They have been between 100,000 and 200,000 bales for every year of the past seven. The receipts at Liverpool, up to October 14, were 65,000 bales against 63,000 of the preceding year; and as the total for 1853 was 141,500, the amount for 1854 will not exceed 150,000 bales. The average for the last five years has been 152,000 bales, and for 1855 this average may be anticipated.

In Egyptian cotton the average for the last three years has been 121,000 bales. For 1853 it was 105,000. For the present year there has been an increase of 24,000 bales, making the probable amount for 1854 as high as 130,000 bales. This limit will not probably be reached for the coming year, on account of the war. This has interfered with the planting and gathering of the present crop, and, therefore, with the expected receipts for 1855. From Egypt, and Brazil, and the West Indies, the supplies for the coming year will not probably reach 250,000 bales, against 245,000 for 1853, and 347,000 for 1852.

The crop of the United States exhibits a decrease for 1854 of 333,000, compared with the preceding year. Part, but not all, of this decline will be recovered in 1855. From South Carolina a considerable increase is expected. The excessive drought of 1853 did more injury than the one we have this year experienced. The late frosts in April interfered with the early growth of the plant, but the beautiful weather in May and June fully made up for the backward spring. The drought of July and August was relieved by the partial showers, which have given to many planters most excellent crops. The lowlands and bottoms have produced very well. The storm on the 8th of September destroyed not a little by blowing it off the stalk, as a large amount was open in the fields, under the influence of the hot unclouded sun of August. The deficiency on the poor uplands, though not so great as last year, will be considerable. Yet, as the killing frost has come very late, every boll that could come to maturity has opened,

and the weather for the whole of October did not interrupt the picking a single day. From South Carolina an increase of 10 or 15 per cent may be expected. From Georgia the prospects are not so favorable. The drought was more severe and protracted. The excessive heat of July and August made the atmosphere drier than it would otherwise have been, and the forms fell from the stalks very largely. On the rich wet lands production has increased, and on some favored spots in the uplands fine fields may be seen. But generally the crop is short, though not so much so as it was last year. The shipments from Columbus and South-western Georgia to Savannah will be increased by the extension of the railroads in that direction. The receipts at Savannah will thus probably be higher than last year, though the increase will be small. From Florida the promise of good crops is very general, and an increase may be expected, notwithstanding the extension of the South-western Railroad to Americus. In eastern Alabama the drought has been very severe, but on the prairie lands, and on the Tombigbee and the Tuscaloosa, the gain will more than balance the loss on the Alabama River. At New Orleans, and throughout the Mississippi Valley, the storm on the 22d of September was long continued, and very disastrous. The drought and heat which injured the Atlantic States did much damage on the uplands. But so numerous are the rivers, so wide the bottoms, so late the frost, that the favorable influences much exceed the adverse. From Texas the reports of a fair crop are uniform and invariable, the drought having done no damage on the Gulf. From the whole United States the crop may be estimated at 3,200,000 bales, as follows:—

	Receipts.		Estimate.
	1853.	1854.	1855.
Texas.....bales	86,000	110,000	120,000
New Orleans.....	1,581,000	1,347,000	1,500,000
Mobile	545,000	539,000	550,000
Florida.....	179,000	155,000	160,000
Georgia	350,000	316,000	325,000
South Carolina	463,000	417,000	475,000
Other places	59,000	46,000	60,000
Total...	3,263,000	2,930,000	3,200,000

These receipts with the English imports from Brazil, Egypt, and the East and West Indies, will make the whole supply 3,800,000 bales, against a probable demand of 3,700,000.

As the stocks on hand are lower than last year, this slight excess of supply will not produce any great influence in depressing prices. The amount held in Liverpool, October 13th, was 791,000 bales against 819,000 of the year before, and the stocks in our northern and southern ports on the 1st of September, showed precisely the same figures in 1853 and 1854.

Nor is the stock on hand in all parts of the world excessive. It was 941,000 bales at the end of 1853, against 837,000 in 1852, and 757,000 in 1851, and 798,000 in 1850. For the 31st of December, 1854, it will not probably reach 900,000 bales.

The price now (November 2d, in New Orleans,) is 8¾ cents for middling, and as this is above the average of the last fifteen years, it can scarcely be maintained. The low rates of freight which are certain to prevail for the coming winter, on account of the total cessation in our exports of grain

and flour, and the depression of the shipping interest at Liverpool, will tend to keep up prices at our sea-ports.

For the ten years from 1840 to 1849 we exported 7,116,000,000 pounds of cotton, which was valued at the custom-house at $545,000,000, or at an average price of 7¾ cents per pound. For the last five years, the advanced price of our exports has raised the average to 8¼ cents. With a supply above the probable demand, and with a fair stock on hand, this price cannot well be exceeded. But no decline below this average can take place without encouraging consumption, so as to restore these rates for middling cotton.

The prosperity of the South still continues. Our planters have fair crops and fair prices. Neither is large, but both are calculated to cheer and encourage. From 1850 up to the present year, the rates for our great staple have been good, and our crops large. In the five years ending 30th of June last, our exports have sold for about $471,000,000, against $276,000,000 from 1845 to 1850, and $269,000,000 from 1840 to 1845. The present season is not so promising as the last five, but still its rates promise to be remunerative, and its returns abundant. The excessive high prices of land and negroes, which have been prevailing, cannot be maintained, but no disastrous decline or depreciation is upon us. If we are wise, and diversify our planting, by raising those other agricultural products which now bring such fine returns to the farmer, and avoid the excessive production of cotton, this decline may be easily stayed, and our prosperity not only preserved but advanced.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

MARITIME LAW—COLLISION.

In the United States District Court, (Massachusetts District,) 1854, Judge Sprague on the Bench. Matthew Hunt *et al.*, *vs.* the Brig Clement.

This was a cause of collision promoted by the owners of the pilot-boat Hornet, of Boston, against the brig Clement, for running down and sinking the Hornet in Boston harbor, near the "Graves," in June, 1854.

The libel alleged that the two vessels were coming into the harbor by the wind, which was W. N. W., the Hornet about half a mile to leeward of the brig, and both vessels on the starboard tack, bound for Broad Sound; that when nearly up to the N. E. ledge of the "Graves," the brig suddenly kept off three or four points toward Light-house Channel, and ran afoul of the Hornet, and sunk her.

The answer of the respondent denied this statement, and alleged that the brig was sailing towards Light-house Channel by the "Graves," two points free, while the Hornet was close hauled; that the Hornet persisted in trying to run across the bows of the brig, although hailed and told to keep off, and thereby caused the collision.

The answer further alleged that the brig was so near the "Graves," that she had no room to luff or tack; but the Hornet had plenty of both room and time to have avoided the other vessel by keeping off.

SPRAGUE, J. The collision between these two vessels took place in Boston harbor, at about noon, on a fine summer day, when there was a good breeze, and the sea smooth. It is a necessary inference, therefore, that it must have been caused by the fault of one or both of them. The sudden change in the course of the brig, stated by the libel, I think is not made out by the evidence, but the

libel, taken in connection with the answer, presents a case of two vessels sailing on converging courses, both on the same tack, the one close hauled and the other two points free. Then the question is, which is to give way?

There is some discrepancy of testimony as to where the collision took place; but from the respondent's witnesses, taken in connection to those of the libellant, I infer that it must have been outside of the buoy which is on the north-east ledge of the "Graves." The captain of the brig says he was then eastward of "the buoy;" and it is shown that there is but one buoy near the "Graves," and that half a mile from the "Graves" proper.

The respondent says that the Hornet was trying to run across the brig's bows. That is true; but it is equally true that the brig was trying to run across the schooner's bows; and it is to prevent collision in similar cases that a rule of the sea has been established. The present case appears to be one to which the rule applies, viz: that when two vessels are approaching on convergent or conflicting courses, one close hauled and the other free, and there is danger of collision, that vessel having the wind free must invariably give way. If the brig had been close hauled, and the Hornet close hauled also, and the convergence of their courses had been owing to the schooner's ability to lie nearer to the wind than the other, then the brig would not have been bound to give way, for the reason that the schooner would have been in a condition in which she would have had an advantage over the square-rigged vessel, and she might have altered her course, and still been on equal terms with the other. But in this case the brig was not close hauled; she was two points free, and it was therefore incumbent on her to have given way. It is in evidence that the captain of the brig saw the Hornet half an hour before the collision.

He then had it in his power to have kept off at once in front of the schooner, or he might subsequently have gone under her stern, or he might have hauled his wind and either backed his topsail or gone about, and I am of opinion that there was room enough between her and the "Graves" to have done so. In fact, the brig luffed and wore round *after* the accident, and it is therefore justly inferable that there was room enough for her to have done so *before*. As she was heading towards Light-house Channel, and was up to windward, she might have adopted either of the above measures without any more detention than would be caused by a short deviation; while the schooner being as close to the wind as she could go, heading for a narrow passage near the "Graves," any deviation she made would have been a detention and a loss of ground to leeward. It was therefore incumbent upon the brig to have adopted some one of these measures, I need not state which, and so have avoided the schooner.

Another fact tends to show negligence on the part of the brig. It appears that the captain saw the schooner half an hour before the collison, and that although he saw that the two vessels were upon conflicting courses, he says he paid no attention to her from that time till the collision was imminent. This was negligence on the part of the brig. Every vessel is bound to keep watch of all vessels in her vicinity, and to observe their motions and courses.

But in addition to this, the man at the wheel testified that he heard the hail from the schooner before the collision, but took no measures to alter the course he was steering, and he gave as his reason for not doing so that he had no order from the captain to that effect, and would not do so until he had. This cannot be justified. It was his duty in the present case, having it in his power to avoid the collision when it was imminent, to have done so immediately, without waiting for orders from the captain, when life and property were hazarded by his delay. For these reasons I think the brig was to blame.

The question then arises:—Was the Hornet in fault also because she didn't keep away when hailed from the brig? I don't think she was. If she were to be adjudged in fault because she persevered in holding her course, then the rule requiring a vessel with the wind free to give way to one close hauled, would be practically abrogated. The effect of this rule should and must be enforced to enable the vessel by the wind to hold her course under the confident belief that the other will give way. It is not for the brig to complain that the Hornet held

her course, when she herself was already off the wind, and could have kept off a little more without difficulty. I think the brig was alone to blame in this collision, and therefore a decree must be entered for the libellants, and an assessor appointed to fix the damages, unless the parties can agree on the amount thereof.

CONTRACTS—SALE AND DELIVERY—WAIVER.

Bailey *vs.* The Vermont Western Railroad Company.

This was an action brought by Bailey to recover the value of an amount of iron delivered to the railroad company.

It appears that Bailey agreed to ship to the railroad company 5,500 tons of iron, 500 in June 1851, 2,500 in July and 2,500 in August, if it were practicable within that time, and the railroad company agreed to give their notes for each parcel of iron that should be shipped on receiving each bill of lading. No iron was shipped in June, and only part of what was required in July, and only part in August. By the 25th of October only 2,900 tons had been shipped in all. These, however, were received by the company without objection, nothing being said about the delay; but they neglected to give their notes for the iron actually received, and in April, 1852, this action was brought to recover the amount due on the iron. The case was argued before three Judges in the New York Supreme Court, (first district, New York city,) and the decision, which has not yet been reported, was rendered in June last, by his Honor Judge Mitchell. It was substantially as follows:—

The defendants by accepting part of the iron, out of time and without objection, waived that part of the contract which required the iron to be delivered in due time, or admitted that it was delivered as soon after that time as was practicable. In either case they were bound to give their notes. They neglected to do so. This discharged the plaintiffs from any obligation to deliver the rest of the iron until the defendants should furnish their notes for the part delivered, and entitled the plaintiffs to commence a suit for the notes which should have been given, without tendering the delivery of the rest of the iron, although the time for the delivery of all was past before the suit was brought. The contract may not be rescinded by the omission of the defendants to give their notes, but the obligation of the plaintiffs to deliver the iron is suspended by that omission.

Take a familiar case and similar to this, as an illustration. A builder agrees to erect a house for a certain sum to be paid by instalments; a certain part of this sum when the first tier of beams is on, another certain part when the second tier of beams is on, and so on throughout the work. He finishes the house so far as to have the first and second tier of beams on, and the owner refuses to pay him. He waits patiently for his money until the time elapses when the whole house should have been completed, and then sues for the sums to be paid under the contract when the first and second tiers of beams should be on. The owner denies his liability, because the whole house was not finished in due time, and appeals to the laws of New York as deciding that he never shall be liable for what was done for him, although he was in fault in neglecting to pay as the contract required, and that neglect would probably prevent the builder's being able to complete the work. Such a defense could never be sustained.

This case differs from that only because in this the iron was not delivered in due time. But it is conceded that the acceptance of the iron by the defendants waived the objection as to time. That being so the first fault and the continuous fault is in the defendants in not giving their notes, and it makes this case precisely like the one proposed.

If a servant is employed for $120 per annum, to be paid in equal monthly instalments, and leaves his employer before the year is out because he is not paid the instalments due, can he not recover at the end of the year for those instalments?

If a tenant hire a house for a year at a certain sum, payable in equal quarterly payments, and is evicted after the end of the third quarter, is the eviction any defense for the instalments of rent previously due?

A contract to pay for land by instalments and for a delivery of the deed when

the last instalment should be due, is different, because there the consideration on one side cannot be, and is not intended to be divided into parcels; and there it is properly decided that if the vendor do not sue until the last instalment fall due, he must aver a tender of the deed. But a different principle would apply if the contract were to buy one hundred different lots of land, and to pay for each lot, whenever a deed for that lot should be tendered. If the title were to fail as to one lot the vendor could, even after the time for the delivery of all was expired, recover for the ninety-nine lots conveyed, and justice would be done by allowing him damages for the non-delivery of the deed as to the one lot.

The answer in this case admits that the iron was received, but states, in substance, that it was received under protest. The answer cannot be read to prove this; but even if there were a protest that the defendants should not be bound to pay for the part delivered, if the rest should not be delivered in a reasonable time thereafter, that protest would not exonerate the defendants from liability to give their notes pursuant to the contract for the part actually delivered. They should have given their notes and protested that they would not hold themselves liable on them, nor excuse the past delay, nor accept or pay for the rest of the iron, but would claim damages for all breaches of the contract unless the rest of the iron should be duly delivered.

If there is an entire contract, and no payment to be made by the defendant until the whole contract be completed, the decisions in this State are strict and do not allow a recovery for the part performance, but that is because the bond is so; the parties have chosen by their agreement to say that payment shall be made only when all is completed. Here the bond is not so; the parties have prudently chosen to say that payment shall be made as the parcels are shipped. The principle of both decisions is the same, that the parties may be a law to themselves, and that the courts will carry out their contracts as they make them.

EXTENSION OF TIME—SURETY'S LIABILITY.

In the Supreme Court, General Term, June, 1854. Before Judges Mitchell, Roosevelt, and Clerke. Draper *vs.* Romeyn.

Action against the defendant as surety of a promissory note. Defense, agreement by the plaintiff with the principal to extend the time of payment. It appears that when the note fell due, the principal, who is employed by the plaintiff as his agent, called upon him to obtain an extension of time, and in urging him for it, expressed his willingness to forward the sale of his lands during his absence in Europe, without any additional cost to the plaintiff. The plaintiff agreed to let the note stand for some days, but refused to fix any specified time for payment.

CLERKE, J.—Did the plaintiff make such an agreement with the principal as to entitle the surety to a discharge from his liability as surety?

It is a rule too well settled to admit of dispute now, that an extension of the time of payment for a single day, without the consent of the surety, would exonerate him. But this extension of the credit must be founded on a consideration, and must be such an agreement as precludes the creditor from enforcing payment against the principal until the expiration of a specified period. In this case, the evidence in relation to the alleged extension shows nothing like an agreement of this nature. There is nothing in it from which a sufficient consideration can ever be inferred, or such a promise on the part of the plaintiff that could prevent him from commencing an action against the principal at any time after the note became due. The willingness of the principal to serve the plaintiff in another matter could not be deemed a legal consideration sufficient to support an agreement; and even if it were, the promise was too indefinite and uncertain to debar the plaintiff from resorting to his legal remedy against the principal at any time after the note became payable by its terms. The promise, at most, was merely gratuitous, and imported no legal obligation whatever.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

COMMERCIAL EMBARRASSMENTS—THE GATHERING AND BURSTING OF THE STORM——THE BANK PANIC—CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN NEW YORK, BOSTON, AND MASSACHUSETTS—ILLEGITIMATE BANKS AND BANKING—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT THE PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS FOR OCTOBER, AND AT ALL THE MINTS FOR THE FIRST NINE MONTHS OF THE YEAR, AND SINCE THE DATE OF THEIR ORGANIZATION—RECEIPTS FOR CASH DUTIES AT NEW YORK AND PHILADELPHIA—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR OCTOBER AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR OCTOBER AND SINCE JANUARY FIRST—SHIPMENTS OF SPECIE—COMPARATIVE EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE—QUARTERLY STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS, ETC.

The commercial embarrassments noticed in our last have continued, and in many sections of the country the pressure has increased, until credit is shaken everywhere, and all classes are made to realize the insecurity of worldly possessions. The causes which led to this have been a long time at work. The prosperity which prevailed almost universally up to the middle of last year had made our business men so confident in their own strength, that all classes had expanded their engagements far beyond the protection of their own resources, and were exposed to the storm which began to gather on every side. The first great shock to credit was the discovery of the Schuyler fraud, which brought to a stand nearly all those works of internal improvement for whose successful completion a large share of public confidence was so necessary. From that moment sacrifices began, and the Railroad interest will never wholly recover from the blow. The war in Europe created more or less money pressure abroad, and capitalists there were less liberal in their investments here, at a time when their assistance would have been most acceptable. Goods which had accumulated abroad where the demand has almost ceased, were crowded upon our shores, at whatever advance could be obtained, thus aggravating the evil. At that moment, instead of liberal shipments of breadstuffs to cover this new drain upon our resources, the exports fell off, owing to the high prices of cereals in the interior, and the great scarcity at the seaboard. The failure in the harvests here had been greatly exaggerated, and farmers were led to hoard their products. The cotton crop, part of which might have been relied upon in this emergency, was kept back by the dreadful ravages of the epidemic which prevailed in the vicinity of Southern ports. From New York, those who had contracted large foreign debts were obliged to send the specie, and this rapidly increased the evil. While this was going on at the seaboard, a worse panic began in the interior, and especially in the West and Northwest. In Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa and Missouri, and to some extent in the States on the south of the Ohio, a large circulation of bank notes, mostly of the free banks, had been obtained through expenditures for railroad purposes, and the general expansion of business. When the contraction began, this circulation came in rapidly, and found the banks wholly unprepared to meet it. As the difficulty became known, the excitement increased, and every effort made for relief only hightened the panic. All the banks which had balances at the East drew for them, and borrowed to the extent of their credit besides, while between twenty and thirty, perhaps more, of institutions which were really solvent, were compelled to suspend payment. A large number of private bankers were carried down in the

crash, and the distress became general. The public mind is now less excited, but the difficulty is not removed, and cannot well be until there be a revival of business, by large shipments of the produce now hoarded. At the South the evil has not, as yet, been so seriously felt. The planters have not been for many years in so secure a position, and if the crop of cotton now making shall sell briskly in Europe, they will escape to a great extent the panic which has elsewhere prevailed. During all this severe pressure in the money market, and general disturbance of public confidence, it is a cause for congratulation, that the mercantile community have stood the trial so nobly. Very few merchants previously in good credit have been obliged to suspend payments, and even among the weaker houses the failures have not been as numerous as might have been expected. The reason of this may be found in the increased supply of metallic currency remaining in the country. Over one hundred million dollars in gold coin have been added to the circulation of the United States, since the discovery of gold in California. Thus although the rates of interest have been high for nearly eighteen months, there has been no such *scarcity* of money as has been felt in former periods of commercial embarrassment. The impression now prevails that the convulsion has reached its hight, and that having passed the crisis affairs must now gradually mend.

The banks have been severely tried, but those in our large cities (with the exceptions before noticed,) have mostly stood the shock unmoved. In New York the deposits have been drawn down by country institutions, and thus the loans on call, reserved for such an emergency, have been called in, reducing the total under that head. The discounts have also been contracted to meet the drain of specie for export. We annex a continuation of the weekly averages of the New York city banks :—

WEEKLY AVERAGES OF NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Week ending	Capital.	Average amount of Loans and Discounts.	Average amount of Specie.	Average amount of Circulation.	Average amount of Deposits.
June 3....	$47,454,400	91,916,710	10,281,969	9,381,714	71,702,290
June 10....	47,454,400	91,015,171	9,617,180	9,307,889	72,495,859
June 17....	47,454,400	90,063,573	10,013,157	9,144,284	71,959,195
June 24....	47,454,400	88,751,952	9,628,375	9,009,726	69,598,724
July 1....	47,657,400	88,608,491	11,130,800	9,068,253	71,457,984
July 8....	47,657,400	88,347,281	12,267,318	9,195,757	72,718,443
July 15....	47,657,400	90,437,004	15,074,093	8,837,681	75,227,333
July 22....	47,657,400	92,011,870	15,720.309	8,768,289	75,959,082
July 29....	47,657,400	92,588,579	15,386,864	8,756,777	74,790,656
August 5..	47,657,400	93,723,141	14,468,981	9,124,648	76,378,487
August 12..	47,657,400	93,435,057	13,522,023	8,917,179	74,626,389
August 19..	47,657,400	92,880,103	14,253,972	8,855,523	73,834,568
August 26..	47,657,400	91,447,075	14,395,072	8,811,369	73,731,179
Sept. 2.....	47,657,400	91,391,188	14,714,618	8,934,632	72,856,727
Sept. 9.....	47,657,400	91,528,244	14,446,317	8,968,707	73,831,235
Sept. 16....	47,657,400	91,639,782	14,484,259	8,820,609	74,467,701
Sept. 23....	47,657,400	92,095,911	12,932,386	8,802,623	72,938,453
Sept. 30....	47,657,400	92,102,013	12,042,244	8,712,136	71,795,423
Oct. 7.....	47,657,400	91,380,525	10,630,517	8,918,492	70,285,610
Oct. 14.....	47,657,400	88,618,936	11,130,377	8,534,188	69,141,597
Oct. 21.....	47,657,400	87,092,810	10,320,163	8,497,556	65,627,886
Oct. 28.....	47,657,400	84,709,236	9,826,763	8,131,933	62,792,637
Nov. 4.....	47,657,400	83,369,101	10,004,686	8,238,126	62,229,011
Nov. 11.....	48,163,400	82,717,052	10,472,538	8,197,444	61,662,387
Nov. 18.....	48,163,400	82,191,974	10,801,532	7,877,684	62,181,007

We also annex a continuation of the weekly statement of the condition of the Boston banks:—

	Oct. 23.	Oct. 30.	Nov. 6.	Nov. 13.
Capital	$32,037,050	$32,081,250	$32,110,650	$32,130,750
Loans and discounts	50,417,690	50,867,242	51,183,713	51,423,284
Specie	3,312,555	3,399,289	3,422,696	3,086,900
Due from other banks	9,187,049	8,878,262	8,977,444	8,314,811
Due to other banks	5,895,417	6,017,152	6,045,959	5,904,258
Deposits	14,052,923	14,245,487	14,570,929	13,985,387
Circulation	8,713,781	8,568,134	8,535,116	8,656,451

The following will show the latest returns of the banks of Massachusetts, not including the Boston banks noted above:—

	117 BANKS. Sept. 2.	118 BANKS. Oct. 1.	130 BANKS. Nov. 4.
Capital	$22,503,837	$22,618,892	$24,814,727
Loans and discounts	42,457,655	40,561,900	43,844,265
Specie	928,598	903,591	961,402
Deposits	5,647,772	4,186,014	5,952,827
Circulation	15,981,496	15,577,207	12,778,692

How far the present excitement will go before it is permanently checked, it is now impossible to predict; but the people will ere long discover that they are the worst sufferers, and that any blows aimed at sound banks can but fall on the heads of the business community. While, therefore, all who have the gift of reason should exercise patience and forbearance toward the banks at such a crisis, the banks themselves should derive a useful lesson from the excitement.

Nearly all of the new banks which have been started in the West and Northwest within the last two years, have been originated by speculators and not by capitalists, and a great many of them have been managed in a way little calculated to inspire confidence. They have pushed out their circulation as far from home as possible, and some have tried various dodges, in the way of inaccessible locations and inconvenient coins, to evade or delay the redemption of their issues. Banks without capital can flourish only in prosperous times. They are, in fact, borrowers of money, and when the people ask them to pay up, they find the settlement exceedingly inconvenient. If banks, which are *lenders* of money, become so expanded as to risk their existence, what dependence can be placed upon banks which have no capital to lend? The recent shaking up of these institutions will sift out some of the weakest, and entitle those which sustain themselves to greater confidence.

Now that the Assay Office at New York is in full operation, the deposits at the Philadelphia mint have, of course, largely decreased; but the receipts from California have been augmented by the arrangement for weekly steamers.

DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS.

DEPOSITS FOR OCTOBER.

	Gold from California.	Total Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Philadelphia Mint	$550,000	$600,000	$200,000	$800,000
New Orleans Mint	26,140	29,571	24,671	542,47
Total deposits	$576,140	$629,571	$224,671	$854,247

GOLD COINAGE.

	New Orleans.		Philadelphia.	
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	.....	.....	.....	.....
Eagles	.....	.....	.....	.....
Half eagles	.....	.....	.....	.....
Three-dollar pieces	11,000	$33,000	.....	.....
Quarter eagles	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dollars	.....	.....	323,743	$323,743
Bars	.....	.....	.....	1,822,768
Total gold coinage	11,000	$33,000	323,743	$2,146,511

SILVER COINAGE.

Dollars	.....	.....	.....	.....
Half dollars	500,000	$250,000	168,000	$84,000
Quarter dollars	300,000	75,000	24,000	6,000
Dimes	.....	.....	500,000	50,000
Half dimes	.....	.....	700,000	35,000
Three-cent pieces	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total silver coinage	800,000	$325,000	1,392,000	$175,000

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents	.....	.....	486,246	$4,862
Total coinage	811,000	$358,000	2,201,989	$2,326,373

We annex a summary of the items of coinage at the mint and all the branches down to the close of September:—

SUMMARY OF COINAGE EXECUTED AT THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES AND ITS BRANCHES, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO SEPTEMBER 30TH, 1854.

GOLD.

	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	750,813	$15,016,260 00
Eagles	177,574	1,775,740 00
Half eagles	514,697	2,573,485 00
Three-dollar pieces	129,988	389,984 00
Quarter eagles	667,759	1,669,397 50
Dollars	1,002,303	1,002,303 00
Fine bars	.....	9,476,546 62
Unparted bars	.....	4,086,479 00
Total	3,243,144	$35,990,205 12

SILVER.

	Pieces.	Value.
Dollars	33,140	$33,140 00
Half dollars	6,768,000	3,384,000 00
Quarter dollars	11,796,000	2,949,000 00
Dimes	3,380,000	383,000 00
Half dimes	5,800,000	290,000 00
Trimes	400,000	12,000 00
Total	28,627,140	$7,051,140 00

COPPER.

Cents	3,777,589	$37,775 89
Total coinage	35,647,873	$43,079,121 10

The total amount of coinage at the Mint and Branch Mints of the United States since the organization in 1793 to 30th Sept., 1854.	$424,876,420 02
Of this sum there was in gold	328,234,597 06
" silver	95,090,529 00
" copper	1,551,293 09
Of the gold coined at the Mint and Branches since the discovery of gold in California, the amount is	251,654,291 56
Of the latter sum, the Georgia and Carolina gold mines have produced, from 1849 to 1853, both inclusive	3,560,635 50

The receipts for cash duties at the port of New York correspond with the value of dutiable goods entered for consumption and withdrawn from warehouse. For the month of October, as well as during each previous quarter of the year, the total shows a comparative decline.

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
First quarter	$9,295,257 30	$7,617,887 72	$11,125,500 47	$10,873,699 31
Second quarter	7,357,408 30	6,632,425 16	10,041,829 03	8,864,261 45
Third quarter	9,402,997 30	10,281,190 03	13,613,105 14	12,699,868 05
In October	1,958,516 17	2,392,109 57	2,705,694 33	2,402,115 10
Total 10 months.	$28,014,179 07	$26,923,612 48	$37,486,128 97	$34,839,943 91

The following will show the comparative receipts, for duties, at Philadelphia since January 1st:—

	1854.	1852.	1853.
January	$539,292 76	$315,877 55	$267,010 25
February	525,008 25	489,003 00	623,624 75
March	316,333 70	367,407 70	394,023 80
April	379,471 46	303,922 53	264,753 55
May	328,422 95	257,736 70	282,221 30
June	304,754 75	261,290 60	628,503 90
July	485,163 50	414,884 85	555,489 00
August	601,153 70	490,190 70	515,512 10
September	315,292 50	325,077 00	521,811 00
October	247,187 79	210,149 52	302,941 80
Total	$3,562,724 72	$3,635,845 45	$4,355,426 65

The imports from foreign ports continue to decline, both in quantity and value. At New York the receipts for October were $1,151,887 less than for October last year, but $2,383,165 greater than for October, 1852, and $2,453,364 greater than for October, 1851. The falling off in dutiable goods is still greater, but the receipts of free goods have largely increased, and will be still greater when the Reciprocity Treaty with the British Provinces is carried into effect. We annex a carefully prepared summary:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR OCTOBER.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption	$5,790,795	$7,775,614	$9,637,601	$7,645,071
Entered for warehousing	1,204,994	594,426	1,866,866	2,210,646
Free goods	1,558,720	215,143	422,156	1,086,467
Specie and bullion	23,165	62,690	256,302	88,854
Total entered at the port	$8,577,674	$8,647,873	$12,182,925	$11,031,038
Withdrawn from warehouse	1,602,436	1,256,570	1,188,983	2,070,544

It will be seen that the total entered warehouse during the month is much larger than for the same time last year, but the withdrawals show a much greater increase, holders being anxious to crowd off stocks, as money has been scarce and prices daily declining. The total imports at New York since January 1st, are $4,160,649 less than for the same period of last year, but $52,609,120 greater than for the same period of 1852, and $44,757,982 greater than for the same period of 1851. The falling off, in comparison with last year, would be still greater but for the increase in the warehousing business and the receipts of free goods.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR TEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Entered for consumption.....	$96,216,865	$91,080,891	$134,775,790	$120,408,905
Entered for warehousing	11,914,911	7,134,316	19,258,112	26,780,359
Free goods	8,728,332	10,384,813	11,386,972	14,204,525
Specie and bullion.....	1,805,694	2,214,644	2,163,559	2,029,995
Total entered at the port.....	118,665,802	110,814,664	167,584,433	163,423,784
Withdrawn from warehouse...	11,403,970	13,463,496	12,871,001	19,607,761

In classifying the receipts of foreign goods at New York for October, we find that the decline has been altogether in dry goods, and that in fact the falling off in this particular is greater than the total decline for the month, showing an increase in other foreign merchandise. Thus, the total receipts of foreign dry goods for October are $2,101,436 less than for October, 1853; $899,621 less than for October, 1852; and only $22,854 greater than for October, 1851.

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

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	$416,738	$1,077,608	$1,270,014	$578,508
Manufactures of cotton.....	229,166	387,454	505,323	256,956
Manufactures of silk.....	687,355	1,317,305	1,397,424	631,959
Manufactures of flax.....	273,065	413,464	436,059	342,655
Miscellanous dry goods.....	195,475	168,379	292,485	245,993
Total	$1,801,799	$3,364,210	$3,901,305	$2,056,071

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool.....	$78,782	$49,936	$114,578	$336,435
Manufactures of cotton.....	48,188	28,798	49,881	62,319
Manufactures of silk.....	144,646	141,266	53,824	166,019
Manufactures of flax.....	53,667	30,519	22,597	45,483
Miscellaneous dry goods	68,538	32 556	17,964	18,863
Total withdrawn.....	$393,821	$283,075	$258,844	$629,119
Add entered for consumption....	1,801,799	3,364,210	3,901,305	2,056,071
Total thrown upon the market.	$2,195,620	$3,647,285	$4,160,149	$2,685,190

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	$128,408	$86,195	$208,609	$193,851
Manufactures of cotton	90,130	57,130	244,155	70,586
Manufactures of silk	494,462	19,718	278,991	111,091
Manufactures of flax	98,658	27,984	155,144	179,705
Miscellaneous dry goods	73,081	53,776	22,624	98,088
Total	$884,739	$244,803	$909,523	$653,321
Add entered for consumption	1,801,799	3,364,210	3,901,305	2,056,071
Total entered at the port	$2,686,538	$3,609,013	$4,810,828	$2,709,392

The total imports of dry goods at New York since January 1st, are $6,430,660 less than for the same period of last year; but $22,867,711 greater than for the same period of 1852, and $18,776,877 greater than for the same period of 1851.

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

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	$12,382,696	$13,156,688	$22,989,636	$17,209,293
Manufactures of cotton	8,677,533	8,294,133	12,722,383	12,559,194
Manufactures of silk	20,515,911	18,337,561	28,922,551	23,398,759
Manufactures of flax	5,434,990	5,194,736	6,835,193	5,921,826
Miscellaneous dry goods	3,282,954	3,644,199	4,750,538	4,932,265
Total	$50,294,084	$48,627,317	$76,220,301	$64,021,337

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	$1,766,937	$1,517,239	$1,912,709	$3,879,052
Manufactures of cotton	1,285,528	1,319,801	931,970	2,451,505
Manufactures of silk	1,370,361	1,779,733	1,217,435	2,780,003
Manufactures of flax	561,144	745,126	230,754	771,476
Miscellaneous dry goods	380,185	329,108	299,697	350,425
Total	$5,364,155	$5,691,007	$4,592,565	$10,232,461
Add entered for consumption	50,294,084	48,627,317	76,220,301	64,021,337
Total thrown on the market	$55,658,239	$54,318,324	$80,812,866	$74,253,798

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Manufactures of wool	$2,067,617	$1,185,072	$2,410,638	$4,599,887
Manufactures of cotton	1,432,335	802,609	1,404,349	2,424,134
Manufactures of silk	2,288,843	1,832,565	1,614,669	3,358,043
Manufactures of flax	718,765	328,368	453,823	1,076,589
Miscellaneous dry goods	431,756	366,575	337,157	530,287
Total	$6,939,316	$4,515,189	$6,220,636	$11,988,940
Add entered for consumption	50,294,084	48,627,317	76,220,301	64,021,337
Total entered at the port	$57,233,400	$53,142,506	$82,440,937	$76,010,277

The receipts of cottons and miscellaneous goods have slightly increased, while silks and woolens have materially declined. To show this more clearly we have thrown into one comparative table the goods entered directly for consumption,

and those entered for warehousing, thus showing the total receipts at the port, of each class of goods:—

TOTAL RECEIPTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR TEN MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST

	1853.	1854.	Difference.	
Manufactures of wool	$25,400,274	$21,809,180	Decrease..	$3,591,094
Manufactures of cotton	14,126,732	14,983,328	Increase ..	856,596
Manufactures of silk	30,537,220	26,756,802	Decrease..	3,780,418
Manufactures of flax	7,289,016	6,998,415	Decrease..	290,601
Miscellaneous dry goods	5,087,695	5,462,552	Increase ..	374,857
Total imports	$82,440,937	$76,010,277	Decrease..	$6,430,660

The receipts of dry goods are daily diminishing at all the ports, and the total for November will show a still greater comparative decline.

The exports from Southern ports have increased, but from New York the shipments of produce for the month show a decline, owing to the high prices, and the continued scarcity of stock. The total shipments in October from the last-named port, exclusive of specie, are $1,325,813 less than for the corresponding month of last year, but $1,051,248 greater than for October, 1852, and $1,949,209 greater than for the same month of 1851, as will appear from the following comparison:—

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

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	$2,702,382	$3,497,874	$5,459,401	$4,672,017
Foreign merchandise (free)	106,626	82,886	63,687	128,780
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)	358,292	484,801	719,534	316,012
Specie	1,779,707	2,452,301	4,757,972	3,359,398
Total exports	$4,947,007	$6,517,862	$11,000,594	$8,476,207
Total, exclusive of specie	3,167,300	4,065,561	6,442,622	5,116,809

The exports of specie have been large, but not quite up to the total shipped during the same month of last year. Enough has, however, been sent to increase the monetary excitement, and add to the severity of the pressure. The total exports of produce and merchandise since January 1st are $2,044,700 greater than for the corresponding period of last year, $14,450,623 greater than for the same period of 1852, and $15,145,213 greater than for the same period of 1851. The shipments of specie for the year show an excess even over the large total for the first ten months of 1851:—

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

	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce	$34,200,828	$34,239,486	$45,884,119	$47,897,861
Foreign merchandise (free)	637,527	799,512	1,217,683	1,445,079
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)	3,275,027	3,768,974	4,112,093	3,915,655
Specie	33,040,978	23,106,137	19,765,730	33,563,141
Total exports	$71,154,360	$61,914,109	$70,979,625	$86,821,736
Total, exclusive of specie	38,113,382	38,807,972	51,213,895	53,258,595

As much interest is manifested in regard to the exports of specie, we annex a statement showing the monthly shipments from New York since January 1st 1850:—

EXPORTS OF SPECIE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS.

	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
January	$90,361	$1,266,281	$2,868,958	$747,679	$1,845,682
February	278,708	1,007,689	3,551,543	1,121,030	579,724
March	172,087	2,368,861	611,994	592,479	1,466,127
April	290,407	3,482,182	200,266	767,055	3,474,525
May	741,735	4,506,135	1,834,893	2,162,467	3,651,626
June	880,434	6,462,367	3,556,355	3,264,282	5,168,183
July	1,518,080	6,004,170	2,971,499	3,924,612	2,922,452
August	1,441,736	2,673,444	2,935,832	1,183,973	4,548,320
September	1,033,918	3,490,142	2,122,495	1,244,191	6,547,104
October	1,421,328	1,779,707	2,452,301	4,757,972	3,359,398
November	905,394	5,033,995	809,813	3,855,775	.....
December	1,208,760	5,668,235	1,180,305	3,131,851	.....
Total	$9,982,948	$43,743,209	$25,096,255	$26,753,356	.....

The total for the year will hardly reach the same amount as for the corresponding period of 1851. We do not look for very large shipments of produce from New York, or any of the Northern ports, before the opening of navigation next spring, but from the Southern ports, and especially from New Orleans, the exports will probably be large during the winter months. We annex a comparison of the shipments of certain leading articles of domestic produce from the port of New York from January 1st to November 18th, inclusive:—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, FROM JANUARY 1ST TO NOVEMBER 18TH.

	1853.	1854.		1853.	1854.
Ashes—pots.....bbls	9,288	8,827	Naval stores.....bbls	410,018	574,973
pearls	663	1,819	Oils—whale.....galls	243,734	279,187
Beeswax.....lbs	184,715	202,489	sperm	902,639	603,574
Breadstuffs—			lard	51,239	28,732
Wheat flour..bbls	1,632,295	911,638	linseed	19,323	7,038
Rye flour	3,161	9,454			
Corn meal	39,415	63,844	*Provisions*—		
Wheat.....bush	5,584,288	1,574,626	Pork.....bbls	63,595	96,119
Rye	10,202	315,158	Beef	45,876	50,256
Oats	61,037	40,554	Cut meats.....lbs	7,727,537	16,196,048
Barley	100	.....	Butter	1,744,709	1,875,963
Corn	719,561	3,429,680	Cheese.....6,601,223		9,537,659
Candles—mold..boxes	41,468	46,975	Lard.....6,029,612		12,778,443
sperm	4,994	8,815	Rice.....trcs	23,085	21,545
Coal.....tons	28,133	21,606	Tallow.....lbs	2,564,776	4,995,620
Cotton.....bales	355,284	272,159	Tobacco, crude..pkgs	21,747	33,758
Hay	4,634	3,476	Do., manufactured.lbs	5,366,275	3,103,471
Hops	306	5,855	Whalebone.....2,815,075		1,532,944

As an indication of what may be expected when the returns from all the ports are compiled, we annex a comparative summary of the shipments from the port of New Orleans for the quarter ending September 30th, showing an increase, as compared with last year, of about 75 per cent. The shipments for the last quarter named include $4,500,000 to Great Britain, and $2,000,000 to France.

EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THREE MONTHS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30.

	1852.	1853.	1854.
Domestic produce in American vessels	$4,175,452	$3,828,949	$8,203,116
Foreign vessels	1,342,181	1,539,918	1,186,638
Total domestic produce	$5,517,633	$5,368,867	$9,389,754

	1852.	1853.	1854.
Foreign produce in American vessels.....	72,504	27,393	26,250
Foreign vessels.....	3,184	13,753	22,827
Total exports	$5,593,321	$5,410,013	$9,438,831

We do expect this ratio of increase to continue for another quarter, but we do look for large shipments both of cotton and breadstuffs, during the whole of the next five months.

NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR MONTH ENDING NOVEMBER 17.

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

Our market during the entire month under review has been extremely spiritless; the weather for maturing and picking the crop has continued favorable; larger estimates of the yield have been indulged in; buyers have operated with caution, and with the exception of the moderate demand for the home trade, the inquiry for export has been of a most limited character. The shipments, nevertheless, from *first* hands have been large, and with increasing stock and a stringent money market, there has been no other outlet to the successive accumulations. The foreign advices received during the month in relation to cotton are but a repetition of those of the month previous, namely, an eagerness on the part of holders to realize, and in consequence, *and as usual*, classification has been sacrificed to price, in order to obtain a buyer. The demand in our own market has been mostly on spinners' account and for immediate consumption. The few lots *bought* for export have been on a parity with Liverpool prices, which the irregularity in prices of the last two weeks of the month have caused holders to accept.

For the week ending October 27th the sales are estimated at 3,000 bales; buyers obtained a slight advantage in price. Foreign accounts being of a gloomy character, and the large and extensive failures reported in Liverpool and London, induced opertors to act with more caution. Our market closed quietly at the annexed figures:—

PRICES ADOPTED OCTOBER 27TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7⅜	7⅜	7⅜	8
Middling.....	9⅜	9½	9⅝	9¾
Middling fair.....	10½	10⅝	10¾	10⅞
Fair.....	10¾	10⅞	11	11¼

The transactions for the week ending November 3d, continued on a moderate scale at a still further decline. The sales did not exceed 4,000 bales, of which the home trade took a large proportion. Several lots in *transitu* changed hands; but with the exception of a few purchases for the continental ports, there was but little inquiry for shipment. The market closed at the following rates:—

PRICES ADOPTED NOVEMBER 3D FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	7½	7½	7½	7¾
Middling.....	9¼	9⅜	9½	9¾
Middling fair.....	10¼	10⅜	10½	10¾
Fair.....	10½	10¾	11	11¼

The sales are estimated at 3,000 bales for the week ending November 10th. The market was very irregular, and holders were anxious sellers, but owing to the favorable reports from the South in regard to the crop, buyers were not disposed to operate, and the principal sales were for domestic consumption. The week closed heavy at the following nominal quotations:—

PRICES ADOPTED NOVEMBER 10TH FOR THE FOLLOWING VARIETIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7½	7½	7½	7⅞
Middling	9¼	9¼	9⅜	9⅝
Middling fair	10¼	10¼	10½	10⅞
Fair	10½	10⅝	10¾	11

With sales of about 3,500 bales the market for the week ending November 17th showed more variation in prices, and holders seemed disposed to sell at any rate obtainable. Towards the close of the week, however, rather more favorable foreign accounts were received, and in connection with reports of killing frost as far south as Alabama, the decline in the staple for the moment was arrested. The general feeling however, is rather against present prices, and nothing short of a low range of figures are now in favor. The market closed at the following rates:—

PRICES ADOPTED NOVEMBER 17TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7½	7½	7½	7⅞
Middling	9	9⅛	9⅜	9½
Middling fair	9⅝	9⅞	10⅛	10⅜
Fair	10¼	10⅜	10½	10⅝

CROP—ESTIMATES. The weather since our last has been extremely fine for the crop, and the damage by frost of rather an unimportant character. The decline in all the Southern markets gives an additional value to the increased estimates now put forth, and which range from 3,100,000 to 3,250,000 bales.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

REAL AND PERSONAL PROPERTY IN CHICAGO IN 1854.

Each succeeding year, says the Chicago *Democrat*, shows a steady increase in the valuation of the real and personal property in Chicago. The figures on the assessors' books are one means by which we may gauge our prosperity, when one year is compared with another; but it must be remembered that these valuations are much below what the property would bring in the market. We present from the assessors' books the following:—

GENERAL SUMMARY OF TAXES FOR 1854.

City divisions.	Valuation of real estate.	Valuation of personal estate.	General taxes.
South	$8,657,840	.....	$56,275 96
South	.....	$4,467,546	29,039 04
West	7,442,799	.....	66,985 20
West	.....	647,906	5,831 15
North	2,890,105	.....	26,010 94
North	.....	286,043	2,574 39
Total	18,990,744	5,401,496	186,716 39

The value of the real estate, as assessed in 1853, was $18,479,007; for the present year it is $18,990,744—showing an increase of $511,737.

The valuation of the personal property in 1853 was $4,450,630; for 1854 it is $5,401,495—showing an increase of $950,865.

The total valuation of real and personal property for 1853 was $22,929,637—giving an increase of $1,462,602.

THE CALIFORNIA GOLD PRODUCT.

[FROM THE SAN FRANCISCO PLACER TIMES.]

In regard to the gold resources of the State, the mines, notwithstanding the apprehensions frequently expressed abroad, continue to yield their treasure in unabated abundance, and at no time, perhaps, since their discovery, have the prospects been more cheering. It is true that in many localities, where the surface diggings have been exhausted, successful mining requires more labor, and a greater investment of capital than formerly. The surface diggings which "pay" are comparatively few, and the great bulk of the gold hereafter to find its way into the market will probably be obtained either by tunneling the mountains or fluming their streams. Still, many of the old localities, long since thought to be exhausted, are found, since the introduction of water by ditching, to reward well the labor bestowed upon them. Such works as those referred to are invaluable to the mining regions, and it is to be regretted that so little well-directed attention has heretofore been bestowed upon them. Some counties, recently involved in debt, have been redeemed through their operation, and are now prosperous. El Dorado may be mentioned as an instance. Eighteen months ago her stock could scarcely be sold for thirty cents on the dollar. She is now out of debt, and has some $20,000 surplus in her treasury. She owns about $2,000,000 in ditch property.

The introduction of water has opened a new field of operations on the hill-sides, and mountains are being washed from their summits to their bases. The present is the commencement of the season for such an enterprise, the river beds being relinquished, in consequence of the rise of the waters.

It is doubtful whether the number of persons employed in mining is as great as in former years, but at no previous period, perhaps, was individual gain so great as at present. By combining labor, and investing capital in extensive works, miners have become more provident, and save more of their earnings than was formerly the case when they depended on individual enterprise. Moreover, the cost of the means of living is scarcely one-sixth of what it was a few years ago, and hence the miner is enabled to save a much larger share of his earnings now than then.

By the following tabular statements, it will be seen that, so far as we may judge from the amount of treasure shipped by steamers from the port of San Francisco, or deposited in the Branch Mint for coinage, the yield of the mines the present year, up to the 1st inst., exceeds that of a corresponding period of last year about half a million of dollars. It is probable, however, that much dust, the result of the present year's labor, yet remains in the hands of the miners, as occasions to part with it have been far less pressing the present than during any previous year.

The following have been the semi-monthly shipments, for the first nine months of 1853 and 1854 respectively:—

	1853.	1854.		1853.	1854.
January 16....	$1,744,399	$1,729,532	June 16.....	$2,223,870	$2,245,213
February 1....	2,430,000	1,755,488	July 1.....	2,004,149	2,067,876
February 15...	2,890,558	2,081,729	July 16.....	2,128,052	1,966,953
March 1.....	2,066,338	1,549,647	August 1.....	2,462,488	2,159,318
March 16.....	2,419,400	1,816,724	August 16.....	2,243,094	2,155,898
April 1.....	2,234,308	2,206,789	September 1...	2,416,709	2,383,551
April 16.....	2,596,560	2,312,424	September 16..	2,193,864	1,951,456
May 1.....	2,130,738	2,149,681	October 1.....	2,559,636	2,301,738
May 16.....	2,511,986	2,347,444			
June 1..... ..	2,604,583	2,685,615	Total.....	$41,860,732	$37,858,076

Showing a decrease in 1854 of $4,002,656. To effect this deficiency, we have the following amounts deposited at the Branch Mint in San Francisco for coinage, since that establishment went into operation in April last:—

GOLD DEPOSITED FOR COINAGE.

April.....oz.	36,393.09	$667,991.25	Aug.....oz.	56,580.62	1,042,511.95
May.....	43,388.22	776,322.60	Sept.....	53,049.25	1,124,938.42
June.....	23,853.76	437,629.02			
July.....	25,104.72	457,775.10	Total....oz.	248,369.66	$4,527,168.34

By adding, therefore, the amount deposited for coinage, to the amount manifested by steamers, we have $42,385,244 or $524,512 more than was shipped during a corresponding period of 1853.

TRADE AND GOLD SUPPLIES OF ENGLAND.

[From the London *Morning Chronicle* of October 18, 1854.]

The importations of the precious metals have for weeks and months past been considerable, keeping pace with the demand for gold, whether for home purposes or for shipment to the continent. It will not, however, have been forgotten that we have on several occasions, since the eastern question assumed a serious aspect, called attention to the certainty of an European war drawing gold from this country to a very considerable extent, and beyond the general anticipation. The enormous yield of the Californian and Australian mines has not greatly increased our stock of bullion in the Bank of England. We have shown that the expansion of trade, caused by an enlarged supply of the precious metals, would absorb the whole of that supply, and that it would not remain in this country an unproductive and cumbersome burden, but would be distributed all over the world. Wherever gold has been in demand, there it has gone. Europe has taken a large share. India and China another portion, and the rest has been generally distributed. It has not remained in England, and the supply and demand have been more or less equal. That gold has become more plentiful abroad since its discovery in the Australian and Californian mines, is evident from a variety of facts. Take, for example, France. Until the present year, gold has almost borne a premium, greater or less, as the supply or demand varied, and no later than last year the exchange brokers of Paris invariably demanded a premium upon gold in exchange for notes. During the present year they, on the contrary, give gold freely for notes without a premium. At Constantinople, again, English sovereigns, which once were scarce, are now plentiful. The natural expansion of trade, produced by the abundance of the precious metals in England during the last few years, combined with general prosperity, and the absence of any disturbing causes, are, in conjunction with the large amount of corn we had to pay for, the primary causes of the great distribution here referred to. Of the enormous arrivals of gold in England, nothing now remains of them here. Gold and silver are still wanted on the continent; and whatever may be the amount of the importations into this country, the demand abroad will still be supplied by us, and will keep in check any very great preponderence of supply over our own wants. It will be seen by the following table that, although the importation from all parts this year have been very large, the stock of bullion has not increased; on the contrary, it has decreased. This is so far satisfactory, as it shows how ready a market we find for what would otherwise be a most serious burden. While the stock of bullion in the bank does not fall below a certain point, there is no cause for uneasiness when we see gold go out as fast as it comes into the country, for we shall do a larger trade, and consequently derive a greater profit:—

Week ending—	Total arrivals of gold.	Bullion in Bank of England.	Week ending—	Total arrivals of gold.	Bullion in Bank of England.
January 7....	£1,070,000	£15,831,072	June 3....	£110,000	£12,750,149
14....	280,000	16,069,132	10....	573,000	12,728,053
21....	575,000	16,096,206	17....	850,000	13,109,377
28....	820,000	16,223,214	24....	760,000	13,869,975
February 4....	385,000	16,226,683	July 1....	670,000	14,215,598
11....	400,000	16,203,528	8....	250,000	14,021,207
18....	730,000	16,255,313	15....	162,000	13,823,872
25....	240,000	16,286,165	22....	830,000	13,633,679
March 4....	4,000	15,908,903	29....	372,000	13,484,324
11....	672,000	15,396,685	August 5....	800,000	13,299,510
18....	400,000	14,822,839	12....	576,000	13,561,821
25....	.....	14,629,282	19....	408,000	13,701,292
April 1....	922,000	14,449,718	26....	206,000	13,635,424
8....	270,000	14,140,599	Septemb'r 2....	700,000	13,368,371
15....	.....	13,510,873	9....	232,000	13,321,819
22....	600,000	13,314,093	16....	1,000,000	13,279,370
29....	720,000	12,915,926	23....	357,000	13,228,836
May 6....	218,000	12,608,079	30....	730,000	13,059,870
13....	94,000	12,589,366	October 7....	480,000	12,972,466
20....	650,000	12,513,969	14....	1,000,000	.....
27....	610,000	12,740,849			

We have here a total importation of gold into this country, during a period of nine months and a half, of £20,720,000, and a diminution during the same period in the

stock of bullion held by the Bank of England of £3,313,679. Until within the last few weeks, the fact of the large arrivals of gold finding no resting-place here has caused no surprise, because the public were well aware that shipments to the continent continued. Since the late favorable turn, however, in the rates of the foreign exchanges, which it was expected would check the drain upon our metallic resources, it has become a matter of surprise that gold does not accumulate, notwithstanding the large arrivals week after week, and the well-known fact that, so far as they can be ascertained, the exports to the continent have nearly ceased. None of the late arrivals, it must be observed, have gone into the vaults of the Bank of England, for the stock of bullion has steadily diminished. It is evident, therefore, that a very large quantity of gold goes abroad, of which the public have no knowledge, and the amount of which cannot be ascertained. The payment of the troops in the East, and the expenses of the commissariat and other departments necessarily absorb a very large sum. This drain goes on, to some extent, irrespective of the state of the foreign exchanges, and thus it will continue. It is highly desirable that some record should be taken at the various custom-houses of England of the precious metals exported, but at present there is no such return kept. The subject is, however, intended to be brought before Parliament next session, with a view to obtain as authentic a record as possible under the circumstances, for the guidance of the monetary and commercial interests.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS.

The returns of the banks of New Orleans for the weeks ending October 16th and 23d, are given in the subjoined statement. For similar statements for last weeks in April and June, see *Merchants' Magazine* for July and September, 1854.

CASH ASSETS.

	LOANS.		SPECIE.	
	Oct. 23.	Oct. 16.	Oct. 23.	Oct. 16.
Citizens' Bank	$3,453,806	$3,423,486	$1,397,536	$1,352,206
Canal Bank	2,701,474	2,653,141	1,248,969	1,261,255
Louisiana	3,423,273	3,305,154	1,596,232	1,365,393
Louisiana State	2,945,422	2,867,499	1,738,567	1,721,290
Mechanics' and Traders	963,136	973,319	242,112	186,185
Bank of New Orleans	846,451	818,911	238,343	225,115
Southern Bank	561,656	612,298	156,741	118,815
Union Bank	769,400	715,797	165,312	155,799
Total	15,661,624	15,369,509	6,783,832	6,486,368
Increase	.....	292,115	.....	297,464

CASH LIABILITIES.

	CIRCULATION.		DEPOSITS.	
	Oct. 23.	Oct. 16.	Oct. 23.	Oct. 16.
Citizens' Bank	$1,748,320	$1,710,065	$1,817,528	$1,799,967
Canal Bank	1,136,305	1,145,565	1,128,152	1,041,129
Louisiana Bank	962,409	1,003,549	2,656,196	2,479,884
Louisiana State	1,077,960	1,087,420	2,821,968	2,831,230
Mechanics' and Traders'	81,515	56,535	620,898	625,049
Bank of New Orleans	393,945	402,915	540,188	540,485
Southern Bank	272,565	271,410	252,680	316,673
Union Bank	309,705	303,315	494,588	443,755
Total	5,982,724	5,580,774	10,326,898	10,878,172
Increase	.....	1,950	.....	248,726

In addition to the foregoing cash assets, the banks hold foreign and domestic exchange to the extent of the respective figures opposite:—

Bank of Louisiana	$157,098	Mechanics' and Traders' Bank.	$10,703
Canal Bank	308,040	Citizens' Bank	217,566
Southern Bank	458,330	Bank of New Orleans	221,023
Louisiana State Bank	11,257	Union Bank	181,882
Total			$1,565,899

THE NEW BRITISH STAMP ACT.

The following is a brief summary of the alterations made by the new stamp act of 1854, which is now in force. We have taken chiefly such parts of the act as relate to bills of exchange, &c., drawn out of the United Kingdom, and which are of interest to the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* in the United States:—

Bills drawn out of the United Kingdom are to be denoted by adhesive stamps, and not to be negotiated without such stamps being affixed. With regard to bankers' drafts, by the present law drafts drawn on bankers within fifteen miles are exempted from duty, but by this act a draft cannot be remitted or sent beyond fifteen miles unless duly stamped, or be received in payment, or as a security, or otherwise circulated, under a penalty of £50.

All bank-notes other than the Bank of England are to be liable to duty. There is a clause repealing the exemption from receipt stamp duty of letters by the general post, acknowledging the arrival of bills, notes, or other securities for money. Receipts for money paid to the crown are to be exempted from stamp duty. Some alterations are made with respect to stamps on conveyances of property. The duty on pawnbrokers' licenses in Dublin is reduced from £15 to £7 10s. All contracts to serve as artificers, servants, &c., in the colonies, are to be exempted from duty, as also public maps and documents referred to in deeds or writings. Leases for a period less than a year are to be chargeable with duty on the rent received.

In order to encourage the purchase of stamps, persons buying stamps not exceeding 1s. duty are to be allowed at the rate of 7½ per cent on £5 worth and upwards. No charge is to be made for the paper, either on notes or bills, where the same does not exceed the duty of 1s. An allowance is to be made, up to the 5th April next, for stamps rendered useless by this act.

All instruments liable to stamp duty are to be admitted in evidence in criminal proceedings, although not properly stamped.

Foreign Bill of Exchange drawn in, but payable out of the United Kingdom, if drawn singly or otherwise than in a set of three or more, the same duty as on an Inland Bill of the same amount and tenor. If drawn in sets of three or more, for every bill of each set:—

Where the sum payable thereby shall not exceed.....			£25	0	0	1
Where it shall exceed £25 and not exceed.....			50	0	0	2
"	50	"	75	0	0	3
"	75	"	100	0	0	4
"	100	"	200	0	0	8
"	200	"	300	0	1	0
"	300	"	400	0	1	4
"	400	"	500	0	1	8
"	500	"	750	0	2	6
"	750	"	1,000	0	3	4
"	1,000	"	1,500	0	5	0
"	1,500	"	2,000	0	6	8
"	2,000	"	3,000	0	10	0
"	3,000	"	4,000	0	13	4
"	4,000	and upwards		0	15	0

Foreign Bill of Exchange drawn out of the United Kingdom, and payable within the United Kingdom, the same duty as on an Inland Bill of the same amount and tenor.

Foreign Bill of Exchange drawn out of the United Kingdom, and payable out of the United Kingdom, but indorsed or negotiated within the United Kingdom, the same duty as on a Foreign Bill drawn within the United Kingdom, and payable out of the United Kingdom.

HAMBURG MONEY-CHANGERS.

The following graphic and amusing description of a Hamburg money-changer's office, is from a new work (not published in this country) entitled "*A Brace Breaker with the Swedes*," by W. BLANCHARD JERROLD:—

On entering a dirty little office in a side street, we discovered a long coarse deal

counter, extending nearly the length of the room, behind which were an old man and an elderly woman. The man was in a dirty, shabby condition; the woman looked like a superior housemaid. A sturdy German or Dane had planted his elbows firmly upon the counter, and was intently watching the old man, who, with a bit of chalk, was wildly running a sum about the board. Presently, after mature reflection, and trying the calculation two or three ways, he gave the sturdy customer his load of Hamburg money; and the customer went on his way rejoicing, perhaps to have a *petit souper* in one of the cellars, with his chum. The old lady addressed us; and while the captain was talking Swedish to her Danish, I amused myself looking about the queer little office. Behind the old lady lay a heap of filthy, ragged, greasy paper; and here and there, in careless heaps, gold and silver of various countries. Money seemed to be very carelessly treated, to a passing observer; but I noticed that it was as carelessly counted; at stray intervals, and dropped, as by accident, into little drawers under the counter, which by the merest chance the old man happened to lock. Presently, to my infinite disgust, the old lady caught up the heap of ragged, dirty, greasy paper, and threw it upon the counter; then with a look of inquiry seemed to ask the captain if that was what he meant. The captain's eye glowed with pleasure at the sight of the well-remembered dirt and grease; and forthwith he began to fumble about it, and in mysterious under-tones to talk of rix and banco. Then the old man came to the help of the partner of his bosom and his bank, or, as I should think they would say in Hamburg, of his bank and bosom. Forthwith, after a glance at the heap of official Swedish rags and the bright English gold displayed by the captain, the old man seized his chalk, and ran a sum vehemently up and down the counter, here and there rubbing out a wrong figure with his cuffs. Having drawn a perfect boa-constrictor of figures, (the earlier ones being in wide rows, tapering off gradually in graceful curves to a single figure,) he opened a little drawer, and threw a handful of Swedish gold upon the table. The sight of this made the captain exceedingly wroth; he declared that he had been in Sweden a whole year, had never seen one piece of Swedish gold in circulation, and that these coins had been recalled. But the old gentleman persisted in counting them out, while the captain persisted in vehemently declining to accept them. At this point, with a look that hovered between indignation and despair, the old lady went to fetch her son; the man who could divide anything by anything, and, as he proved, subtract to perfection. This prodigy was a pale, spare, angular, yellow young man, with a forehead of astonishing proportions, and an eye, I thought, of remarkable dulness; of shabby appearance, and with a lump of chalk firmly planted in his lean right hand. His father whispered hurriedly to him, and forthwith he began to whirl a sum of terrible intricacy about the table. The old gentleman, presently catching his idea, also began another sum. And then the two seemed to race, running the figures of their respective sums into one another, without creating the least confusion; the father adding where the son was dividing; the son firmly planting his quotient upon the parental dividend. In the end the son gave a patronizing nod to the father, intimating that the old man's calculation was right; whereupon the old lady once more advanced to action, and began to count out the Swedish gold. This attempt threw the captain into a terrible passion. He snatched up his English money, and began deliberately to replace it in his purse. The changer and his family looked astonished and disgusted; but at last the captain agreed to take the paper-money, (of which there was only ten or twelve pounds' worth,) and with this we left the most remarkable money-changing establishment it has ever been my lot to visit.

MONEYS APPROPRIATED BY THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.

We give below the official totals of the sums of money appropriated at the last session of Congress for the undermentioned purposes:—

Civil, diplomatic, and miscellaneous	$15,944,852 14
Army, fortifications, Military Academy, &c.	11,373,568 90
Indian Department, naval, revolutionary, and other pensions	3,984,686 19
Naval service	12,510,868 46
Post-office Department	11,293,904 63
Treaty with Mexico	10,000,000 00
Total	$65,107,825 32

BANK AND RAILROAD STOCKS.

A correspondent of the Boston *Transcript* administers comfort to railroad share and bond holders, drawn from the fact that the present depreciation in the market value of their property is not without its parallel in bank stocks. He says:—

About fifteen years ago, there was a like panic in bank stock throughout the country, affecting both sound and unsound institutions. Bank stock had previously been up as at present to par and an advance. The stock of the Atlas Bank fell from 105 to 72; Granite, to 76; Traders', 76; North, 79; South, to 60, and was then wound up, and paid the stockholders 07½. The Atlantic sold for 81, Shawmut 80, Tremont, City, and others of the same class at similar figures; Merchants', Globe, Union, State, below par. The Market Bank from 104 fell to 55, then had its capital reduced to 70 per share, its present par value.

The Suffolk was the only bank that kept up to par. Bank dividends were then mere skeletons. Stockholders, on consulting the semi-annual report, found to their dismay, *none* scattered up and down the page. A semi-annual list of that period commenced as follows:—

American, none; Atlantic, none; Atlas, none. The Atlas paid no dividend for two or three years; some institutions eked out 1½, some 2, some 2½ per cent semi-anually. The Suffolk alone kept up to 4, the Merchants' and one or two others to 3 per cent. Bank stock was then looked upon as railroad property now is. There were more sellers than buyers at low figures. Railroads from that date took a start. The Worcester from 77 went up gradually to 122; Western from 40 to 112; Lowell from 86 to 130; Maine from 75 to 118; Fitchburgh from 90 to 128, and so on. That bank panic was like the present one in railroad property. Some few were mismanaged, some failed, and distrust settled upon them all, depreciating their market value from 10 to 50 per cent. So at present with railroad stock and bonds; some rascality has been perpetrated, some roads have been mismanaged, and nearly the whole, stock and bonds, settle down from 5 to 50 per cent below par. That new roads that have got submerged in debt should lose nearly all market value, as regards the common stock, is not surprising; but that old, established roads, and first mortgage 7 per cent bonds for about one-third the actual cost of building, on finished roads running through a populous and fertile country, should be forced down to 50 per cent discount, is indeed a marvel.

THE ISSUE OF FRAUDULENT STOCK IN VERMONT.

The Legislature of Vermont has passed a law to punish the fraudulent issue and transfer of stock in that State. The example should be followed by every State in the Union. The act passed by both houses, and was approved by the Governor November 1st, 1854, and is now in force.

An act to punish the fraudulent issue and transfer of certificates of stock in corporations:—

Section 1. Every president, cashier, treasurer, secretary, or other officer, and every agent of any bank, railroad, manufacturing, or other corporation, who shall wilfully and designedly sign, with intent to issue, sell, or pledge, or cause to be issued, sold, or pledged, any false, fraudulent, or simulated certificate, or other evidence of the ownership or transfer of any share or shares of the capital stock of such corporation, or any certificates or other evidence of the ownership or transfer of any share or shares in such corporation, or any instrument purporting to be a certificate or other evidence of such ownership or transfer, the signing, issuing, selling, or pledging of which, by such president, cashier, treasurer, or other officer or agent, shall not be authorized by the charter and by-laws of such corporation, or by some amendment thereof, shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall be punished by a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, and imprisonment in the State's prison not less than one year, nor more than ten years, in the discretion of the court.

Sec. 2. This act shall take effect from its passage.

DEBTS AND DEBTORS IN ENGLAND.

According to an official report, made to Parliament in 1822, 15,249 insolvent debtors had been discharged, whose debts amounted to £11,000,000, and whose estates

had produced only £60,000, each estate, therefore, producing about £4. When inquiry was made into the statistics of insolvency, as exhibited under Lord Brougham's Act of 1842, it appeared that 1,500 insolvent debtors had passed through the Court of Bankruptcy, under that law, in about fifteen months, whose estates had produced £5,000 only, that is about £3 10s. each case. Assuming that the average amount of debt in each of the 1,500 cases was the same as in each of the 15,249 cases, that is, about £720, then these 1,500 insolvents owed about £1,000,000. The London district may be taken as one-third of England and Wales, and if so, then the loss by the insolvents of England and Wales who pass through the Court of Bankruptcy may be taken at about £3,000,000. Besides this loss, there is the loss by those insolvents who pass through the Insolvent Debtor's Court, by bankrupts, by debtors who compound privately, and by those who fly to foreign countries. Taking all into consideration, the losses sustained in this way cannot be less than £20,000,000 per annum. A London editor, alluding to these facts, complains of the loss so enormous, and remarks:—

"The question is, can any system be devised, by which the loss by bad debts can be diminished? Now it is obvious that the best mode of diminishing these losses is by bringing the insolvent debtor to an arrangement with his creditors at the earliest possible period, for it is during the last few months of struggle that the greatest waste occurs."

EXPENDITURES OF BOSTON IN 1803-4 AND IN 1853-54.

A correspondent of the Boston *Transcript* gives a full and complete account of the expenses of the town of Boston from May, 1803, to May, 1804, derived from the printed report of Benjamin Sumner, Town Treasurer and Collector. It is interesting, if not instructive, to note the changes of the last half-century. From Mr. Sumner's statement, it appears that in 1803–4, Boston had 7 schoolmasters, whose salaries were $866 64 per annum. The ushers had $433 33 a year. The whole amount paid for salaries to teachers, and the incidental expenses of the schools, was only $16,687 11, of which sum $6,295 12 was required for a new school-house. The expenses of the schools now are $329,800 20. The salaries of all the teachers were $9,266 46; now they are $193,039 41. The Watch Department in 1804 cost $6,257 60. In 1853 it was $87,803 96. The salaries of city officers and judges were $3,954 22; now they are $66,252 98. The expense of the Fire Department was $1,441 65; now it is about $70,000. In 1804, the amount paid for the repairs and widening of streets was $12,210 68; in 1853 it was $253,048 10. The sum then paid for assistance rendered by the Overseers of the Poor was $15,339 90. Last year it was $27,000. The total expenditures of the year 1804 were $71,491. The city tax was $88,000; the town's proportion of the State tax was $17,620, and the county tax was $20,200, making a total of $125,820. Among the expenses in 1804, we find the following items:—Expenses of "visitation dinner," $365 10; ink to the schools, $60; expenses of several town committees, $44; "regulating" jury boxes, $62 50; repairs, and cleaning the Old South Church, after a town meeting, $92 50; expenses of visit to Deer Island $274 46.

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF VERMONT IN 1853–54.

Daniel Roberts has made his annual report to the Legislature as Bank Commissioner, giving the condition of the various banks in the State. From an abstract of this report, published in *Walton's Daily Journal*, the following facts appear, in comparison with the report of last year:—

Increase in the number of banks.	7	Decrease in circulation.....	$805,108
" of authorized capital....	$835,000	" of discounts	420,664
" of actual business capital	409,816	" in deposits abroad .	206,801
" of specie	8,151	" in total resources...	279,639

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

LIFE INSURANCE—WRIGHT'S TABLES.

ELIZUR WRIGHT, late Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in the Western Reserve College, Ohio, has just completed a series of "*Valuation* Tables, on the Combined Experience Rate of Mortality, for the Use of Life Insurance Companies." These tables were constructed at the special instance of six Life Insurance Companies, viz.: the New England Mutual, of Boston; the Union Mutual, of Augusta, Me.; the Connecticut Mutual, of Hartford; the United States, of New York; the Charter Oak, of Hartford, and the Mutual Benefit, of Newark, N. J., under an agreement that for ten years no company or person is to obtain possession or use of them without paying Mr. Wright, the proprietor of the copyright, the same as each of the above companies. Each company paid, we believe, two hundred and fifty dollars for a copy, a sum total of $1,500, which scarcely remunerates the author for time occupied in preparing these tables. The value of Mr. Wright's tables can scarcely be too highly estimated, and we should suppose that every Life Insurance Company in the United States would regard the possession of these tables as indispensable.

The utility of Mr. Wright's tables to Life Insurance Companies is, 1st, a saving of labor, enabling an ordinary clerk to do in one-tenth of the time, what could otherwise only be done by a professional actuary. 2d, a simplification by which the vital question of the solvency of the company, which is now intelligible only to the actuary, can easily be understood by any director of common intelligence, who chooses to spend a little time in verifying the clerk's valuation of policies. Mr. Wright has, in brief, "unmystified" a vital subject, by giving the companies a perpetual actuary, that don't talk in *logarithms*, or affect a profundity of science by an array of symbols derived from the higher mathematics.

We give below the larger part of the author's introduction, omitting his lucid explanation of the use of the several tables, leaving it with the managers of Life Insurance Companies to estimate the value of Mr. Wright's incomparable work:—

"As popular intelligence and refinement advance, Life Insurance must become a more and more essential part of the social fabric. It will involve a larger and larger portion of the capital of the country, and become, perhaps, the chief treasury of accumulated savings. It is important, therefore, that its principles should be generally understood, and especially that its practice should be reduced to the range of ordinary mathematical ability and freed from unnecessary expense. Thus far, to the million, it has been enveloped in considerable mystery. Under the cloud, fraudulent companies have largely bled the confiding; and those of a different character have felt obliged to saddle themselves with high salaries for "eminent mathematicians" to pilot them annually across the unknown depths of the logarithm table. The hieroglyphic veil which concealed from the common herd the learning of the ancient Egyptian priesthood was thin; and that which renders a priesthood of professional actuaries necessary for the safe conduct of modern Life Insurance is not thick. The more carefully, then, must it be preserved by those who have it for a livelihood. In Great Britain it is well cared for by a society of able actuaries, who, as if nothing had been settled, vastly magnify the importance of further scientific observations to ascertain the law of the decrement of human life and original mathematical investigations to produce new formulas to govern its application. Monthly they enlighten the public, and particularly the boards of Life Insurance directors, with nice discussions clothed in algebraic symbols, mathematically converting the hair of the subject into fur, and cultivating the reverent estimation in which their important services are held. They

keep up a running dispute, and split into several rather belligerent sects, on the simple matter of the proper way to ascertain and exhibit the balance between the resources and liabilities of a Life Insurance Company—as if it were a question of the profoundest difficulty. Indeed, it is not to be expected that men, who enjoy honor and emolument from being considered the exclusive depositaries of a science so useful to the world, should so popularize and simplify it as to remove the bread from their own mouths and the glory from their own wigs. The genius of European institutions does not tend in that direction. It is otherwise with ours.

In this country, corporations for Life Insurance have existed for a quarter of a century or more, and during the last ten years they have rapidly multiplied; but in most cases their directors have been guiltless of any undue expenditure for mathematical skill to aid in their management. It is not many years since a New York Life Office, having lost a considerable sum by the defalcation of one of its officers, paid a London actuary three hundred pounds to ascertain its liabilities to its policy holders, that it might know whether the balance of its assets were sufficient to meet them. Had this office been supplied with the tables, its humblest clerk might have relieved its anxiety with equal exactness in one week.

"Out of a given large number of lives existing at a given age, the number that will terminate in each year thereafter, till all are extinct, has been found to be remarkably near the same thing, whether the observation be directed to population at large, to classes of annuitants, or to assured lives. There is an obvious tendency in human life, as the basis of observation is enlarged, to a fixed law of decrement, or one which is as nearly fixed as the character of social and sanitary institutions. Accordingly it is found that, when the scales derived from the different observations which have been careful and extensive are adjusted, so as to free them from slight and obviously fortuitous anomalies, they do not considerably differ. Assuming an average rate of interest below that which will probably accrue on money safely invested, so long as money is invested at all, any of them may safely be made the basis of premium. In actual practice, the premiums charged by existing offices are mostly estimated on the Carlisle rate of mortality, assuming interest at three or four per cent, and adding twenty or twenty-five per cent to the mathematical requirement to meet expenses and contingencies. While, therefore, the interest of money is actually six or seven per cent, and the companies are honestly and economically conducted, they cannot fail to accumulate a surplus; and, if no division should be made, a mutual company might cease to issue policies, meet all its obligations as they fell due, and leave its last survivor a millionaire. Justice requires that the surplus should be kept down by frequent dividends, so as never much to exceed the requirement of the law of mortality. What at any time this requirement may be, is the vital question for a company. In selecting a scale to express the law, for the purpose of ascertaining what may be divided, it is of no importance that it should be the same as that by which the premiums have been fixed; but it should be well adjusted, and should not too favorably represent the ratio of mortality that is to be expected. The premiums may have been fixed on too low a rate of mortality, and yet, by virtue of the arbitrary addition or "loading," be sufficiently high. What shall be held in reserve at any time, as equivalent to the present liability on the policies, is an entirely independent question. It has nothing to do with the premiums as "loaded," or with future probable expenses, which are provided for by the loading of future premiums.

In selecting a basis for the tables, I have preferred that scale of mortality which I found nearest the mean of modern observations and containing the fewest irregularities. It was deduced from an observation of sixty-two thousand five hundred and thirty-seven town and county assurances in seventeen British offices, including the ancient "Amicable" and "Equitable," by a committee of leading British actuaries, and is known by the name of the "Combined Experience." It has sometimes been objected to the authority of this scale, by those who prefer the "Carlisle," that it is founded, not on so many distinct lives, but on policies, and that the average duration of these policies scarcely exceeded eight years, half of them not averaging five and a half years; and therefore, by virtue of recent selection, these lives were better than similarly selected lives would be during a long course of years. Observations on the force of selection do not give great weight to this objection. But if the Carlisle rate be received as good authority, the objection is entirely futile, because the Combined Experience requires on the whole a considerably larger reserve, and there is no question of its better adjustment. Indeed, it requires a rather larger reserve than the very carefully prepared experience of the old Equitable Company, which has been

called an adjusted Carlisle. Of the rules now generally adopted for governing the business of Life Insurance, it is that which is safest for the company. There is not the slightest probability that future observations will show the propriety of changing this rule till there occurs some radical social change affecting the general tenure of life; and that change, it is to be hoped, will not render this rule less safe.

To determine how the affairs of a company should be exhibited, and what should appear on each side of the balance sheet, let us suppose a case of one which has been in business some time and is free from outstanding claims. Its resources for meeting its engagements consist of actual cash assets and premiums that will hereafter accrue, according to an assumed rate of mortality, on the policies in force. Its liabilities are for the payment of claims under the policies, as they will terminate by death, according to the same ratio of mortality, and the unavoidable expenses of conducting the business. Let us represent the assets by A; the present value of the future premiums, as discounted at the assumed rates of interest and mortality, by P; the present value of the future claims, or sums assured, discounted at the same rates, by S; and the present value of future probable expenses, &c., by E. If there be any surplus to divide, let it be represented by D. Then $A + P = S + E + D$. This equation, the first member of which is the *credit* and the second the *debit* side of the balance, is commonly offered to the public annually by the British offices as a statement of their affairs. But it is not so lucid as it might be. The discounted sum of the future premiums, P, is larger than that of the net premiums that are required by the assumed rates of interest and mortality by a sum which is precisely equal to E. Or letting p represent the present value of the net premiums, $P = p + E$. Substituting this value of P in the above equation, $A + p + E = S + E + D$. Subtracting $p + E$ from both sides, $A = S - p + D$. Now $S - p$, or the difference between the present value of the sums assured and the present value of the net premiums upon the policies, is the same as the sum of the value of the policies at the present time. In other words, it is the reinsurance, or what the company in equity would have to pay to be released from its engagements. Of course it is the true measure, according to the assumed standard of mortality, of what the company should reserve from dividend. The balance of its assets it may divide. It is therefore as needless as it is embarrassing to lumber the balance sheet with a valuation of loaded premiums, to be offset by the value of the loading on the other side, or to leave the real liability to be arrived at by subtracting the present value of the future premiums from the present value of the amount insured."

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

In these companies a wife can insure the life of her husband, and receive the amount of the policy if she survives his death, free from the claims of the representatives of her husband or of any of his creditors. A creditor may insure the life of his debtor; a young man may procure capital by getting an insurance on his life, and assigning the policy as collateral security for a loan. Dividends are added to the principal, or go to the reduction of annual premiums, at the option of the insured party. A congregation can insure the life of their pastors, and thereby provide for their surviving families.

Parties who do not feel that their circumstances will warrant their engaging to pay a specified annual sum during life, may take an accumulative policy, by paying from time to time any small sum, which insures a certain amount to their families at death In case of sickness or casualty, the party can draw any part of the money paid in, by which he will only reduce the amount insured, and therefore as available to the poor man and more advantageous than a savings bank. We quote the following from McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary in favor of life insurance:—

The relief from anxiety afforded by life insurance very frequently contributes to prolong the life of the insured, at the same time that it materially augments the comfort and well-being of those dependent upon him. It has also an obvious tendency to strengthen habits of accumulation. Having thus been led to contract a habit of saving to a certain extent, it is most probable that the habit will acquire additional strength, and that he will insure an additional sum, or privately accumulate.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

FRENCH TARIFF ALTERATIONS.

The *Moniteur* of the 23d October, contains a decree which abolishes the law of the 17th December, 1814, and the decree of the 8th September, in 1852, relative to the customs duties on certain articles in the French tariff, and for which the undermentioned duties are in future to be charged:—

Dyestuffs are to be entirely freed from duty when brought direct from the place of production in French bottoms, and when coming from bonding warehouses in Europe, or brought in foreign vessels, to be subjected to differential duties calculated to afford sufficient protection to the French flag. Vanilla from the Island of Reunion, which now pays one franc the kilogramme, is to be admitted free. Beet-root, which has hitherto been classified under the head of fresh vegetables, and as such pays a duty of fifty centimes the one hundred kilogrammes, is to be reduced to thirty centimes. The duty on bamboos, reeds, and odoriferous woods to be suppressed when imported in French vessels, and proportionately reduced when brought in foreign bottoms. Potash is to be reduced two-thirds when brought from foreign countries, and one-half when coming from any part of Europe; and the duty on marble is to be made the same for importations by land as by sea:—

IMPORTATION.

Vanilla from the Island of Reunion	Exempt.		
Beet-root	0 f.	30 c.	100 kilog.
Dyestuffs, by French vessels from foreign countries	Exempt.		
" " bonding warehouses	5	00	100
" by foreign vessels	6	00	100
Odoriferous woods, by French vessels from foreign countries	Exempt.		
" from bonding warehouses	10	00	100
" by foreign vessels	15	00	100
Bamboos and foreign reeds, by French vessels from foreign countries	Exempt.		
" " from bonding warehouses	30	00	100
" " by foreign vessels	40	00	100
Exotic rosins, by French vessels from foreign countries	Exempt.		
" " bonding warehouses	10	00	100
" by foreign vessels	15	00	100
Dyestuffs, by French vessels from foreign countries	Exempt.		
" " bonding warehouses	3	00	100
" by foreign vessels	4	00	100
Galinuts, by French vessels from foreign countries	Exempt.		
" " bonding warehouses	3	00	100
" by foreign vessels	4	00	100
Marbles, imported by land	Same duty as by French vessels.		
Iron ore, imported by foreign vessels	0	25	100
Paving or other large stones, imported by land or by French vessels	Exempt.		
Charcoal and stalks of hemp peeled, by land or by French vessels	Exempt.		
Potash, by French vessels from French colonies	3	00	100
" " foreign countries not in Europe	6	00	100
" " bonding warehouses	10	00	100
" by foreign vessels	12	00	100

EXPORTATION.

Sand for manufacturing glass and earthenware	Exempt.

EMIGRATION AND THE MARINE HOSPITAL.

The following act of the State of New York to amend the several acts relating to the powers and duties of the Commissioners of Emigration, and for the regulation of the Marine Hospital, was passed April 13th, 1853, and is now in force:—

1. The time allowed by the second section, of chapter three hundred and thirty-nine, of the laws of eighteen hundred and fifty, to any owner or owners, consignee or consignees of any ship or vessel bringing emigrants or passengers to the city of New York, for giving the bond or bonds first mentioned in said section, or paying the money, also therein mentioned, shall henceforth be twenty-four hours instead of three days, from the landing of said passengers, and the time allowed by the said section to the said owner or owners, consignee or consignees of any such ship or vessel, for giving other bond or bonds mentioned in said section shall be twenty-four hours instead of six days from the making of the requirement for such last-mentioned bond or bonds.

2. The said commissioners of emigration are and each of them is hereby vested with the same powers in regard to the administering oaths of office to employees, and to the binding out of children with the consent of parents or next of kin, actually chargeable upon them, and also in regard to persons in the institution, or any of them under the charge of said commissioners for the prevention or punishment of an infraction or violation of the rules or orders and regulation of such commissioners or their officers in regard to such institutions as are possessed by the governors of the almshouse in the city of New York, or any of them for the same purposes.

3. The commissioners of emigration shall annually, on or before the first day of February in each year, report to the legislature the amount of moneys received, under the provisions of this act, during the preceding year, and the manner in which the same have been appropriated; stating particularly in detail the sum of each appropriation, and the purposes for which the same have been made.

4. The office of physician of marine hospital as constituted by section seventeen of chapter three hundred and fifty of the laws of eighteen hundred and forty-nine, is hereby restored, together with the duties and compensation of the same as specified in sections eighteen and twenty of said chapter three hundred and fifty of the laws of eighteen hundred and forty-nine.

5. The physician of marine hospital shall have power to select and appoint, subject to the approval of the commissioners of emigration, such and so many assistant physicians, graduates in medicine, as may be found necessary for the proper medical treatment of the inmates of the marine hospital, and to suspend or remove any of the same; but the number and rate of pay of said assistant physicians shall be regulated and determined by the commissioners of emigration. The physician of marine hospital shall have power to select, appoint and dismiss at pleasure, such and so many nurses and orderlies for the departments of such marine hospital as he may deem requisite for the proper care of the inmates thereof. And the commissioners of emigration shall regulate and determine the rate of pay of the nurses and orderlies employed at the marine hospital.

6. All discharges of patients from the marine hospital shall be in writing and by the physician of marine hospital, who shall be responsible for the same, and who is hereby expressly prohibited from discharging any patient sent to the marine hospital, and affected with a contagious or infectious disease, until such patient be cured of such disease; and the said physician of marine hospital shall receive into the marine hospital all cases of contagious, infectious and pestilential disease which may be sent thither by the health officer or under the authority of the board of health of the city of New York, except itch and syphilis, which shall not be construed as diseases entitling those suffering from them to be admitted as patients into the marine hospital.

7. All officers and employees of the marine hospital except chaplains shall be required to reside within the quarantine inclosure, and the commissioners of emigration are hereby required to provide suitable accommodations for the same.

8. The power granted to the health officer by an act entitled "An act relative to the public health, in the city of New York," passed April tenth, eighteen hundred and fifty, in so far as relates to the arrest and detention of persons eloping from the marine hospital, or persons invading the quarantine grounds, is hereby granted to the physician of marine hospital for the purpose of enabling him to maintain a marine

hospital as a quarantine establishment; and the said physician of marine hospital is authorized and required to prescribe rules for regulating intercourse with the hospital and its inmates, and he is expressly prohibited from admitting visitors at all, when in his judgment there may be danger of their communicating disease without the precincts of the quarantine grounds.

9. The physician of marine shall present to the legislature annually, on or before the first of March, a report of the general condition of the hospital under his charge, with the statistics of the institution in detail, and such other information and suggestions in regard to the same as he may deem advisable, and testify the same by his affidavit; he shall also furnish to the board of health of the city of New York and to the commissioners of emigration, whenever required by them so to do, an official return of the numbers and diseases of the patients in the marine hospital.

10. The health officer shall have no authority or control over the marine hospital, nor any charge or care of the sick inmates or employees of the institutions; he shall at all times, however, have free access to the several wards, with the privilege of examining the condition of the sick sent to the hospital under his authority, for the purpose of enabling him to judge as to the necessity for detaining the vessels from which said sick may have been landed; but nothing in this act shall be construed so as to interfere with the rights, duties and power of the health officer in regard to existing provisions of law, in so far as his control and authority over vessels and quarantine regulations upon the water may be concerned.

11. The commissioners of emigration shall remove from the marine hospital, and take charge of all emigrants whose quarantine has expired, and who shall have sufficiently recovered from the diseases with which they were admitted, on the notification in writing of the physician of marine hospital that such removal will not, with ordinary care endanger the safety of the individual or the health of the community.

12. The physician of marine hospital shall discharge the duties of superintendent of marine hospital, under the commissioners of emigration, and without further pecuniary compensation than that allowed him as physician.

13. The amount for which the master, owner or owners, consignee or consignees of any such ship or vessel may commute for any bond or bonds authorized or required by or pursuant to the seventh section of chapter five hundred and twenty-three of the laws of eighteen hundred and fifty-one, shall from and after the passage of this act be two dollars for each and every such passenger instead of one dollar and fifty cents as now provided by law, and fifty cents of the amount commuted for any passenger or passengers shall be set aside as a separate fund for the benefit of each and every county in this State, except the county of New York. The commissioners of emigration shall deposit the moneys of said fund so set apart in any bank that the said commissioners may select, and the same, or as much of it as may be necessary, shall be distributed to the several counties, except the county of New York, once in every three months, and the balance that may be left after such three months' payment, shall be paid over to the commissioners of emigration for general purposes.

14. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with or repugnant to the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

15. This act shall take effect immediately.

ACT RELATING TO AUCTIONEERS IN MINNESOTA.

The Legislative Assembly of the Territory of Minnesota has passed the following act, which was approved March 4, 1854:—

Be it enacted by the Legislative Assembly of the Territory of Minnesota; The Governor of this Territory shall appoint for the term of one year, one or more persons, who shall be legal voters, in each county in the Territory, to be auctioneers, and the person or persons receiving such appointment, shall pay to the clerk of the Board of County Commissioners, for the use of said county where such persons reside, the sum of one hundred dollars annually.

SEC. 2. No appointment under this act shall take effect until the payment of the one hundred dollars mentioned in the first section of this act to the clerk of the Board of County Commissioners of the county in which said appointee shall reside, and it is

hereby made the duty of the said clerk to record every appointment made, and forthwith pay over to the treasurer of the county the amount so paid, taking the treasurer's receipt therefor.

SEC. 3. Each auctioneer, before making any sales as auctions, shall give a bond to the treasurer of the county in which he or they reside, with two or more sufficient sureties, to be approved by the said treasurer, in such penal sum as the said treasurer shall require, not less than $1,000 nor more than $3,000, with condition to pay all auction duties required by law to the treasurer of the said county; and also, that he shall in all things well and truly conform to the laws relating to auctioneers; which bond shall be filed in the office of said treasurer, with the indorsement of his approval thereon

SEC. 4. If any person licensed as aforesaid shall receive for sale at auction any goods, wares, merchandise, or personal property, from any minor or servant, knowing him or her to be such servant or minor, or shall sell by auction any of his own goods before sunrise, or after sunset, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding $200 for each and every offense.

SEC. 5. Every licensed auctioneer shall keep a particular account of all goods, chattels, and property sold by him, the names of the persons from whom the same were received, and the names of the persons to whom the same shall have been sold.

SEC. 6. If any person, not licensed and qualified as an auctioneer as prescribed in the preceding sections of this act, shall sell, or attempt to sell, any real or personal estate, goods, wares, merchandise, or chattels whatsoever, by way of public auction, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine not exceeding $100, for each and every offense.

SEC. 7. The tenant or occupant of any house or store, having the actual possession and control of the same, who shall knowingly permit any person to sell any real or personal estate by public auction in his house or store, or in any apartment or yard, appurtenant to the same, contrary to the provisions of this chapter, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding $300.

SEC. 8. Nothing in this chapter shall extend to sales made by sheriffs, deputy sheriffs, coroners, constables, or collectors of taxes.

SEC. 9. No appointment granted as aforesaid shall remain in force more than one year from the date thereof.

SEC. 10. All appointments of auctioneers heretofore made, and all privileges and rights in virtue thereof, shall cease and determine at the time the provisions of this chapter shall take effect.

SEC. 11. No person, in virtue of any appointment heretofore made, shall be deemed a licensed auctioneer; but every person holding such appointment shall be subject to all the provisions of this chapter, in the same manner as all other persons not being appointed as above provided.

SEC. 12. This act shall take effect from and after its passage, and all laws and parts of laws inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 13. No person, or association of persons, or body corporate, except such bodies corporate as are expressly authorized by law, shall issue any bills or promissory notes, or checks, certificates of deposit, or other evidences of debt, for the purpose of loaning them, or putting them in circulation as money, unless thereto especially authorized by law; and every person and every member of a corporation who shall violate either of the provisions of this section shall forfeit for each and every such violation the sum of $100.

SEC. 14. No person shall pay, give, or receive in payment, or in any way circulate, or attempt to circulate as money, any bank bill or promissory note, check, draft, or other evidence of debt, which shall purport to be for payment of a less sum than one dollar, or payable otherwise than in lawful money of the United States; and any person who shall wilfully violate any of the provisions of this section shall forfeit twenty-five dollars.

SEC. 15. The penalties prescribed in this chapter shall be recovered by suit in the name of the Board of County Commissioners of the county in which the offense is committed, to be prosecuted by the district attorneys of said counties respectively; and the same shall be paid into the county treasury.

SEC. 16. If the District Attorney or Board of County Commissioners, whose duty it is to comply with any of the requisitions of this chapter, shall neglect or refuse so to do, he or they shall forfeit and pay a sum of not less than ten, or more than one hundred dollars, for each and every day he or they shall delay a compliance.

FREE SHIPS MAKE FREE GOODS.

TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE EMPEROR OF ALL THE RUSSIAS.

Hon. FRANKLIN PIERCE, President of the United States, has issued a proclamation of a convention between the United States of America and his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, which was concluded and signed by their respective plenipotentiaries at Washington, on the 22d of July, 1854. The ratifications on both parts were exchanged on the 31st of October, 1854, by Hon. William L. Marcy, Secretary of State, and Mr. Edward de Stoeckl, the Russian Charge d'Affaires, on the part of their respective governments, and made public by the President on the 1st of November, 1854. Omitting the verbiage with which the official document opens and closes—we mean no disrespect to the "high contracting parties," for it is a time-honored form—we proceed to lay before the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, "word for word," every article of the treaty, as follows:—

ARTICLE 1. The two high contracting parties recognize as permanent and immutable the following principles, to wit:—

1st. That free ships make free goods—that is to say, that the effects or goods belonging to subjects or citizens of a power or State at war are free from capture and confiscation when found on board of neutral vessels, with the exception of articles contraband of war.

2d. That the property of neutrals on board an enemy's vessel is not subject to confiscation, unless the same be contraband of war. They engage to apply these principles to the Commerce and navigation of all such powers and States as shall consent to adopt them on their part as permanent and immutable.

ART. 2 The two high contracting parties reserve themselves to come to an ulterior understanding, as circumstances may require, with regard to the application and extension to be given, if there be any cause for it, to the principles laid down in the first article. But they declare from this time that they will take the stipulations contained in said article first as a rule, whenever it shall become a question, to judge of the rights of neutrality.

ART. 3. It is agreed by the high contracting parties that all nations which shall or may consent to accede to the rules of the first article of this convention, by a formal declaration stipulating to observe them, shall enjoy the rights resulting from such accession as they shall be enjoyed and observed by the two powers signing this convention. They shall mutually communicate to each other the results of the steps which may be taken on the subject.

ART. 4. The present convention shall be approved and ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of said States, and by his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, and the ratification of the same shall be exchanged at Washington within the period of ten months, counting from this day, or sooner, if possible.

BONDS OF MERCHANTS IN CHINA TRADE CANCELED.

The following letter from the Secretary of State, under date Department of State Washington, Nov. 9th, 1854, to Messrs. Goodhue & Co., Merchants, of New York, is of interest to a portion of the mercantile public:—

GENTLEMEN: Referring to your communication inclosing a memorial, signed by the merchants of New York, engaged in the China trade, requesting that instructions might be given to the United States Consul at Shanghae, to cancel the bonds exacted from American merchants during the period that city was in possession of the Insurgents: I have now to inform you that the United States Consul at Shanghae has been instructed to cancel all bonds and obligations received at that Consulate, under the provisional rules for clearing ships, issued by Mr. Cunningham, the late Acting Consul, on the 9th of September, 1853, and return them to the parties to whom they respectively belong, and rescind the said regulation.

I am, gentlemen, respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. L. MARCY.

THE RECIPROCITY TREATY IN CANADA.

The Inspector-general of Canada has issued the following public notice touching the Treaty between Great Britain and the United States:—

INSPECTOR GENERAL'S OFFICE, CUSTOMS DEPARTMENT, Quebec, Oct. 18, 1854.

HIS EXCELLENCY THE GOVERNOR GENERAL in Council, has been pleased to order and direct, that, pending the action of the Lower Provinces, and the completion of any further measures required for giving entire effect to the Reciprocity Treaty recently concluded between Great Britain and the United States, the several articles mentioned in the schedule to an act passed in the present session of the Parliament of Canada, entitled "An Act for giving effect on the part of this Province to a certain Treaty between Her Majesty and the United States of America," and hereinafter enumerated, that is to say:—

Grain, flour, and breadstuffs of all kinds.
Animals of all kinds.
Fresh, smoked, and salted meats.
Cotton-wool, seeds, and vegetables.
Undried fruits, dried fruits.
Fish of all kinds.
Products of fish, and all other creatures living in the water.
Poultry, eggs.
Hides, furs, skins, or tails, undressed.
Stone or marble, crude or unwrought.
Slate.
Butter, cheese, tallow.
Lard, horns, manures.
Ores of metals of all kinds.
Coal.
Pitch, tar, turpentine, ashes.
Timber and lumber of all kinds, round, hewed and sawed, unmanufactured, in whole or in part.
Firewood.
Plants, shrubs, and trees.
Pelts, wool.
Fish oil.
Rice, broom-corn, and bark.
Gypsum, ground or unground.
Hewn or wrought or unwrought burr or grindstones.
Dye-stuffs.
Flax, hemp, and tow, unmanufactured.
Unmanufactured tobacco.
Rags.

shall be admitted to importation into this Province from the United States, under special bonds to her Majesty, conditioned for the due payment of the customs duties legally chargeable at the time of importation on the articles so imported, in the event that the said Reciprocity Treaty and the act hereinbefore mentioned in relation thereto, do not go into operation and take full effect within six months from the date hereof,

WM. CAYLEY, Inspector General.

LETTERS BY THE BRITISH MAIL PACKETS.

The following is an approximate estimate of the number of letters originating in and destined for England, conveyed in the course of the year by the British mail packets, namely:—

By Cunard's packets	2,400,000
By the West India packets	1,100,000
By the Brazil packets	300,000
By the Pacific packets	200,000
By the Peninsula and Oriental Company's packets, to and from India, China, and Australia	2,300,000
By the Cape of Good Hope packets	280,000
By the West Coast of Africa packets	50,000

POSTAGE IN FRANCE.

A letter sent from the United States to any place in France is invariably charged with double postage when inclosed in an envelope. This fact should be remembered by those writing to their friends in that country. In order to save postage, letters should be written very close on good, thin paper, and directed without an envelope. Letters without envelopes, weighing over $7\frac{1}{2}$ grains, ($\frac{1}{4}$ of an ounce,) are charged double postage in France. A letter on light paper, without an envelope, sent by an American steamer, costs twenty-four cents to Liverpool, and seventeen cents from there to Bordeaux, France, making forty-one cents if single, and eighty-two cents if enveloped or over weight. If sent by a British steamer, there is an additional charge of ten cents.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE OF IRELAND.

We are indebted to the editors of the *Mercantile Journal and Statistical Register*, one of the most reliable commercial papers published in the United Kingdom, for the subjoined statistics of Irish trade, as taken from the British Board of Trade returns. The first of the tables below shows the amount of the revenue received at Irish ports in each year from 1845 to 1853, inclusive. The second table shows the quantity of wine, spirits, tobacco, tea, coffee, and sugar retained for home consumption in Ireland during the years 1845 to 1853; and the third table gives the quantity (in quarters) of certain breadstuffs imported into Great Britain from Ireland in each of the last-named years:—

REVENUE RECEIVED IN IRELAND FROM 1845 TO 1853, INCLUSIVE.

1845.....	£4,265,729	1848.....	£4,325,844	1851.....	£4,094,653
1846.....	4,478,791	1849.....	4,275,375	1852.....	4,000,682
1847.....	4,692,462	1850.....	4,332,469	1853.....	4,621,869

CHIEF ARTICLES RETAINED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION IN IRELAND FROM 1845 TO 1853, INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Wine, galls.	Spirits, galls.	Tobacco, lbs.	Tea, lbs.	Coffee, lbs.	Sugar, cwt.
1845.....	618,464	6,481,251	5,579,234	5,851,632	941,511	363,620
1846.....	668,214	7,638,993	5,871,888	6,618,211	994,521	414,998
1847.....	633,945	7,995,120	5,949,691	6,975,959	1,516,330	568,767
1848.....	512,319	6,267,588	5,101,139	6,513,853	1,739 046	579,101
1849.....	549,755	7,282,598	5,138,314	6,713,272	1,313,951	510,867
1850.....	524,662	7,228,809	4,737,267	6,383,316	1,013,399	465,813
1851.....	515,735	7,621,549	4,604,083	6,410,263	745,958	460,851
1852.....	499,131	7,753,016	4,457,980	6,573,278	684,840	467,701
1853.....	586,809	8,348,047	4,624,141	7,832,235	880,516	487,705

QUANTITY OF GRAIN EXPORTED TO GREAT BRITAIN FROM IRELAND.

Years.	Wheat and flour.	Oats and oatmeal.	Years.	Wheat and flour.	Oats and oatmeal.
1845.....qrs.	440,152	732,439	1850 .....qrs.	249,489	1,077,364
1846.....	779,113	2,353,985	1851	168,726	1,055,388
1847.....	419,228	1,343,458	1852	95,116	1,141,976
1848.....	221,986	723,542	1853	74,197	1,542,579
1849.....	318,426	1,491,875			

COMPARATIVE COMMERCE OF OUR CITIES.

A correspondent of the *Courier and Enquirer* at Washington, gives the following tabular statement of the revenue for a single month, (September, 1853-54,) which furnishes at a glance the relative importance of several of our principal commercial cities, in so far at least as our import trade is concerned:—

REVENUE OF SEVEN CITIES FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER.

	1854.	1853.		
New York	$3,440,000	$4,237,000	Decrease..	$797,000
Boston.....	688,000	844,000	"	156,000
Philadelphia.....	328,000	522,000	"	194,000
Baltimore.....	117,000	94,000	Increase ..	23,000
New Orleans	210,000	226,000	Decrease..	16,000
Charleston	42,000	74,000	"	32,000
St. Louis.....	72,000	29,000	Increase ..	43,000
Total.....	$4,897,000	$6,025,000	Decrease .	$1,128,000

STATEMENT OF THE COMNERCE OF EACH STATE AND TERRITORY FROM JULY 1, 1852, TO JUNE 30, 1853.

States.	Value of exports.							Value of imports.		
	Domestic produce.			Foreign produce.			Total American and foreign produce.			
	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.		In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.
Maine.....	$1,692,412	$69,517	$1,761,929	$273,783	$5,075	$278,858	$2,040,787	$1,254,039	$132,550	$1,386,589
N. Hampshire .	250	876	1,126	.....	.....	.....	1,126	24,752	7,856	32,608
Vermont.....	82,376	.....	82,376	11,741	.....	11,741	94,117	184,512	.....	184,512
Massachusetts .	11,497,123	5,398,181	16,895,304	1,760,970	1,299,002	3,059,972	19,955,276	25,910,403	15,457,553	41,367,956
Rhode Island...	300,228	2,226	302,454	7,864	167	8,031	310,485	261,719	104,397	366,116
Connecticut ...	497,769	.....	497,769	11,665	.....	11,665	509,434	474,297	71,496	545,793
New York	46,217,717	19,812,638	66,030,355	8,364,727	3,811,208	12,175,935	78,206,290	132,009,768	46,261,231	178,270,999
New Jersey....	.....	1,354	1,354	.....	.....	.....	1,354	.....	3,539	3,539
Pennsylvania ..	4,687,269	1,567,960	6,255,229	206,089	66,678	272,767	6,527,996	10,454,563	8,379,847	18,834,410
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	4,782,518	2,985,706	7,768,224	107,056	31,179	138,235	7,906,459	5,235,659	1,094,419	6,330,078
Dis. of Columbia	75,456	.....	75,456	.....	.....	.....	75,456	70,086	1,408	71,494
Virginia	2,119,435	1,183,126	3,302,561	4,230	.....	4,230	3,306,791	255,363	143,641	399,004
North Carolina.	193,870	120,272	314,142	.....	.....	.....	314,142	125,779	145,459	271,238
South Carolina.	6,459,491	8,940,917	15,400,408	.....	.....	.....	15,400,408	1,199,780	608,737	1,808,517
Georgia.....	4,953,557	2,418,326	7,371,883	.....	.....	.....	7,371,883	275,968	232,293	508,261
Florida	1,046,921	651,285	1,698,206	.....	.....	.....	1,698,206	18,132	47,302	65,434
Alabama.....	9,916,652	6,870,261	16,786,913	.....	.....	.....	16,786,913	297,453	512,109	809,562
Louisiana.....	47,628,019	20,140,705	67,768,724	459,304	64,630	523,934	68,292,658	10,856,058	2,774,628	13,630,686
Mississippi	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,876	.....	5,876
Tennessee.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	256,846	.....	256,846
Missouri	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	859,654	.....	859,654
Ohio	103,807	54,611	158,418	.....	.....	.....	158,418	750,598	97,162	847,760
Kentucky	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	175,358	.....	175,358
Michigan.....	224,977	70,832	295,809	9,512	48,364	57,876	353,685	207,782	3,448	211,230
Illinois	79,139	.....	79,139	.....	.....	.....	79,139	7,559	.....	7,559
Texas	251,040	318,878	569,918	446,382	13,381	459,763	1,029,681	156,144	125,315	281,459
California.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	101,312	.....	101,312
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	85,932	85,932
Indiana.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	258,253	.....	258,253
Minnesota.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	612	.....	612
Total.....	142,810,026	70,607,671	213,417,697	11,663,323	5,339,684	17,003,007	230,420,704	191,688,325	76,290,322	267,978,647

NEW ORLEANS EXPORT OF PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Col. THOMAS J. BURKE, Export Abstract Clerk at the New Orleans Custom-house, furnishes for publication in several of the New Orleans journals, the following report of the exportations of the growth, produce and manufacture of the United States from the port of New Orleans to Foreign countries and Coastwise ports, during the second quarter of 1854, ending 30th June, 1854 :—

England	$12,734,659	British American Colonies	$44,634
France (Atlantic)	1,903,446	Gibraltar	77,728
Italy	406,890	Sweden	282,429
Holland	163,087	Danish West Indies	10,356
Spain (Atlantic)	129,599	France (Mediterranean)	164,597
Brazil	52,303	Scotland	51,103
Belgium	262,626	Spain (Mediterranean)	439,866
Trieste	500,175	Bremen	943,854
Cuba	310,225	French West Indies	23,607
Mexico	422,556	British West Indies	2,475
Central America	9,938		
Hamburg	574,389	Total	$19,510,542

The exports of foreign merchandise to foreign countries during the quarter amounted to $121,403. The exports to coastwise ports in the United States to $6,295,337. The total value of exports from New Orleans for the three months ending June 30th, 1854, was *twenty-five million, nine hundred and twenty-seven thousand, three hundred and twenty-three dollars.*

COMMERCE OF SAN FRANCISCO IN 1853.

The clearances from the port of San Francisco in 1853 were no less than 1,653, generally large vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 640,072 tons, of which the following is a recapitulation :—

	No.	Tons.
American vessels clearing coastwise	748	168,269
" " " on whaling voyages	7	1,835
Foreign " " coastwise	1	128
American " " for foreign ports	481	338,407
Foreign " " for foreign ports	416	131,433
Total from January 1 to December 31, 1853	1,653	640,072

VESSELS CLEARED FROM JANUARY 1 TO DECEMBER 31, 1853, FOR

	No.	Tons.		No.	Tons.
Eastern domestic ports.	25	30,580	Mexican ports—		
Pacific domestic ports .	726	137,860	Acapulco	2	227
Whaling voyages	7	1,835	in general	21	3,057
Vancouver's Island	21	4,634	Sandwich Islands	56	16,479
Sitka, Russian America	3	981	Other Pacific islands	28	5,600
European ports	2	856	Chinese ports	95	58,207
New Grenadian ports—			British Australia	52	14,428
Panama	39	53,859	Manilla	21	15,930
Central Amer. ports—			Singapore	9	4,630
San Juan	22	25,464	Batavia	43	25,369
Realejo	6	1,008	Calcutta	10	9,408
in general	3	797	Alioth	1	512
Valparaiso	121	39,725	Akyab, Bay of Bengal.	1	608
Other Chilian ports	5	1,196	Madras & Pondicherry,		
Peruvian ports	269	169,022	(French E. I.)	4	1,223
Ecuadorian ports	2	446	Rio Janeiro	2	686
Mexican ports—			Ports in the Pacific	4	847
Mazatlan	34	8,421	Ports in S. America	1	282
San Blas	15	4,664	New Archangel.	2	500
Total from January 1 to December 31, 1853				1,653	640,072

TABLE SHOWING THE AMOUNT OF DUTIES RECEIVED AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, SAN FRANCISCO, DURING THE LAST HALF OF THE YEAR 1853:—

	Net deposits.	Cash duties.	Total duties.
July	$100,368 45	$56,862 55	$157,231 00
August	157,575 10	43,958 25	201,533 35
September	170,399 40	42,597 99	213,197 35
October	164,768 05	49,930 65	214,698 70
November	157,758 90	41,588 40	199,347 30
December	75,679 00	47,232 15	142,911 15
Receipts from January to June, inclusive			$1,128,918 85
Receipts from July to December, inclusive			1,453,056 99
Total for the year 1853			$2,581,975 84

TABLE SHOWING THE AMOUNT AND VALUE OF QUICKSILVER EXPORTED FROM SAN FRANCISCO DURING THE YEAR 1853 TO

	Flasks.	Value.
Hong Kong	5,642	$180,272
Shanghae	812	31,199
Canton	366	14,125
Whampoa	300	11,500
Calcutta	50	1,875
Mazatlan	2,811	95,250
Mazatlan and San Blas	255	10,000
San Blas	1,942	72,463
Callao	1,800	66,500
Valparaiso	1,977	71,875
New York	1,845	77,130
Philadelphia	1,000	50,000
Total exports	18,800	$683,189

INSPECTION OF FLOUR AND MEAL AT BALTIMORE.

The following table shows the number of barrels and half-barrels of wheat and rye flour and corn-meal inspected in the city of Baltimore from the year 1841 to 1st of September, 1854:—

	Wheat flour.		Rye flour.	
	Barrels.	Half-barrels.	Barrels.	Half-barrels.
1841	614,006	31,716	3,831	22
1842	544,801	26,962	5,436	34
1843	547,224	26,415	8,401	45
1844	486,475	26,052	9,904	..
1845	563,632	26,226	518	24
1846	834,555	31,322	5,482	..
1847	945,787	27,339	6,666	49
1848	724,970	22,933	7,520	106
1849	750,686	27,667	8,007	9
1850	882,777	26,630	5,419	22
1851	896,034	32,828	7,654	53
1852	1,288,990	36,353	6,449	43
1853	1,171,266	24,872	5,624	2
1854	598,198	10,413	6,540	38

Years.	Hhds.	Corn-meal. Bbls.	½-bbls.	Years.	Hhds.	Corn-meal. Bbls.	½-bbls.
1841	459	10,736	33	1848	333	60,225	1,322
1842	715	7,712	437	1849	428	51,772	2,051
1843	535	13,359	82	1850	272	42,403	3,369
1844	245	25,051	1,525	1851	620	28,917	2,256
1845	631	23,959	1,450	1852	747	52,658	1,491
1846	1,076	40,942	1,745	1853	150	38,714	4,016
1847	934	105,842	1,298	1854	134	20,118	733

NAVIGATION, COMMERCE, AND FISHERIES OF MASSACHUSETTS.

According to the Boston *Traveler*—good authority—the number of foreign arrivals at the ports of this State rank as follows:—

Boston	2,996	vessels,	averaging	200	tons each vessel.
Salem	468	"	"	100	" "
Gloucester	207	"	"	100	" "

In tonnage owned, they stand in the following order:—

Boston.....tons	450,000	Newburyport.....tons	32,000
New Bedford	155,000	Salem	50,000
Gloucester	33,000	Nantucket	26,000

In tons of shipping built:—

	Vessels.	Tons.		Vessels.	Tons.
Boston	64	60,000	Gloucester	51	4,202
Newburyport	16	7,785	New Bedford	28	2,800

Barnstable County owns 78,000 tons of shipping, but as that county includes the whole of Cape Cod, with twelve or fifteen towns, some of them greatly exceeding Barnstable, the port of entry in tonnage, we have not placed this district in the list. For the districts above, at the port of entry were owned about all the tonnage, the out ports being unimportant.

In the fisheries, towns of Essex County rank about as follows, June, 1853:—

	Vessels.	Tons each.	Tons.
Gloucester	250	80	20,000
Marblehead and Lynn	80	80	6,400
Newburyport	75	80	6,000
Beverly	50	80	4,000

The entire county of Barnstable, with its great fishing interests, including the ports of Provincetown, Orleans, Eastham, Falmouth, Truro, Wellfleet, Harwich, Dennis, Chatham, Barnstable, Yarmouth, Brewster, &c., has engaged on the fisheries 22,400 tons of shipping, equal to 250 schooners, or about the same as the port of Gloucester alone. The district of Gloucester has 27,000 tons in the fishing business, all of which, with the exception of 7,000 tons, sails from the harbor of Gloucester, the rest sailing from Rockport, Annisquam, and Manchester harbors, which we comprehend in Gloucester collection district.

The smallest district in the United States is that of Ipswich, Massachusetts, owning 367 tons shipping.

Not an entry or clearance occurred at that port during the year 1853. The district will soon be abolished, resulting in a gain to the United States Government of some hundreds of dollars per annum.

KENTUCKY TOBACCO TRADE IN 1854.

The commercial year for the tobacco trade closed on the 31st of October, 1854. According to the *Louisville Journal*, the sales of the year amount to 10,200 hogsheads. These are the sales exclusive of reviews. The total sales last year were 16,543 hhds., and two years ago they were 23,185 hhds. The stock on hand this year is estimated at 1,500 hhds., while that of the same time last year was estimated at 6,000 hhds. This, it will be seen, exhibits a very great falling off. It has not been produced by a decrease in actual business, but by a large deficiency in the growing crop.

AMERICAN COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE IN AUSTRALIA.

A magnetic telegraph line has been established in Australia. It cost about $1,000 a mile, and was built by a Mr. McGowan, formerly of Boston, Massachusetts. The Americans appear to maintain their go-ahead character in that country. Besides the telegraph, which is under the management of Americans, a line of coaches has been established with several imported coaches from the States, running between the capital and its suburbs. An express-office, a fire brigade, a post-office, and the best hotels in the country, are all improvements introduced by our countrymen.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

EARNINGS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE BELGIAN RAILROADS.

The Belgian Government has not published full accounts of the operations of their roads since 1852, particularly in the matter of operating expenditures, probably because they have now reached that pitch of prosperity at which it is usual with some people to commence to observe secresy, a course, however, which generally defeats the object in view, besides leading to a departure from the principles of economy and general carefulness, so necessary to the continued prosperity of railway property. The following figures give the general facts so far as they can be arrived at, of the operations of the Belgian Government railways from 1848 to July 1st, 1854:—

Years.	Miles of line opened.	Revenue.	Expenses.	Revenue per mile per annum.	Per cent of expenses on revenue.
1848	370	£484,310	£350,650	£1,309	72.40
1849	387	517,437	331,101	1,337	63.98
1850	387	793,902	367,812	1,534	61.93
1851	387	635,420	361,120	1,642	56.83
1852	387	676,530	351,138	1,748	51.90
1853	387	762,818	.....	1,971	.....
1854, ½ year	387	392,628	.....	1,230	.....

The working expenses have somewhat advanced with the increased traffic, but the increase in them has not at all kept pace with the increase in the traffic.

THE INCREASE OF PASSENGER TRAFFIC ON RAILWAYS.

One of the most singular things connected with railways is the increase of passenger traffic, and the *creation* of new business. It appears, from the returns of the British railways, that while the number of miles in use has remained nearly the same, the number of passengers has increased very rapidly. The returns for passengers in the last three years were as follows:—

In 1851.....	78,969,622	
In 1852.....	86,958,997	10 per cent increase.
In 1853.....	94,966,440	9 per cent increase.

At this rate, the entire passenger traffic will double in less than ten years; and that in a country where everything is fixed and population increases slowly.

In the United States the entire traffic of railways *doubles in seven years;* and, as the expenses do not increase in the same proportion, the proprietors of railway stock have the certainty that *their property is rapidly increasing in real value, in spite of vicissitudes or fluctuations in the money market.*

THE CANALS AND OTHER PUBLIC WORKS OF NEW YORK.*

NUMBER VI.

ANALYSIS OF THE PRESENT BUSINESS OF THE CANALS.

The following table furnishes a comparative statement of the tonnage and toll o f all and each of the canals, of that arriving at, and that leaving tide-water, of the tonnage shipped from the western termini, of that from this and the Western States,

* For the first number of this series of papers (derived from the admirable report of W. J. McAlpine, Esq., State Engineer and Surveyor,) exhibiting a comprehensive history of "The Progress of Internal Improvements in the State of New York," see *Merchants' Magazine* for July, 1854, (volume xxxi., pages 123-126). For number 2, relating to "*The Canals and Railroads as a Dependent System,*" see *Merchants' Magazine* for August, 1854, (vol. 31, pages 247-249;) for number 3, relating to "*the Extension of Trade and Travel beyond the State of New York,*" see same for September, 1854, (vol. xxxi., pp. 374-377;) for number 4, relating to "*The cost and Charges of Transport,*" see same for October, 1854, (vol. xxxi., pp. 496-499;) and for number 5, for November, 1854, (vol. xxxi, pages 629-633,) touching "*the Comparative Cost, Capacity, and Revenue of the Erie Canal and the parallel Railroads, and the Cost and Charges of Transportation thereon.*"

the tonnage and tolls of the several classes, and of some of the principal articles of each class transported:—

Items.	Per centage of the whole, 1852. Tonnage.	Tolls.	Per centage of the whole, '53. Tonnage.	Tolls.
Of all the canals	100	100	100	100
Of the Erie	.55	.89	.52	.75
Champlain	.13	.04	.14	.03
Oswego	.18	.03	.18	.13
Cayuga and Seneca	.02	.01	.01	.02
Chemung	.05	.00	.06	.04
Crooked Lake	.01	.00	.01	.01
Chenango	.01	.01	.02	.00
Genessee Valley	.03	.01	.04	.02
Black River	.01	.00	.01	.00
Oneida Lake	.01	.00	.01	.00
Of all the canals	100	100	100	100
Arriving at tide-water	.58	...	.59	...
Leaving tide-water	.13	...	.14	...
Shipped elsewhere	.29	...	.27	...
Of all the canals	100	100	100	100
Shipped at Hudson River	...	...	...	...
Lake Erie	.19	...	.19	.27
Oswego	.09	...	.12	.13
Whitehall	.03	...	.08	.02
on Chemung Canal	...	...	.06	.04
Of all the canals	100	100	100	100
Tonnage from Western States	.33	...	.32	...
this State	.67	...	68	...
Of all the canals	100	100	100	100
Products of forest	.41	.14	.43	.18
animals	.02	.02	.02	.03
Vegetable food	.29	.45	.25	.40
Other agricultural products	...	...	...	...
Manufactures	.06	.03	.05	.04
Merchandise	.11	.21	.11	.22
All other articles	.11	.04	.14	.04
Of all the canals	100	100	100	100
boards and scantling	.24	.10	.27	.13
timber	.03	.92	.04	.03
staves	...	...	...	...
wood	.14	...	.08	...
ashes	...	...	...	...
flour and wheat	.19	.32	.18	.31
wheat	...	...	...	...
corn	.05	.07	.03	.04
barley	.01	.02	.01	.02
oats	.02	.02	.02	.02
Domestic salt	.03	.01	.03	.01
Railroad iron	.03	...	.04	...
Stone, lime, and clay	.04	.01	.05	.01
Coal	.03	...	.05	.01
Sundries	.02	.02	.02	.02
Tolls collected on all the canals	...	100	...	...
At New York, Albany, and West Troy	...	.26	...	...
Rome	...	.02	...	...
Syracase	...	.02	...	...
Montezuma	...	.02	...	...
Rochester	...	.05	...	...
Lockport	...	.04	...	...
Tonawanda, Black Rock, and Buffalo	...	.32	...	...
Oswego	...	.10	...	...
Whitehall	...	.02	...	...
Geneva, Penn Yan, and Dresden	...	.02	...	...
Havana, Horse-heads, and Corning	...	.03	...	...

This table has been made by taking the tonnage and tolls of all the canals as a standard, and stating the proportions which each of the canals, shipments, classes, and articles named, bear to the amount of all the canals. A glance at the table as thus arranged, is sufficient to furnish the reader with a tolerably correct idea of the relative business done upon each canal at the chief localities, and in the transportation of each of the classes and articles carried.

The following deductions from these tables will serve to present some of the more striking points in the business performed:—

1st. That while the tonnage upon the Erie Canal is but little more than one-half of the total tonnage of the canals, the receipts for tolls are three-fourths of the whole receipts.

2d. That while the tonnage of the Oswego and Champlain Canals forms nearly one-third of the whole tonnage, the receipts for tolls on both are 16 per cent of the whole, and while that of the Chemung, Genesee Valley, and Cayuga Canals forms one-ninth of the whole tonnage, the receipts for tolls on them are 8 per cent of the whole.

3d. That the tonnage arriving at tide-water is nearly three-fifths of the whole; that leaving tide-water is about one-seventh; and that shipped elsewhere is nearly three-tenths of the whole tonnage.

4th. That the tonnage shipped at Lake Erie is nearly one-fifth; at Oswego nearly one-eighth, and at Whitehall one-twelfth of the whole tonnage.

5th. That the tonnage from the Western States forms nearly one-third, and that from this State about two-thirds of the whole tonnage carried.

In the classification of the articles transported, the following deductions are made from the table:—

1st. That the tonnage of the products of the forest is 43 per cent; of vegetable food, 25 per cent; of merchandise, 11 per cent, and other articles, 14 per cent; while the receipts for tolls from the first are but 18 per cent; from the second, 40 per cent; from the third, 22 per cent, and from the fourth, but 4 per cent of the whole. The tonnage of manufactures being 5 per cent, and the tolls 4 per cent, and the tonnage and tolls of the products of animals being each but about 2 per cent of the whole.

2d. That the tonnage of lumber is about one-fourth of the whole, and the receipts for tolls one-eighth; that the tonnage of flour, wheat, and corn, is nearly one-fourth, while the tolls are over one-third.

3d. That timber, salt, and railroad iron, form each 4 per cent of the tonnage, while the tolls of the first are 3 per cent, and of the two latter are each 1 per cent of the whole.

The foregoing statements and deductions have been made from the report of tolls, trade, and tonnage, as prepared by the Auditor.

The tonnage and tolls due to the movement on each of the canals, cannot be ascertained from these reports, as they only show the tonnage cleared at each collector's office, and the whole tolls collected thereon, whether the articles are conveyed on one or more of the canals.

Thus the tonnage of lumber shipped at Buffalo in 1852, was 81,102 tons, and the tolls collected thereon, were $59,340. If this was all white-pine carried on boats, the amount of the tolls shows that it had a movement equal to that of 20,000,000 tons moved one mile, or nearly equal to an average movement of 56,000 tons from Buffalo to tide-water.

The tonnage of lumber shipped at Oswego is 147,086 tons, and the tolls collected thereon were $64,800, which shows a movement equivalent to that of 21,000,000 tons moved one mile, which, for the length of that canal, (88 miles,) would be equal to an average movement of nearly 570,000 tons from Oswego to Syracuse, (which is absurd,) or of 106,000 tons to tide-water. Three-fourths of the movement of this tonnage and of the tolls is, therefore, evidently due to the Erie Canal, and one-fourth only to the Oswego.

The tonnage and tolls on up-freight, on the other hand, are credited, in these reports, to the Erie Canal, when a portion of the movement and of the tolls is due to the lateral canals.

This method of stating the tonnage of the several canals is incorrect, and operates so as to show a less amount done on the Erie Canal than is due to it, because the up-tonnage is but one-fourth of the down-tonnage.

The annexed table has been prepared from the reports of the business done in 1853, and shows the tonnage, tolls, and total movement of each article and class of freight on all of the canals:—

TRADE UPON THE CANALS FOR THE YEAR 1853, EMBRACING THE TONNAGE, TOLLS, AND THE MOVEMENT OF THE TONNAGE, BEING THE EQUIVALENT NUMBER OF TONS MOVED ONE MILE.

	Tons.	Tolls.	Rates of toll per 2,000 lbs. per mile. C.	M.	Fr.	No. of tons moved one mile.
THE FOREST.						
Fur and peltry	425	$548	2	.	.	27,400
Product of Wood—						
Boards and scantling	1,165,354	403,952	.	2	4	168,313,333
Shingles	23,264	5,806	.	3	.	1,935,333
Timber	173,074	85,750	.	2	4	35,729,166
Staves	86,792	51,911	.	2	.	25,955,500
Wood	365,123	9,791	.	1	5	6,527,333
Ashes, pot and pearl	7,493	13,541	.	8	.	1,687,625
Total of the forest	1,821,525	$571,299	.	.	.	240,175,690
AGRICULTURE.						
Product of animals—						
Pork	20,032	21,724	.	3	.	7,241,333
Beef	15,592	25,055	.	6	.	4,175,833
Bacon	10,012	13,343	.	3	.	4,447,666
Cheese	6,016	3,045	.	3	.	1,015,000
Butter	3,679	3,882	.	6	.	647,000
Lard, tallow, and lard-oil	6,669	6,011	.	3	.	2,003,300
Wool	4,035	9,106	.	8	.	1,138,250
Hides	4,577	5,706	1	.	.	570,600
Total product of animals	70,612	$87,872	.	.	.	21,238,972
VEGETABLE FOOD.						
Flour	370,914	565,744	.	6	.	94,290,666
Wheat	382,588	433,218	.	6	.	72,203,000
Rye	7,878	5,172	.	6	.	862,000
Corn	121,248	134,933	.	4	.	33,733,222
Corn-meal	481	892	.	4	.	223,000
Barley	65,427	76,204	.	6	.	12,700,666
Oats	71,883	54,511	.	4	.	13,627,750
Bran and ship-stuff	27,371	21,889	.	4	.	5,472,250
Peas and beans	3,131	3,128	.	6	.	521,333
Potatoes	19,734	2,897	.	2	.	1,448,500
Dried fruit	645	1,952	.	8	.	131,500
Total vegetable food	1,071,300	$1,299,640	.	.	.	234,913,887
ALL OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.						
Cotton	3,345	758	.	2	.	379,000
Unmanufactured tobacco	3,067	2,046	.	8	.	255,750
Hemp	531	325	.	2	.	162,500
Clover and grass seed	967	2,230	.	8	.	278,750
Flax-seed	917	938	.	8	.	117,253
Hops	185	280	.	8	.	35,000
Total all other agricul. products.	9,012	$6,577	.	.	.	1,228,253
Total agriculture	1,150,923	$1,394,089	.	.	.	257,381,112
MANUFACTURES.						
Domestic spirits	21,058	$28,876	.	6	.	4,812,666
Oil-meal and cake	8,493	7,654	.	4	.	1,913,500
Leather	4,773	4,087	.	8	.	510,875
Furniture	3,030	2,996	.	6	.	499,333
Bar and pig lead	159	25	.	8	.	3,125
Pig iron	31,2 1	24,723	.	4	.	6,180,750
Bloom and bar iron	7,014	2,842	.	4	.	710,500
Castings and iron-ware	18,773	25,845	.	6	.	4,307,500

	Tons.	Tolls.	Rates of toll per 2,000 lbs. per mile. C. M. Fr.	No. of tons moved one mile.
Domestic woolens	91	121	. 8 .	15,125
" cottons	982	809	. 8 .	101,125
" salt	130,731	24,070	. 2 .	12,035,000
Foreign salt	3,021	2,273	1 . .	227,300
Total manufactures	230,036	$124,321	. . .	31,316,799
MERCHANDISE.				
Sugar	38,872	.....	. . .	.....
Molasses	18 836	.....	. . .	.....
Coffee	13,717	.....	. . .	.....
Nails, spikes, and horse-shoes	15,244	.....	. . .	.....
Iron and steel	23,091	.....	. . .	.....
Flint-enamel, crockery, and glass-ware	7,261	.....	. . .	.....
All other merchandise	177,172	.....	. 8 .	74,411,666
Railroad iron	164,134	$719,870	. 3 .	41,525,666
Total merchandise	458,327	$719,870	. . .	115,937,332
OTHER ARTICLES.				
Live cattle, hogs, and sheep	255	150	. 4 .	37,500
Stone, lime, and clay	202,176	27,139	. 2 .	13,569,500
Gypsum	59,153	9,837	. 2 .	4,918,500
Mineral coal	225,507	26,258	. 1 .	26,258,000
Copper-ore	946	484	. 1 .	484,000
Sundries	99,	82,492	. 8 .	10,311,500
Total other articles	587,041	$146,360	. . .	55,579,000
Total	4,247,853	$2,955,939	. . .	700,389,933
Amount collected on empty boats, etc.	.....	248,779	. . .	.....
		$3,204,718	. . .	.....

The report of the Auditor, as before stated, does not furnish the means of showing a similar statement for each of the canals.

The whole movement of 1853 was equal to 700,000,000 tons moved one mile, or an average movement of nearly 165 miles for each ton. The average movement of the tonnage on the Erie Canal, excluding that of the lateral canals, is, probably, nearly 300 miles for each ton.

The average rate of toll in 1853 was 4 6-10ths mills per ton per mile, for the whole tonnage; 2 2-5ths mills, for the products of the forest; 4 1-10ths for animals; 5½ for vegetable food; 5 2-10ths for manufactures, except salt; 6 2-10ths for merchandise, and 2 6-10ths mills per ton per mile for all unenumerated articles.

The comparative movement of each class, compared with the whole movement, is as follows:—

Products of the forest, 24 per cent; agricultural products, 37 per cent; merchandise, 16½ per cent; manufactures, 4½ per cent; miscellaneous articles, 8 per cent.

The comparative movement of some of the principal articles embraced in these classes is as follows:—

1st. Of the Forest. Boards and scantling, 24 per cent of the whole movement of all articles on all the canals; staves, 4 per cent; timber, 5 per cent.

2d. Of the Products of Animals. Pork, 1 per cent; beef and bacon, 6-10ths; lard, 3-10ths; wool, 2-10ths; butter, cheese, and hides, each 1-10th of 1 per cent of the whole movement.

3d. Of Vegetable Food. Flour, 13⅓ per cent, and wheat, 10⅓ per cent; corn, 4 7 10ths per cent; oats, 8-10ths of 1 per cent, and barley, 2 per cent.

4th. Of Manufactures. Salt, 2 per cent; pig-iron, 9-10ths of 1 per cent; and domestic spirits 7-10ths of 1 per cent; castings, 6-10ths; bloom-iron, furniture, and leather, each 1-10th of 1 per cent of the whole.

5th. Merchandise, 10½ per cent; and railroad-iron 6 per cent of the whole.

6th. Unclassified Articles. Coal, 3 7-10ths per cent; stone, lime, and clay, 2 per cent; and live cattle, sheep, and hogs, 5-1000ths of 1 per cent of the whole.

EFFECT OF STEAMER DAY AT SAN FRANCISCO.

To say that the semi-monthly occurrence of Steamer Day is an epoch in life in San Francisco, conveys but a faint idea of the importance of this day, and the effect thereof. The people of California and San Francisco, according to the *Alta California*, seem to count time from the 1st to the 16th of each month; or, in other words, from Steamer Day to Steamer Day. During the dullest season, go into California or Battery street, and everything is lively and brisk; which, to a stranger, would seem as if a tremendous business was being carried on. Not so. The merchant is engaged in "making up" his remittances; and when seen tearing through the street, is about visiting a neighbor to inquire if there is "anything over, to-day." Everything—trade, pleasure, money, and newspaper offices—is subservient to it. More especially is this the case during the present tightness of the money market.

There is no postponing your engagements. Steamer Day, and the promised payment of a certain note must be fulfilled, or steps are taken towards legal proceedings in a manner that induces you at once to "pungle." Go into a banker's, and a little door labelled "Private" is closed. Knock, and one of the clerks will inform you Mr. —— is busy, and there is no admittance to-day except on extraordinary business. Attempt to draw a check, and a grunting announcement, "Take your place in the line," is the prelude to half an hour's detention. Apply for a draft, and you are told it will be ready in one hour, and the amount required in advance, together with 3 per cent additional.

Ask some one of your acquaintance to return that loan, and he replies: "My dear fellow, it is steamer day, and my remittances must be made up, and I was about asking you for a further sum to help me out." By the way, the same man will tell you the next day that the steamer has just gone, and all his spare cash gone, too. Verily, steamer day is to him a convenient excuse to avoid settling with creditors, and to San Francisco what an imperial ukase is to Siberia, or a pronunciamento to a Mexican.

Human nature can be studied to advantage on this occasion. Go to the Post Office, and watch the small aperture through which letters for the "loved ones at home" are deposited. First comes a hardy miner, with long beard, greasy hat, uncombed hair, buckskin shirt, revolver and belt. He tremblingly drops his letter and walks away, as if in deep thought. Next comes a mechanic, with a smile on his countenance indicative of pleasure. Perhaps he has received a letter, and this is an answer. He feels proud of his calling, and firmly walks away, fully convinced that he will come again next "steamer day." Observe a moment longer, and you see a well-dressed oily-faced man, with fobs and seals dangling from his vest, deposit a dirty yellow envelope, addressed perhaps to some of his kind in the East, where he learned to *gamble*. That is *his* secret, and we let him pass on. An old man, worn down by age, comes tottering along, and, first wiping his "specs," he takes out a wallet, carefully undoes the fastening, and takes out a clean white letter without any envelope. What care is there! He looks at the direction: it is all right, and in it goes with the rest. Could he but see the basket emptied on the table, and the clumsy clerk hastily tie it in a bundle with many others, and all "mashed up" to one size, his feelings would certainly be indignant.

But we have wandered from our subject. Turn around from the box, and you again see the visible effect of Steamer Day. The newspaper stands are crowded, and the persons behind the counters have their hands full, administering to the wants of their customers. The steamer papers of the city, and other places in California and on the Pacific coast, are piled up, and an ocean of postage stamps is seen in a pasteboard box lying on the counter. We have known as many as 6,000 steamer papers to be sold by one of these stands on steamer day.

Everybody is surprised that steamer day occurs so often; and the day before, when all is still and quiet, we have heard persons ask, "When does steamer day come?" and a friend who is going home comes to you some day and tells you that to-morrow he will bid you farewell. Travel down to the steamer, the indirect cause of all the excitement, and there is Babel indeed. Friends recognize friends, and a rush to the gangway plank takes place—but hold! a string of unhappy individuals are leaving the vessel, and you cannot go on board until they are ashore. Getting on board, a scene takes place that defies description. Not a few who are toted on board the steamer are toted off, the range of their vision being rather limited. As the steamer moves away from the dock, friends are pelted with oranges, or pears, or wines. Bob

in a voice of Stentor, bawls out a blessing to Dick, who is all smiles and good nature, the outward coating of a swelling heart, and who promises to rejoin his friend as soon as practicable.

In short, steamer day is a sort of financial crisis, a commercial panic, and the next day its effect is plainly perceptible. The public pulse beats calmer. Everybody breathes freer and affairs again flow in their natural channel. It is impossible to conceive what would be the effect if we had no steamer day; and therefore we believe that its visit causes trade to take a new start—merchants to be brisk—bankers busy—boot-blacks busier—stock-brokers happy—note-shavers more so—letter-writers anxious—post-office clerks disgusted—dock loafers excited, and newspaper people in a continual whirl of business for three days prior to and three days after steamer day.

HISTORICAL NOTICE OF THE BOSTON AND LOWELL RAILROAD.

The Boston and Lowell Railroad was first opened to the public in June, 1835, and has therefore been in operation nearly nineteen and a half years. A committee, appointed four years before, to report upon the probable earnings of such a road, should it be constructed, estimated the amount of business thus: passengers 37,440, merchandise 15,217 tons—making the gross receipts $58,514 per annum. The difference between the estimate and the actual result is quite remarkable. Thus, during the last year, the number of passengers was 657,391, and merchandise 303,630 tons—while the gross receipts were nearly half a million of dollars, or $434,600. Since the opening, up to January last, the trains had run 3,237,955 miles, and carried 125,000,000 of passengers one mile, without the loss of life or limb in the cars.

During the same period, seventy-five millions of tons of merchandise were carried one mile, with losses less than a quarter of one per cent upon the amount of freight earned. Two of the conductors, Col. Barrett and Josiah E. Short, and one engineman, Henry Brown, have been on the road from its commencement, and have traveled over 500,000 miles each. Col. B. had a beautiful and costly badge presented to him some time ago; and during the past summer Mr. Short received a present of a superb gold watch, with from two to three hundred dollars, from the season-ticket passengers.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

PRESENT POPULATION OF MEXICO.

According to the latest census of the population of the Republic of Mexico, published in the last Mexican papers, the entire number of inhabitants is 7,853,395, to wit:—

States.	Population.	States.	Population.
Aguascalientes	81,727	San Luis Potosi	394,592
Coahuila	66,228	Sinoloa	160,000
Chiapas	161,914	Sonora	147,133
Chiuahua	147,600	Tobasco	63,580
Durango	137,593	Tamaulipas	100,064
Guanajuato	718,775	Vera Cruz	274,686
Guerrero	270,000	Yucatan	668,623
Jalisco	774,461	Zacatecas	305,551
Mexico	1,001,875	Distrito	200,000
Michoacan	491,679	Baja California	12,000
Nuevo Leon	133,261	Colima	61,243
Oajaca	489,969	Tehuantepec	82,395
Puebla	683,725	Tlascala	80,171
Queretaro	132,124	Isla de Carmen	12,325
Total			7,853,395

There are 85 cities and towns; 193 large villages; 4,709 villages; 119 communities and missions; 175 haciendas or estates; 6,092 farms and hamlets.

POPULATION OF IRELAND FROM 1805 TO 1853.

Edward Singleton, Esq., the Secretary, Census Commissioners, gives, under date Census Office, Dublin, August, 1854, the subjoined return, showing the population of Ireland, from 1805 to 1853, as far as the same has been ascertained:—

POPULATION OF IRELAND FROM 1805 TO 1852.

Years.	Population.	Years.	Population.	Years.	Population.
1805.....	5,395,456	1821.....	6,801,827	1837.....	8,009,527
1806.....	5,460,447	1822.....	6,892,719	1838.....	8,050,609
1807.....	5,526,224	1823.....	6,984,826	1839.....	8,091,902
1808.....	5,592,792	1824.....	7,078,164	1840.....	8,133,408
1809.....	5,660,162	1825.....	7,172,748	1841.....	8,175,124
1810.....	5,728,343	1826.....	7,268,598	1842.....	8,217,055
1811.....	5,797,347	1827.....	7,365,729	1843.....	8,259,200
1812.....	5,867,181	1828.....	7,464,756	1844.....	8,301,563
1813.....	5,937,856	1829.....	7,563,898	1845.....	8,344,143
1814.....	6,039,544	1830.....	7,664,974	1846.....	8,386,940
1815.....	6,142,972	1831.....	7,767,401	1847.....	.....
1816.....	6,248,174	1832.....	7,807,241	1848.....	.....
1817.....	6,355,177	1833.....	7,847,285	1849.....	.....
1818.....	6,464,013	1834.....	7,887,534	1850.....	.....
1819.....	6,574,712	1835.....	7,927,989	1851.....	6,551,970
1820.....	6,687,306	1836..... ...	7,958,655		

The number of persons returned for 1805 is the result of a computation made in that year by Major Newenham, based upon the returns furnished by the collectors of hearth money. The population for 1813 is partly the result of an enumeration and partly of computation, no returns having been made for the following places, namely, the cities of Limerick and Kilkenny, and the counties of Meath, Westmeath, Wexford, Cavan, Donegal, and Sligo. The population for 1821, 1831, 1841, and 1851 is taken from the census returns made in these years under specific acts of Parliament.

The population as shown in this return for the intermediate years has been computed from the increases which took place between the periods from 1805 to 1813, from 1813 to 1821, from 1821 to 1831, from 1831 to 1841, and at the same rate from 1841 to 1846. In 1847, and the succeeding years, a considerable decrease is known to have taken place, but the annual amount is not known.

FIGURES ABOUT THE POPULATION OF THE WORLD.

We find the following statements in one of our exchanges. We cannot vouch for the entire accuracy of all the figures. Some of the statements are undoubtedly correct; others we have not found time to investigate. Perhaps some mathematical student of the *Merchants' Magazine*—and there are many such—will enlighten us and our readers on the subject:—

The number of languages spoken in the world amounts to 8,064; 587 in Europe, 896 in Asia, 276 in Africa, and 1,264 in America. The inhabitants of the globe profess more than 1,000 different religions. The number of men is about equal to the number of women. The average of human life is about 28 years. One-quarter die previous to the age of 7 years; one-half before reaching 17; and those who pass this age, enjoy a facility refused to one-half the human species. To every 1,000 persons, only one reaches 100 years of life; to every 100, only six reach the age of 65; and not more than one in 500 lives to see 80 years of age. There are on earth 1,000,000,000 inhabitants; and of these 33,333,333 die every year, 91,334 every day, 3,780 every hour, and 60 every minute, or 1 every second. These losses are about balanced by an equal number of births. The married are longer-lived than the single, and, above all, those who observe a sober and industrious conduct. Tall men live longer than short ones. Women have more chances of life in their favor previous to being 50 years of age than men have, but fewer afterwards. The number of marriages is in proportion of 75 to every 1,000 individuals. Marriages are more frequent after the equinoxes—that is, during the months of June and December. Those born in the spring are the most robust. Births and deaths are most frequent by night. The number of men capable of bearing arms is calculated at one-fourth of the population.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

DIVISION OF LABOR—IMPROVED AND UNIMPROVED LANDS.

[FROM THE CINCINNATI GAZETTE.]

For four or five years past, it must have been apparent to every careful observer of current events, that labor in the United States has not been distributed in a manner calculated to promote the best interests of the laborer or the country at large. This is attributable mainly to the progressive spirit of the age, under the influence of which people became restless in their respective positions, and too anxious to accumulate wealth. The various modes under which people had previously acquired property were unadapted to the times. Everybody wanted to get rich, and to get rich at once. Views on this point were likewise expanded, and what would previously have been regarded as a competency, was looked upon as a very moderate capital to start upon. Then the country was converted into a field for speculative operations; and the attention of the great majority of the population was turned from the prosecution of interests that underlie all others, to merchandising, stock speculations, money dealing, etc. People did not stop to reflect that only a certain amount of money was in the country; and that all supposed profits were realized by having them transfered from one party to another; that this sudden transfer, and the general inflation in the value of everything purchasable, would, in accordance with the settled laws of trade, react; and that under this reaction capital would take to itself wings, and depart. The days of supposed prosperity were experienced. Men counted their riches by thousands, tens of thousands, and hundreds of thousands. The effect of a reaction is now to be seen, as it is felt, on every hand. The riches, which consisted of stocks, bonds, houses, lands, &c., are not available, except at greatly reduced prices; and even at low figures, sales cannot be made to any great extent. Parties who have money are disposed to hold it.

This state of things has brought matters to a point, from which parties can readily discover the great and fatal errors into which the country at large has fallen. It is now evident that all other than agricultural pursuits receive too much attention, and that the latter was greatly neglected; thus labor was improperly divided, and although this for a time secured for the latter a high nominal compensation, it has really operated against the interests of that class. What advantage has a man who receives two dollars per day, and pays one dollar and fifty cents for a living, over a man who receives the latter amount and pays one dollar? The profits in both cases are alike. When labor and living advance in proportion, neither the laborer nor the producer can be benefited. Such advances result from inflation; and secure imaginary, not real wealth. Actual wealth can only result from *Production*. Yet we have been estimating a large increase of wealth, while our productions have, if anything, diminished, and our imports from foreign countries largely increased. Our population instead of mining, manufacturing, or cultivating the soil, have been heavy consumers of foreign manufactures; and a large portion of our people have been laying down foreign iron over the richest coal and iron beds in the world. Thus, while supporting the manufacturing interests of Europe, we have been producing hardly sufficient to feed ourselves. Millions of acres of lands have not been cultivated, and millions more have been only half or quarter tilled. But even with the heavy foreign imports, had our agricultural interests been properly attended to, the effects of the extravagance and imprudence that have been practiced, would not be felt to any serious extent. Last year the English and French markets would have taken from us three or four times the amount of breadstuffs that we furnished, had we been able to supply such a demand; and we would have been able, had a portion of the forces that were otherwise employed been engaged in agricultural pursuits; and not only so, but supplies would have been furnished to home consumers at reasonable prices. Instead of the latter, the most exorbitant rates prevailed for every article of breadstuffs and provisions. This is also the case now. The leading articles of food are everywhere scarce. There is a demand for cereals abroad, but we have not the supply to meet it. Our current rates, which are based on meagre receipts, prohibit shipments. It is true that the season was an unfavorable one, but the difficulties arising from this cause would have been measurably obviated by an increased cultivation. In the latter respect, the

United States has the advantage of all other countries. The question with us is not how much we *can* produce, but how much we *will* produce. The extent of the production depends on the amount of labor bestowed. This is evident from the large amount of unimproved land in the country. In five of the Western States we find over *fifty-two million* acres of land, only *twenty-three million* of which are improved. These lands are distributed as follows:—

	Improved.	Unimproved.
Ohio	9,851,493	8,146,000
Indiana	5,046,543	7,746,879
Illinois	5,089,545	6,997,677
Michigan	1,929,110	2,454,780
Wisconsin	1,045,409	1,931,159
Iowa	824,682	1,911,382
Total	23,737,782	29,188,067

Supposing the forces that have been employed in the construction of railroads that are now unfinished and almost worthless, with those who have been engaged in other unfortunate enterprises, had been distributed through the country, and had devoted their labor, enterprise, and money to the cultivation of lands, the State of Ohio would to-day be millions of dollars richer than she is. Now, food is scarce and dear, while labor is plenty and depreciating. This is a condition of things that must operate with terrible severity upon a large class of our people.

It is a great evil, however, that does not produce some good. Though our present difficulties are of fearful magnitude, changes that will prove permanently beneficial are likely to grow out of them. The movements that are going on in all the leading cities of the United States at this time promise to lead to a more equal distribution of labor. Thousands will remove from this city next spring to engage in agricultural pursuits, and tens of thousands who have been crowding every avenue to employment in other cities, will do likewise. Thus, forces will be transferred from places where there is a large surplus to fields where they are in demand. Men of some means will also remove. Tired of the uncertainties and harassments of business life, they will give their attention to agricultural pursuits. Thus this great interest will receive an impetus that will very soon add hundreds of millions to the real wealth of the country.

THE CULTURE OF HEMP AND FLAX.

Mr. W. D. Porter, in a communication to the *National Intelligencer*, presents some interesting facts in relation to the export and demand for hemp and flax, and the inducements to their increased culture in this country. According to the statistics he has gathered, the import of hemp and flax into Great Britain was as follows: In 1820, 28,238,000 pounds; in 1839, 122,374,000 pounds; being an increase during these years of 94,136,000 pounds. In 1840, there were imported into Great Britain, 127,830,480 pounds of flax, and 69,744,936 pounds of hemp. In 1849, the amount had risen to 184,292,000 pounds of flax, and 108,250,000 pounds hemp; the average import during these two years being 138,379,848 pounds flax, and 82,665,556 pounds hemp. Russia exported to Great Britain in 1847, 55,000,000 lbs. hemp, and the United States only 127,806 lbs., making a difference in favor of Russia of 54,875,000 lbs. England also requires an annual supply of 650,000 quarters of linseed to be used as seed for crushing purposes; this requires an outlay of $600,000, which goes principally to Russian northern ports. Besides this, Austria produces about 3,000,000 lbs. hemp; Denmark, 1,788,000 lbs. These countries will be the most affected by the war, and the above great commercial staple will for a while at least be cut off from a market, so far as most of the above-mentioned nations are concerned. Russia exported to the United States in 1853 about 2,000 tons. There is now on hand about 1,500 tons; the price of which is in cash $400, and on time $500 per ton. There will be required for 1854, for the navy and commercial marine, 33,500,000 lbs., and for other domestic purposes 5,000 tons. No Russian hemp will be imported into this country this year; the demand will therefore be for all purposes of home consumption, and to meet the demand abroad, 113,400,000 lbs. of hemp, which amount must be raised by the American agriculturist; the value of which is in round numbers about $24,000,000. These few facts are thrown out that our Western hemp-growers may take the hint.

HISTORY AND STATISTICS OF RICE.

Rice, the chief food, perhaps, of one-third of the human race, possesses advantages over wheat, maize, and other grains, of preserving plenty during the fluctuations of trade, caused by war, famine, or short crops, and is also susceptible of cultivation on land too low and moist for the production of most other useful plants. Like several other bread-plants in common use, it is never found wild,* nor is its native country known, unless we except the statement of the Danish missionary, Klein, that he found it growing spontaneously in India, which is doubted by some. Linnæus considered it as a native of Ethiopia, while others regard it of Asiatic origin.

Rice was first introduced into Virginia by Sir William Berkeley, in 1647, who received half a bushel of seed, from which he raised sixteen bushels of an excellent quality, most or all of which was sown the following year.

This grain is stated to have been first brought into Charleston, South Carolina, by a Dutch brig from Madagascar, in 1694, the captain of which left about a peck of paddy (rice in the husk) with Governor Thomas Smith, who distributed it among his friends for cultivation. Another account of its introduction into Carolina is, that Ashby was encouraged to send a bag containing 100 pounds of seed rice to that province, from the crops of which 60 tons were shipped to England in 1698; while Darymaple maintains that rice in Carolina is the result of a small bag of paddy sent as a present from Dubois, Treasurer of the "East India Company," to a Charleston trader. Upland or mountain rice was introduced into Charleston from Canton, by John Bradby Blake, in 1772.

The culture of rice was introduced into Louisiana by the "Company of the West," in 1718.

The amount of rice exported from Charleston, South Carolina, in 1724, was 18,000 barrels; in 1731, 41,957 barrels; in 1740, 90,110 barrels; in 1747–48, 55,000 barrels; in 1754, 104,682 barrels; in 1760–61, 100,000 barrels.

From Savannah, in 1755, 3,299 barrels, besides 237 bushels of rough rice; in 1760, 3,283 barrels, and 208 bushels of rough rice; in 1770, 22,120 barrels, besides 7,064 bushels of rough rice.

From Philadelphia, in 1771, 258,375 pounds.

The amount of rice exported from this country in 1770, was 150,529 barrels; in 1791, 96,980 tierces of 600 pounds each; in 1800, 112,056 tierces; in 1810, 131,341 tierces.

The following table shows the quantity of domestic rice, and its valuation, exported from the United States for the last thirty-three years:—

Years.	Rice, tierces.	Value.	Years.	Rice, tierces.	Value.
1821	88,221	$1,494,307	1838	71,048	$1,721,819
1822	87,089	1,553,482	1839	93,320	2,460,198
1823	101,365	1,820,985	1840	101,660	1,942,076
1824	113,229	1,882,982	1841	101,617	2,010,107
1825	97,015	1,925,245	1842	114,617	1,907,387
1826	111,063	1,917,445	1843	106,766	1,625,726
1827	133,518	2,343,908	1844	134,715	2,182,468
1828	175,019	2,620,696	1845	118,621	2,160,456
1829	171,636	2,514,370	1846	124,007	2,564,991
1830	130,697	1,986,824	1847	144,427	3,605,896
1831	116,517	2,016,267	1848	100,403	2,331,824
1832	120,327	2,152,631	1849	128,861	2,569,362
1833	144,163	2,744,418	1850	127,069	2,631,557
1834	121,886	2,122,272	1851	105,590	2,170,927
1835	110,851	2,210,331	1852	119,733	2,241,029
1836	212,983	2,548,750	1853	67,707	1,657,658
1837	106,084	2,209,279			

According to the census of 1840, the rice crop of the United States amounted to 80,841,422 pounds; of 1850, 215,313,497 pounds; showing an increase of 134,472,075 pounds. The amount of rice cultivated in the Union in 1853, may be estimated at 250,000,000 pounds, which, at 3½ cents, would be worth $8,750,000.

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* It is to be understood that the wild rice, or water-oat, (*Zizania aquatica,*) which grows along the muddy shores of our tidal and inland waters, is a distinct plant from the common rice, and should not be confounded with it.

THE PRODUCTION OF BARLEY.

It is a remarkable fact that we are still in uncertainty whether barley grows wild in the Old World; and if so, in what region this occurs. Even the authors of antiquity were at variance as to whence barley, as well as wheat, the grains chiefly used at that time, had been derived. It has been cultivated in Syria and Egypt for more than three thousand years, and it was not until after the Romans adopted the use of wheat bread that they fed this grain to their stock, as is practiced by the Spaniards and Italians at the present day. It is evidently a native of a warm climate, as it is known to be the most productive in a mild season; still its flexibility is so remarkable, that it will grow on the Himalayas at an elevation of from 10,000 to 13,000 feet above the level of the sea, and mature in favorable seasons and situations on the Eastern Continent as far north as 72°.

The introduction of barley into the North American colonies may be traced back to the periods of their settlements. It was sown by Gosnold, together with other English grains, on Martha's Vineyard and the Elizabeth Islands, in 1602, and by the colonists of the "London Company," in Virginia, in 1611. By the year 1648, it was raised in abundance in that colony; but soon after its culture was suffered to decline in consequence of the more profitable and increased production of tobacco.

Barley appears to have been cultivated in New Netherland as early as the year 1626, as samples of the harvest of that year, raised by the colonists of Manhattan island, were sent to Holland, with other grains, as an evidence of their prosperity.

According to the records of the "Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England," barley was introduced into that colony in 1629. In 1633 good crops were raised in Lynn.

In 1796 the chief agricultural product of the isle of Rhode Island was barley, considerable quantities of which were raised.

Barley has never been cultivated much in the United States, nor has it entered extensively into our foreign commerce, as we have been consumers rather than producers of this grain. It has been chiefly employed for malting and distillation, and also in considerable quantities as a substitute for sago or rice, after being hulled.

According to the census returns of 1840, the amount of barley raised in the United States, the year preceding, was 4,161,504 bushels; of 1850, 5,167,015 bushels; showing an increase of 1,005,511 bushels. The amount of the barley crop of the United States in 1853, may be estimated at 6,590,000 bushels; which, at 75 cents per bushel, would be worth $4,875,000.

PRODUCTION OF BROOM CORN.

In the Mohawk Valley, New York, vast quantities of this crop are annually grown' Pennsylvania, Ohio and Connecticut are the next largest producers of it. Its origin, as a cultivated plant in this country, is attributed to Dr. Franklin. It is a native of India. Franklin saw an imported whisk of corn in the possession of a lady in Philadelphia, and while examining it, as a curiosity, found a seed which he planted, and from this small beginning arose this valuable product of industry in the United States. In the same manner, England and America are indebted for the weeping willow, to the poet Pope, who finding a green stick in a basket of figs sent to him, as a present, from Turkey, stuck it in his garden at Twickenham, and thence propagated this beautiful tree.

Broom corn is of a different genus from Indian corn. They will not mix. In the Mohawk flats the best cultivators of it sow with a drill as early in spring as the ground will admit, in rows, three and a half feet apart. As soon as it is above ground it is hoed, and soon after thinned to three inches apart. It is only hoed in the row to remove the weeds near the plants; the harrow and cultivator are then run through to keep down the weeds, and a small double mouldboard plow is run shallow between the rows. It is not left to ripen, but cut green. It is not lopped till ready to cut. One set of hands goes forward and lops or bends the tops on one side; another follows and cuts them off when bent; a third gathers them in carts or wagons. At the factory they are sorted over and put into bunches, each bunch of brush of equal length. The seed is then taken off by a sort of hatchel, worked by six horses. It is then spread thin to dry on racks in a building for the purpose. In about a week it can be packed away closely. The brooms are made in winter, about 75,000 dozen to each 100 acres of land. The stalks are left on the ground to be plowed in the next spring. For the handles a peculiar lathe, turned by horse power, is used, which manufactures them with great rapidity.—*Farmer's Companion and Horticultural Gazette.*

CORN MEASURES OF EUROPEAN AND OTHER PORTS.

For the following table, reducing the corn measures of the different countries of Europe, &c., we are indebted to our cotemporary of the Belfast (Ireland) *Mercantile Journal and Statistical Register*:—

CORN MEASURES OF THE DIFFERENT PORTS OF EUROPE, ETC., WITH THEIR EQUIVALENT IN ENGLISH QUARTERS.

AUSTRIA. Trieste, 3½ stajas, 1 quarter.

BELGIUM. Antwerp, (grain sold by weight,) 1,015 kilos. 2,240 lbs.

DENMARK. 8 scheffels, 1 toende or ton; 21 tons 10 quarters. Some calculate 208 tons, 100 qrs., for wheat, and 210 tons, 100 qrs., for oats.

EGYPT. Alexandria, 100 ardebs of wheat, &c., 62½ qrs.; 100 ardebs of beans, 65 qrs.

FRANCE. 112 lbs., (cwt.,) 50 8-10ths kilogrammes; 100 litres, 1 hectolitre; 2 hectolitres 88 litres, 1 qr.; 36 litres, 1 bushel; 1 English ton, 1,015 kilogrammes.

GERMANY. Bremen, Hanover, 10 scheffels, 1 wisp; 2 wisps, 1 last; 1 last, 11⅞ qrs. wheat, 11 qrs. barley. Hamburg, the last of wheat, peas, beans, is 11⅛ qrs.; barley, 10⅞ qrs.; oats, 10½ qrs. Rostock, 1 last, 13 qrs.

HOLLAND. Rotterdam, 1 last, 10½ qrs. wheat and rye; 10½ qrs. barley, and 10½ qrs. oats. Groningen, 1 last, 10 qrs. oats.

ITALY. Ancona, 104½ rubbeu, 100 qrs. Genoa, 2½ mini, 1 qr. Some calculate 245 minas, and some 248 minas, 100 qrs. Milan, Venice, 3½ staja, 1 qr. Naples, 5 2-5ths tomoli, 1 qr. Leghorn, 4 sacchi, 1 qr.

MALTA. 101 salma, 100 qrs. Some take 102 salma, 100 qrs.

MOLDAVIA. Galatz, 100 kilos, 145 qrs.

PORTUGAL. Vienna, 17 alquieres, 1 qr.; 1 moio, 3 qrs.

PRUSSIA. Dantzic, Memel, Konigsberg, Pillau, 56½ scheffels, 1 last; 1 last, 10½ qrs. Anclam, Barath, Woolgast, Stralsund, 1 last, 14 qrs. Berlin and Stettin, 1 last, 13 1-12th qrs. Wismar, 1 last, 13½ or sometimes 13 qrs.

RUSSIA. Petersburg, Odessa, Riga, 2 osmin, 1 chetwert; 100 chetwerts, 72 qrs.

SICILY. Palermo, 4 salma of 20 tumoli, or 5 salma of 16 tumoli, 5 qrs., old measure.

SMYRNA. (Asia Minor,) 1 kilo. 1 imperial bushel.

SWEDEN. 2 spann, 1 ton or barrel; 18 tons, 10 qrs. Some take 176½ barrels, 100 qrs.

SPAIN. 5 fanegas, 1 qr.

TURKEY. Constantinople, 816 kilos. 100 qrs.

WALLACHIA. Ibrail, 100 kilos, 225 qrs. Some take 222½ only.

PUBLIC LANDS FOR ACTUAL SETTLERS AND CULTIVATORS.

The following is a correct copy of an act passed at the last session of Congress, and approved August 4th, 1854:—

AN ACT TO GRADUATE AND REDUCE THE PRICE OF THE PUBLIC LANDS TO ACTUAL SETTLERS AND CULTIVATORS.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That all the public lands in the United States which shall have been in market ten years or upwards, prior to the time of application to enter the same under the provisions of this act, and still remaining unsold, shall be subject to sale at the price of one dollar per acre; and all of the lands of the United States that shall have been in market for fifteen years or upwards, as aforesaid, and still remaining unsold, shall be subject to sale at seventy-five cents per acre; and all of the lands of the United States that have been in the market for twenty years or upwards, as aforesaid, and still remaining unsold, shall be subject to sale at fifty cents per acre; and of all the lands of the United States that shall have been in the market for twenty-five years and upwards, as aforesaid, and still remaining unsold, shall be subject to sale at twenty-five cents per acre; and all lands of the United States that shall have been in market for thirty years or more, shall be subject to sale at twelve-and-a-half cents per acre: *Provided*, This section shall not be so constructed as to extend to lands reserved to the United States, in acts granting land to States for

railroad or other internal improvements, or to mineral lands held at over one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That upon every reduction of price under the provisions of this act, the occupant and settler upon the lands shall have the right of pre emption at such graduated price, upon the same terms, conditions, restrictions, and limitations, upon which the public lands of the United States are now subject to the right of pre-emption, until within thirty days preceding the next graduation or reduction that shall take place; and if not so purchased, shall again be subject to the right of pre-emption for eleven months as before, and so on from time to time as reductions take place: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall be so construed as to interfere with any right which has or may secure by virtue of an act granting pre-emption to actual settlers upon public lands.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That any person applying to enter any of the aforesaid lands shall be required to make affidavit before the register or receiver of the proper land office, that he or she enters the same for his or her own use, and for the purpose of actual settlement and cultivation, or for the use of an adjoining farm or plantation, owned or occupied by him or herself, and together with said entry, he or she has not acquired from the United States, under the provisions of this act, more than three hundred and twenty acres, according to the established surveys; and if any person or persons taking such oath or affidavit shall swear falsely in the premises he or she shall be subject to all the pains and penalties of perjury.

PRODUCTS OF THE FRENCH COLONIES IN ALGIERS.

The European population of these colonies is 130,000, of whom 80,000 live in towns, and 50,000 are devoted to agriculture; but they are unskilled in the art, and are not provided with the best implements. Among the products exhibited at Paris from these colonies, are the following:—

COTTON. The culture of which is encouraged by the French government. The first experiments were made in 1846. In 1852, 1,500 acres were planted for this crop, but it was much injured by the rains, and nearly destroyed. Georgia Sea-Island appears best suited to the soil and climate. The culture of this staple can only be maintained by the help of the government.

WOOL. The samples were from the native African sheep, and the quality is good.

TOBACCO. These samples were numerous and well grown, but of inferior flavor. There are now about 600 planters of tobacco, the cultivation having been commenced in 1844. 500 hectares, equivalent to about 1,166 acres, are now grown, which produce some 500,000 lbs. of tobacco.

CEREALS. Grains are produced to some extent. Rye is but little used, but produces well. The wheat is good. Barley is the most important of these crops. The Arab and his horse live upon it. Mohammed said—"Every kernel of barley given to a horse is worth an indulgence in the other world." Barley is also used extensively in brewing.

MINERALS. In this department, iron, copper, lead, antimony, carbonate of zinc, manganese, and mercury, were exhibited. Copper mines are numerous, and many of them are worked by English companies. Fuel is too scarce to work them, and the ores are sent to England. No coal has been discovered; but plaster of Paris, alabaster, porcelain clay, and soapstone are found. Fine varieties of marble occur. Some of these are equaled only in whiteness by the marble of Carrara.

The coral fisheries are extensive and profitable. About 1,500,000 francs' worth are annually taken from the sea.

FARMS AND FARMERS IN ENGLAND.

According to the Census Report, farms occupy two-thirds of the land of England The number of the farms is 225,318, the average size is 111 acres. Two-thirds of the farms are under that size, but there are 771 above 1,000 acres. The large holdings abound in the south-eastern and eastern counties, the small farms in the north. There are 2,000 English farmers holding nearly 2,000,000 acres; and there are 97,000 English farmers not holding more. There are 40,650 farmers who employ five laborers each; 16,501 have ten or more, and employ together 311,707 laborers; 170 farmers have above sixty laborers each, and together employ 17,000.

WOOL-GROWING IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

The Charleston *Mercury* says that the experiment of rearing fine breeds of sheep for wool in the upper part of South Carolina, promises to be completely successful. Mr. J. D. Wagener, the Hon. R. F. Simpson, and other gentlemen in Pickens have engaged in it, and they seem to have established the facts that sheep flourish in that region remarkably well; that they can be raised at trifling cost compared with that of the wool-growing regions of the North, and that the quality of the wool of the choice European breeds does not degenerate. Mr. Wagener has taken an active part in this enterprise, and has imported a stock of the famous Saxon sheep, which is found to thrive well in Pickens. Specimens of wool of his raising were transmitted to one of the largest manufacturers in New England, who pronounced a most favorable judgment on them, and rated them at the top of the market. The *Mercury* attaches no slight importance to the introduction of wool-growing in the upper districts, which, properly followed up, will prove a source of wealth to that part of the State.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

FALKLAND ISLANDS—PORT WILLIAM.

The captain of the English steamship Great Britain, has made a very favorable report of Stanley Harbor, as a place of call for steamers. He says:—

"The government charts are exceedingly correct; the land, as you approach it, is made out without any difficulty, and we saw Pembroke Point and its beacon (now to be superseded by a light house) at the distance of about seven miles. The harbor itself is like a large dock, secure from all winds, and with an entrance sufficiently wide for a good smart sailing vessel to beat through with ease. All the dangerous points are distinctly marked by the seaweed. The anchorage is excellent, varying from four to five fathoms at low water. The facility for watering ships is good; a reservoir, holding about 200 tons of water, communicates by means of pipes with the end of a jetty, where, even when the tide is out, there is always about three feet depth of water, which is sufficient for a flat-bottomed boat to float off ten tons at a time. The Governor promises that, should Stanley become a port of call for steamers, a floating tank should be built, so that water could be alongside the ship immediately on her arrival, and pumped into the tanks or casks as the case may be There are considerable herds of cattle on the islands, and when put up to feed, their beef is very good; vegetables of the more ordinary kind, such as potatoes, cabbages, and turnips, can be had when in season; ship chandlery and grocery stores can also be purchased to a limited extent. Labor is scarce, as the population of Stanley (the only settlement) is only about 400; but every year, as these islands become better known, this want will, no doubt, be less felt."

SAILING DIRECTIONS FOR ENTERING PORT WILLIAM; THE STANLEY SETTLEMENT BEING NOW THE SEAT OF GOVERNMENT.—BY MR. PHILLIPS, PILOT AT STANLEY.

Ships from the southward should sight Cape Pembroke, which is the easternmost point of the Falkland Islands, and on which there is a wooden beacon, 36 feet high, with a base nine feet square, tapering to five feet, and surmounted by a mast 30 feet. It is distinctly visible at the distance of ten miles; with a commanding breeze anything south of west, keep to seaward of Wolfe Rock, and pass between the Seal Rocks and Cape Pembroke, and then between the Billy Rocks and Seal Rocks, where there is plenty of water, and no danger that may not be seen. Having passed the Billy Rocks, haul up, and if in doubt, or if the pilot has not come off, anchor abreast of the William Islets; but in daylight there is no danger in standing into the entrance of Stanley Harbor. The above directions are for westerly winds, which generally prevail; but when the wind is easterly, *outside* of the Seal Rocks.

Coming from the northward with westerly winds, make Cape Carysfort, or with easterly winds, Volunteer Point; when they are passed steer for Cape Pembroke, on which the beacon will be seen, until Port William opens to starboard, when run in and anchor, or wait for a pilot, according to the above directions.

In case of darkness or fog, ships may anchor in the mouth of Berkeley Sound, or of Port William, or stand off and on, as may be expedient; there being no danger that is not buoyed by the kelp.

The Wolf Rock bears from Cape Pembroke S. ½ W. by compass; distant nearly three miles. It is of a triangular shape, each side being about three cables' length.

The Seal Rocks lie about three-quarters of a mile from Cape Pembroke, and are clean on all sides. The tide runs north and south about three knots between Cape Pembroke and the Seal Rocks; the flood setting to the northward, and the ebb to the southward.

NEW BEACON TO INDICATE JŒDDEREN REEF.

OFFICE OF COMMITTEE OF PRIVY COUNCIL FOR TRADE,
Marine Department, Sept. 6, 1854.

I am directed by the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade to transmit to you, for the information of the Committee for managing the affairs of Lloyd's, the annexed copy (translation) of a Notice to Mariners, issued by the Royal Norwegian Marine Board, reporting the erection of a beacon to indicate the position of Jœdderen Reef.

Capt. G. A. HALSTED, R. N., Secretary Lloyd's. JAMES BOOTH.

Hereby is made known, that on a small hill called "Blomhong," just inside the reef of Jœdderen, on the southwest coast of Norway, a Beacon has been erected, consisting of four wooden spars, which unite together on the top; on this is placed a triangular of wood, visible from the sea. It is dark-colored.

Longitude E. from Greenwich 5° 35′, N. latitude 58° 45′. Visible from 4 to 6 miles

The Royal Norwegian Marine Department, O. W. ERICKSEN.
Christiania, August 24, 1854.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

THE MINERAL RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

From a recently published work of Professor Emmons, on American Geology, we derive the following facts, figures, and statements, in illustration of the importance to be attached to the mineral resources of this country:—

NORTHERN NEW YORK. The net proceeds per annum, which may be realized from the ores of iron in northern New York, will pay the interest, at seven per cent, on $3,000,000.

The mines of Adirondack have just been sold for $500,000, a sum much below their real value. The Sandford ore bed in Essex County cannot be estimated at much less than $500,000. At this mine, from two pits alone, 21,000 and 23,000 tons of ore per day have been raised at a cost not exceeding fifty cents per ton; and which, when crushed and separated, yields from five to fifteen tons of phosphate of lime per one hundred tons of ore, which is worth on the ground twenty dollars per ton, and twenty-five to thirty dollars in New York.

There remain the Clintonville and the Saranac Iron Districts, together with inexhaustible quantities of the specular ore in Jefferson and St. Lawrence Counties, and the magnetic ores of the Highlands.

Pennsylvania furnishes an amount of iron which may be estimated at $5,000,000 annually.

Missouri, from the Pilot and Iron Mountains, is capable of furnishing as much iron as any part of the world. Situated in the great Valley of the Mississippi, its value can scarcely be overrated.

The iron mountains of Lake Superior are equally as rich as northern New York. There are some, perhaps, who may regard this comparison as unjust to Lake Superior; but it must not be forgotten that one mine, the Sandford Lake Mine, is between six and seven hundred feet thick. A cubic yard of ore weighs four tons.

Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, possess inexhaustible supplies of iron ore, which are mostly the hydrous peroxides of iron. The hematites of Vermont and of eastern New York are very extensive.

The brown ores of iron in the south-western counties of North Carolina, and in eastern Tennessee, are immense.

A mineral so important as iron should be widely distributed, and it appears that in the United States every important section is supplied with it. The largest sections or formations which are destitute of the ores of iron and of the metals, are the Cretaceous and Tertiary, which skirt the Atlantic coast, and which form our great basins and valleys. So, also, the Silurian and Devonian systems are, in a great measure, destitute of iron ores, with the exception of the argillaceous and oolitic ores of iron of the Clinton group.

I have already spoken of the value of the lead ores of Wisconsin, Missouri, and Iowa. The highest estimate which I have noticed of the probable productive capacities of the lead region, is from one hundred to one hundred and fifty millions of pounds annually, having already reached that of fifty millions under unfavorable circumstances.

The production of copper is in its infancy. It is too early to attempt to determine the value of its mines, and yet the Lake Superior Copper District has already produced two thousand tons in a single year. The value of the copper which has been produced equals, at twenty-five cents per pound, $2,700,000. The copper region which ranks next in value is in North Carolina. It has been referred to. The ore is the yellow sulphuret; the country is far better adapted to mining than that of Lake Superior. Indeed, it is of all others the best, whether we consider its climate, its means of sustaining a mining population at a cheap rate, or the production of timber for shafting, tunneling, fuel, etc. We do not yet know the real extent and value of its copper ores, but we have no doubt of the ultimate success of its copper mines.

It is not to be expected, however, that one-quarter of the veins which are now being tested will prove to be mines. Even if one in ten turn out well, North Carolina will become one of the richest mining districts in the Union.

The resources in copper in Tennessee are also remarkable, and particularly so, as several mines became productive from their first trials. I allude to those of Ducktown.

Although gold has been obtained in considerable quantities for half a century, still the mines and deposits have not been worked in a systematic manner. Present and immediate gains have been sought for, and hence no permanent works have been erected, except in a very few instances. Within the last two years, more system and more capital have been employed, and a better and more consistent view is now taken of gold mining, and the prospect is becoming daily more favorable to the enterprise. North Carolina is the center of the gold region, and will rank in value next to California. There are no accurate returns for the amount of gold North Carolina has furnished. Of the gold of California, the estimated production is less than the actual. The Hon. T. Butler King estimated it for 1848–9 at $40,000,000.

Our plaster, salt, marble, granite, and free-stone, form other large items of mineral wealth with which the United States abound. In the list of mineral property, mineral springs should not be forgotten. They administer to the health of the people.

The only mines of quicksilver which are now known in the United States, are situated in Santa Clara, twelve miles from San Jose, in California. It is found in bunches in ferruginous clay, forming in part a hill 1,360 feet above tide. It is associated with broken down magnesian rocks. The deposit is large, but no accurate returns of the yield of quicksilver have been published. The mine is being worked in a systematic manner.

We have no mines of tin, properly speaking.

I have said nothing of coal. It is almost impossible to measure or weigh in calculation its amount; but President Hitchcock observes truly, that the whole amount in solid measure of the coal in the United States equals at least 3,500,000 square miles.

WAMSUTTA COTTON MILLS.

The Wamsutta Corporation at New Bedford, Massachusetts, have just completed a new mill, 245 feet long, 70 wide, and 3 stories high. The new building is connected with the old in the form of an L, and both together are equal in length to 463 feet, and 70 feet wide, containing 32,400 square feet to each floor. The *Mercury* states that the whole establishment, when in full operation, will run 34,000 spindles, 700 looms, and will produce 3,200,000 yards fine sheeting and shirting per annum. This will employ 6,000 operatives. It will require an annual consumption of 3,000 tons of coal, 3,200 bales cotton, 50,000 lbs. of potato starch, 3,000 gallons of sperm oil, 2,000 gallons of whale oil, besides a great variety of other supplies.

COAL FIELDS, MINES, AND TRADE.

The interesting facts and figures relative to the Schuylkill, Lehigh, Lackawanna, Shamokin, Cumberland and Pittsburg districts, and the coal fields and coal mines on the Western waters, are derived from a carefully prepared statement of the *Mining Register*, and from official documents :—

Taking the past year's business as a basis for estimating the production of the year 1854, allowing 10 per cent as safe figures of increase, and we have this result, with the estimated capacity for transportation, viz. :—

Where from.	No. tons carried in 1853.	No. tons estimated for 1854.	Estimated capacity.
Schuylkill Region, by Railway.....	1,582,211	1,740,433	3,000,000
" " by Canal.....	888,695	977,564	1,250,000
The Lehigh Region	1,080,423	1,188,465	1,300,000
Lackawanna or Del. and Hudson Canal...	1,004,000	1,104,400	1,200,000
Shamokin District.....	12,000	300,000	900,000
By Union Canal.....	80,655	88,720	400,000
Dauphin and Susquehanna Co.....	20,000	40,000	500,000
Cumberland (Md.) district.....	536,575	590,232	800,000
Total	5,204,559	6,029,814	9,350,000

The production of bituminous coal in the Pittsburg district, in 1853, was 26,708,921 bushels; and in 1854, allowing 10 per cent increase, will be 29,379,813.

This table gives the increase for 1854, at 825,255 tons; and it is questionable whether the market, in a healthy condition will demand more. It will be seen that the estimated tonnage capacity is in excess of anticipated demands 3,320,186 tons; but we will not be surprised to find the actual capacities of these carrying companies, tested closely, to accommodate the tonnage on figures indicated for 1854, their higher inviting figures to the contrary.

Having said thus much with reference to the trade of our own section, we purpose taking a brief glance at the deposits lying on and contiguous to the Mississippi Valley, and see, if possible, what the future prospects of that great extent of country is. The most reliable data at our command is to be found in the report of the late Secretary of the Navy. There was a commission appointed to examine the quality of the coal, and extent of deposits in that section. The gentlemen composing the commission say they proceeded to Pittsburg, and thence down the Ohio and Mississippi river as far as Memphis, examining all the principal coal workings on those rivers. From Memphis they passed up the Mississippi as far as St Louis, making examinations in that vicinity and in the States of Missouri and Illinois. Coal is developed in the greatest quantity on the banks of the Ohio and its tributaries for nearly 900 miles below Pittsburgh. They found no coal workings below Caseyville, a village in Kentucky, about two miles above Trade Water Creek, a tributary of the Ohio river. At New Madrid, or what is called "Sand Blows," after an earthquake, small lumps of coal are found of various sizes.

The convulsions or earthquakes which usually visit that pl.ce follow long continued rains, and the received opinion is that the coal is ignited thereby. How much below the surface the coal is found has never been ascertained. The specimens of coal thrown up by the convulsions of nature which they saw at New Madrid, had the appearance of being subjected to the action of fire, and would seem to establish the theory of the inhabitants, that the coal is ignited by long continued rains.

In judging of the quality of the different kinds of coal, they were governed by the appearance, and the result of trials on board the steamers on the river and in the workshops which came under their immediate observation, as well as the opinions of persons using it on steamboats and for manufacturing purposes.

The value and importance of the coal lands in the West have not heretofore engaged the particular attention of the owners.

The time, however, has now arrived when their value and importance are being daily developed. The scarcity, as well as the high price of wood, on the banks of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, will compel the owners of steamboats navigating those streams to resort to the use of coal.

The same cause will induce the large sugar establishments on the Mississippi to substitute its use for that of wood. These considerations, in connection with the increasing demand for coal at New Orleans and other points of the Mississippi, for

domestic, mechanical, and steamship purposes, have induced many enterprising capitalists to embark in coal operations in the West. Companies have been and are now forming to open and work extensively the mines on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers and their tributaries; and there is no doubt that their labors will develop one of the most extensive coal regions on this continent, and at the same time afford those who engage in the business a profitable remuneration for their outlay of capital. At present the capital employed in mining is but trifling in comparison to the importance of the object, and the working has been confined generally to the upper strata. When the mines have been further worked, and more deeply penetrated, doubtless in many instances the coal yielded will be of a superior quality to that now taken from the surface. All the coal examined in the West burns remarkably free. The coal in the neighborhood of Pittsburgh is generally esteemed the best, and bears handling and transportation without crumbling—which is a characteristic of all western coal that came under their observation. One of the principal reasons why the Pittsburgh is esteemed the best, arises from the fact that the mines have been more extensively worked than any other in the Valley of the Mississippi. There is no doubt that the coal at other points on the Ohio and Mississippi and their tributaries, when the mines are properly developed, will be equal in every respect to what is known as Pittsburgh coal.

There are extensive coal fields in the neighborhood of Wheeling, in Virginia, on both sides of the Ohio river. The quality of the coal is not esteemed as highly as that of Pittsburgh, but answers for all domestic purposes as well as some branches of manufactures. The Pittsburgh coal is generally used at Wheeling for manufacturing purposes.

There is little or no coal shipped down the river from Wheeling.

At Pomeroy, in Ohio, coal is found in great abundance on the bank of the river, and workings are very extensive, supplying nearly all the passing steamboats.

The mines in connection with salt-works are owned by a company, who are said to realize large profits. The coal resembles that found in the neighborhood of St. Louis and in Illinois.

On the opposite side of the river in Kentucky, several workings of coal have been commenced. Of the character of the coal they had no opportunity of judging.

In the vicinity of Gallipolis, in Ohio, it is said coal of a superior quality is found in large quantities. A railroad is in progress of construction from the mines to the river.

On the Elk River, in Virginia, is found pure cannel coal. Specimens are in the department and at the navy-yards in Norfolk and Washington.

The only obstacles to the introduction of this coal into general use is the difficulty encountered in getting it to market. When they were at Louisville, a boat-load of coal from that region arrived which had been eighteen months on the way. It commands in the market from two to three cents more per bushel than Pittsburgh or any other coal.

Near the region of the Kanawha River large deposits of coal are found, partaking of the character of that on the Elk River, which is a tributary of the Kanawha. The difficulty of getting it to market is a serious obstacle to its general use.

Arrangements are being made by capitalists to work these mines extensively. The Cannelton coal mines are on the Ohio River, in the State of Indiana. They examined several openings of these mines which have been worked at a *royalty*, or mining privilege of one cent per bushel. The strata are about four feet thick, and formed of two distinct kinds of coal—the upper part being a strong resemblance to the cannel coal, and the lower portions resembling the Pittsburgh deposits. The upper portion is a light, chaffy, free-burning coal, with little durability. Any quantity of the coal can be obtained with the greatest facility at the mines, at a price varying from five to six cents per bushel.

At Hawesville, Kentucky, opposite Cannelton, coal is found in great abundance, of the same description and quality as that of the Cannelton.

The mines are now being worked, and the passing steamers furnished with it. The Saline Coal Mines, in the State of Illinois, on the Saline River, two miles from the Ohio River, are most advantageously situated for the supply of passing boats, having a fine harbor.

The coal beds are said to be a portion of the great Illinois coal field. The character of the coal is said to be good; and the geological surveys represent six distinct strata, the lower one of which is seven feet thick.

The Mulford Mines, two miles above Trade Water Creek, in the State of Kentucky, are conducted on an extensive scale by the enterprising proprietors, and with great

system. The passing boats can get supplied with certainty, and large quantities are sent to New Orleans and other points.

These mines have the same distinct strata as those on the Saline River. In one of the mines there is a peculiar formation; sulphur is found in large lumps, almost pure. It is separated from the coal, and wasted with the slack, near the mouth of the mine.

The mines of the Hon. John Bell on Trade Water Creek, in Kentucky, about one hundred and twenty miles above the mouth of the Ohio, are extensively worked, and yield a large profit.

The distinct strata developed at the Saline Mines are peculiar to these. The coal is of an excellent quality, and, from the tests to which it was subjected, it is considered well adapted for steaming and manufacturing purposes. There is a greater density about it than the Cannelton coal, and it makes a better hollow fire.

Mount Carbon Coal Mines, Jackson County, Illinois, are situated on Big Muddy River, a tributary of the Mississippi, about seventy miles above the mouth of the Ohio. They are not now in operation. The vein of these is about five feet thick, running into a side of a hill having a thinner vein above, and I think one below, the present opening.

The mines are fifty-six miles from Cairo by the Central Road, terminating at that point. A railroad, thirteen miles in length, would bring this coal to market at a navigable point on the Mississippi River in large quantities. The proprietors have not found it convenient to make this improvement. There is a small tract near the Mount Carbon Coal Fields, which is an out-cropping of that vein. Two of the small veins in this tract are now worked, and the passing boats and the St. Louis market supplied, when the stage of water in the Big Muddy will allow it to be floated down.

In Calloway County, in the State of Missouri, there is a most remarkable coal field of cannel formation. The vein is reported to be of great thickness, inexhaustible, and is situated but a few miles from the river.

These coal lands are owned by a company of Eastern capitalists, who have built a railroad to the river, (Mississippi,) and will in a short time have the coal in market.

The coal about St. Louis, on both sides of the river, is of an inferior quality, and only used to a limited extent for domestic purposes.

The gas works and principal manufactories at St. Louis use the Pittsburgh coal, or that brought from the Big Muddy.

In consequence of the low stage of water, they could not visit the coal land in Tennessee, but, from all they could learn, the mines on the Cumberland River and at other points yield coal of the character and description generally found in the western country.

The transportation of coal on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers and their tributaries is by flat-boats, containing from 10,000 to 12,000 bushels, or from 300 to 400 tons. These boats are floated in pairs to New Orleans and the intermediate points, when there is a high stage of water, which is generally in the spring and fall seasons.

Coal is usually sold at New Orleans by the barrel, the price varying from 30 cents to 75 cents per barrel, depending altogether upon the quantity in market and the demand. It can be delivered on ship board at New Orleans from $3 68 to $4 50 per ton. At Memphis they do not think the maximum cost would exceed $3 68 per ton.

The cost of the transportation from New Orleans to Pensacola they had no positive means of ascertaining, but from the best information it would cost from $2 50 to $3 per ton.

The business of mining in Kentucky, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, and Tennessee is yet in its infancy. The proprietors of the coal lands are now fast becoming aware of their great value and importance.

MANUFACTURING LAW OF NEW YORK.

The following important amendment to the General Manufacturing Law of New York, was passed at the last session of the Legislature:—

1. Section twenty-seven of chapter forty, of the laws of 1848, entitled "an Act to authorize the formation of corporations for manufacturing, mining, mechanical or chemical purposes," shall read as follows:—

When any person or persons owning fifteen per cent of the capital stock of any company formed under the provisions of this act, shall present a written request to the treasurer thereof, that they desire a statement of the affairs of such company, it

shall be the duty of such treasurer to make a statement of the affairs of said company under oath, embracing a particular account of all its assets and liabilities in a minute detail, and to deliver such statement to the person who presented the said written request to the treasurer, within twenty days after such presentation, and he shall also at the same time, place and keep on file in his office for six months thereafter, a copy of such statement, which shall at all times during business hours, be exhibited to any stockholder of said company, demanding an explanation thereof. Such treasurer, however, shall not be required to deliver such statement in the manner aforesaid, oftener than once in six months. If such treasurer shall neglect or refuse to comply with any of the provisions of this act, he shall forfeit and pay to the person presenting said written request, the sum of fifty dollars, and the further sum of ten dollars for every twenty-four hours thereafter, until such statement shall be furnished, to be sued for and recovered in any court having cognizance thereof.

2. This act shall take effect immediately.

IRON ORE IN VIRGINIA FOR IRON MANUFACTURES.

The *Lynchburg Virginian* commends the glowing account of the mineral resources of Montgomery County, in Virginia, given by a correspondent of the *Christenburg Herald*, to the attention of those engaged in, or designing to engage in the iron business. The ore referred to in the following communication is said to be in richness and purity equal to any in the world, and the editors of the *Virginian* state that there is no place in the State where it can be manufactured cheaper than in Montgomery. We trust it will not be long before the great and varied natural resources with which Virginia abounds will be fully developed, and devoted to the purposes for which nature intended them. We cheerfully transfer the communication to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*. The correspondent of the *Christenburg Herald* says:—

There is iron ore enough in the city of Montgomery, Virginia, to build a railroad with a double track of heavy T rail, 210 tons to the mile, from Washington City to San Francisco. It is found at different points within from one to five miles of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad. The ore is of the very best quality; rich enough to yield from 50 to 75 per cent of pure iron. This ore is so situated that it can be mined or gotten out at a cost of from 12½ to 50 cents per ton, it being situated on gentle slopes in immense ledges, from which it can be blasted in large masses.

There is stone coal of the very purest and best quality for iron manufacturing purposes, enough within from five to ten miles of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, (and to which a branch railroad will be built in 1855,) to supply the demands of the whole world for years. In short, an inexhaustible amount which is so situated that it can be mined at a cost from 50 to 75 cents per ton. There is on New River, Little River, and Roanoke, and their branches, in the county of Montgomery, convertible water-power equal to at least 10,000 horse-power.

The country, though fertile and productive, has still a very large proportion of heavily timbered forest, from which might be obtained immense quantities of charcoal and fuel.

The foregoing facts are strictly true; and yet, strange as it is, there has never been a ton of iron made in the present limits of the county of Montgomery.

THE PACIFIC MILL AT LAWRENCE.

According to the *Lowell Journal*, good authority, the Pacific Mill at Lawrence is the largest and most comprehensive mill in the world. It makes none but the finest kinds of goods, and the success of its operations is looked to with great interest by manufacturers. The floor surface of this immense structure is sixteen acres—the largest mill in England is eleven-and-a-half acres. There are now in operation 40,000 cotton spindles, and 10,000 worsted spindles; and these are to be increased to 80,000 and 20,000 respectively. There are 1,200 looms in operation, to be increased to 2,400. These, with 2,000 hands, produce 300,000 pieces of cloth per annum, one-half delaines. The weekly consumption of cotton is 20,000 lbs., say 1,500,000 lbs. per annum, and 500,000 lbs. of wool. Once a month the 2,000 hands assemble at the cashier's office, where Mr. Clapp pays out to them $500,000 for wages, appropriating to each one the exact amount she has earned.

PRINTING FOR LACE AND MUSLIN.

Under the name of nature's own printing, says the *Journal of Industrial Progress*, Mr. Von Auer, of Vienna, has announced a peculiar method for obtaining impressions of the leaves of plants, &c. The process consists simply in taking two polished metal plates, one hard, the best substance being copper, and the other soft, as for example, a plate of lead, and laying the article to be copied between them, and passing the plates between the rollers of a press, such as lithographers use. By the great pressure exerted, a beautifully sharp and faithful copy of the article is produced on the leaden plate, from which impressions can be obtained, which can be employed for printing thousands of copies. The dried leaves of plants can be copied in this way, and by using gutta percha gently heated, even moist plants will give impressions. The chief use of this new art will, however, be the reproduction of lace, &c., for if a piece of lace, or of worked muslin, be placed between the plates instead of leaves, a beautiful intaglio copy will be produced, from which printed patterns can be provided. Such plates might be at once employed to print designs upon the muslin sent out to be worked. It is but just to remark, that a similar invention was made about twenty years ago by a Dane of Copenhagen, of the name of Peter Cyhl, who, having died before he perfected the art, the idea was lost sight of.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

COMMERCIAL IMPORTANCE OF CALIFORNIA.

The Hon. Mr. McDougall, member of Congress from the State of California, in a speech on the Pacific Railroad Bill, delivered in the House of Representatives, May 29th, 1854, presents in a condensed form the commercial progress and importance of the Gold State:—

The State of California has now a population of 300,000 persons; and, from the fact that they are almost exclusively effective men, they may be considered fully equal to any other population of 700,000 in capacity either for labor or enterprise.

The city of San Francisco has a population of from 50,000 to 75,000 persons, and is already second only to New York in point of commercial importance, as we have before stated in the *Merchants' Magazine*, while in the amount of her tonnage she is competing with the second city in the Union.

It has been said that "money is power." The gold of California has been the master-power that by its force has seemed to realize the fabled birth of the ancient Tyre, said to have sprung perfect, with the palace and temple and busy mart, from the foam of "the great sea." The gold fields of California have proved rich beyond any known parallel. Within the last five years they have produced over $300,000,000. Within the past year over $80,000,000 in treasure, the products of our own rivers and mountains, have passed out of our golden gate. During the great currency controversy, about 1835 and 1836, the estimated amount of the entire specie basis of the currency of the United States was $80,000,000. The State of California contributes annually to the currency of the country an amount equal to the entire real currency of the whole Union eighteen years ago.

In 1833 the entire exports of the United States of her own domestic products were but $69,000,000. Out of the golden gate we have exported within the past year more of the domestic products of California than was exported by the whole Union twenty years ago. As late as 1845 we exported of our domestic products but $98,000,000, including all articles of exportation, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and the fabrics of our manufactories. California exports nearly as much as the whole Union did eight years ago, just before our gold had entered into, stimulated, and swelled our commerce.

Again, during the year 1853 there was imported into San Francisco from the Atlantic seaboard 423,230 tons of merchandise for its own and its independent markets; amounting in value to not less than $100,000,000. It must be understood that the market of San Francisco is not limited by the State of California. It embraces the entire coast from Acapulco to the Russian possessions, and all the islands that

possess a commerce as far as the coasts of Asia. The market of San Francisco is as large a market for the Atlantic coast as the whole foreign market of the United States eight years ago.

While upon this subject Mr. McDougall states a fact incident to the commerce of California, which will serve somewhat to disabuse members of Congress of the impression that California is a burden upon the Federal treasury. For the last four years the customs collected at San Francisco have averaged $2,500,000; during the year 1851 over $3,200,000 was paid for customs at that port. These amounts have been principally paid upon direct importations from abroad, while more than two-thirds of our foreign merchandise pays duty in the Atlantic cities; so that the people of the State of California have in fact paid annually into the Federal treasury over $7,000,000. While the people of the Atlantic States pay two dollars per capita per annum into the Federal treasury, the people of California pay over twenty dollars. As liberal as the Federal Government has been to California, it should be remembered that while in her infancy, just sprung out of chaos, with scarce her wings adjusted, she has returned more than she ever received from the parental bounty; besides having poured out upon all these States treasures of wealth that have given an impulse and a support to agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, felt everywhere, from the Gulf of Mexico to the Northern lakes.

While the mineral wealth of California has heretofore constituted its most marked feature, it must not be understood that the treasures of the mine constitute its only claim to consideration. No part of the Union, not even the rich bottoms of the Mississippi, equals in fertility the valleys of that State. We know of no other soil that yields such rich returns to the labors of the husbandman. And this soil is not confined, as many have supposed, to a few scattered valleys, but constitutes a large proportion of the superficial area of the entire country. With a fertile soil there is a uniform, invigorating, and salubrious climate, a better climate than that in which were bred the men of old Rome, a better climate than that of Italy.

Far-seeing and intelligent men for the past century have there located (the Great Bay of San Francisco) the point where was to grow up a great city, which would hold the keys of the Commerce of the Pacific, and command the rich commerce not only of that great ocean, but of the ancient East. In five short years the foundations of that city have been laid, and already vessels freighted to and from her wharves are to be found upon every sea and in almost every port of the civilized world.

HOW TO COMMENCE BUSINESS.

Well, boys, we doubt not that you would like to rise high in the world, and become good farmers, merchants, &c. Here is a good motto for you—Begin at the lowest round on the ladder and keep climbing; and here is a story which will illustrate just what we want to say. One of the wealthiest merchants of New York city tells us how he commenced business. He says:—

I entered a store and asked if a clerk was not wanted. "No," in a rough tone, was the answer, all being too busy to bother with me—when I reflected that if they did not want a clerk, they might want a laborer; but I was dressed too fine for that. I went to my lodgings, put on a rough garb, and the next day went into the same store and demanded if they did not want a porter, and again "No, sir," was the response—when I exclaimed, in despair almost, "a laborer? Sir, I will work at any wages. Wages is not my object—I must have employ, and I want to be useful in business." These last remarks attracted their attention; and in the end I was hired as a laborer in the basement and subcellar at a very low pay, scarcely enough to keep body and soul together. In the basement and subcellar I soon attracted the attention of the counting-house and chief clerk. I saved enough for my employers in little things wasted to pay my wages ten times over, and they soon found it out. I did not let anybody about commit petty larcenies, without remonstrance and threats of exposure, and real exposure if remonstrance would not do. I did not ask for any ten hour law. If I was wanted at 3 A. M., I never growled, but told everybody to go home, "and I will see everything right." I loaded off at daybreak packages for the morning boats, or carried them myself. In short, I soon became indispensable to my employers, and I rose, and rose, until I became head of the house, with money enough, as you see, to give me any luxury or any position a mercantile man may desire for himself and children in this great city.

WHAT A MORALIST SAYS OF GOLD.

One of our cotemporaries becomes quite eloquent in discoursing of gold. He looks however, only on the dark side of his theme, and will, we think, leave the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* with the inference that he has not succeeded in "putting money in his purse:"—

GOLD! GOLD! GOLD!

How shall we escape the yellow finger of this demon of the earth! The unholy cry is echoed everywhere, our life is a gilded thread. The letters of every printed page point towards gold. It is echoed in every conversation that man holds with his fellows, and from his birth to his grave, gold and the lust of gold peoples his thoughts, spurs his desires, tinges every fancy, and prompts every action. The matin song mingles with chime of gold! Gold! is rung on every tinkle of the vesper bell—gold twines itself with every dream of love, with every aspiration after fame, even that purchased at the cannon's mouth. Gold is trilled from the syren lips of beauty's daughter. Gold is the hoarse cry that ascends from the throats of insatiate gamblers. Gold buys and sells the merchant's principles. Beneath that golden varnish vice looks so attractive that even charity is compelled to shed indignant tears at the gilded counterfeit. Where is the wisdom that gold cannot steal, and make its former possessor play the fool. See that reverend judge—that haughty secretary—that imperious governor. Gold will buy them all thrice, and make them fetch and come like your spaniel. Gold makes man a thing of naught, only fit to hold the endless last for shining yet unalloyed dross. Gold! gold! the words ring in our ears as we write; gold is the coveted theme which echoes in our churches—the preacher means it even when he holds aloft the sign which is not that of mammon. Gold at the cradle—gold at the tomb.

Look at the golden lust of the merchant, who, at the sacrifice of the best years of his life, has acquired enough to render him independent, each day of the week still hankering after more dross, with the fiendish sentiment to get that he may keep others from using. False dreamer and sophist, you must render to your God an account of your stewardship. Mark, then, that boy, too lazy to work except just enough to keep up an appearance, and bowing to images there. Poor idiot! learn that it is not the image you love; but her golden dross, and that you are but a beggar that should ennoble manhood.

See yon wanton! Gold is hers, and for it she sold her birthright and her heaven. And you, ye idols of fashion, whose hair is decked with jewels, and whose limbs are clasped with gold, are only her superior by the sport of circumstances. Cast from your high and polished brow the glittering gewgaws, unclasp the gilded bands; let those black eyes flash such as gleams from the thunder-cloud as the bolt falls, or those soft orbs of liquid blue shine like stars in a sea of azure. Gather flowers to adorn your foreheads, as Eve did; place on your brows earth's offerings; entwine the orange blossom with tresses, the rose-bud unite with your blushes, and let the cornelia rival in icy dignity those snowy blossoms. There is a nobler aim for man than a passion for gold. There is the love of power, that you may do good to your fellow man, succor the distressed, and espouse the cause of the oppressed. Let intelligence guide your wandering thoughts; think, and while providing for your own household, remember there is yet a higher sphere of action to which you must be called, where the gold you coined on earth will be as worthless as the dust of the sinews which toiled for it.

THE ADVENTUROUS SPIRIT OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

A late number of the London *Daily News* graphically portrays the adventurous spirit of our American Commerce, after this manner:—

"We own to a cordial admiration of the spirit of American Commerce, in its adventurous aspect. To watch it is to witness some of the finest romance of our time. No idea can be formed of our own older, quieter, more traditional way of setting to work. It was an American who first thought of carrying ice to India. Instead of going out in ballast, as was often done then, with dollars to buy some oriental cargo to exchange from place to place, coming home with something very rich indeed, he took out a cargo of ice from a familiar Massachusetts pond. A fourth of the cargo melted while the people in Calcutta were learning what it meant, and the rest sold

for six cents the pound. The next time plenty of buyers were on the lookout; scarcely any ice had time to melt, and the price was nearly doubled; since which time it has been a good speculation to send ice 12,000 miles, and thrust saltpetre out of the market. It was an American who first saw the beauty of Manilla hemp, though it was not unknown to us. He carried home a few bales, and in ten years the importation rose to 20,000 bales. The Americans were on excellent terms with the Chinese long before we could make anything of them. In Salem—well named the city of peace from its civilizing commerce—the highest order of mercantile spirit is found—a spirit which reminds the traveler of old Venice and the Hanse towns. The particular dignity coveted at Salem is membership in its museum; and to be a member it is requisite to have doubled both Capes, and to have brought something remarkable from far lands. There a young man's education finishes with his being sent, not to his travels, but his voyage; and a father, uncle, or friend makes him supercargo of a good freight, and sends him to China, or Borneo, or Madagascar. Henceforth, it will probably be to Japan, or to shake hands with the Chinese in the plains of Thibet, or with European travelers at Timbuctoo, for the New England merchants are penetrating to the very heart of Africa, to handle the cotton and sell their goods. It is an every day matter for a Salem merchant to tell his wife that they may as well go round the world, as he has a ship ready; and then the older children are sent to school, and the infants and their parents sail away, trafficking from land to land, in another hemisphere, and returning with a little fortune, sun-burnt faces, and a batch of curiosities for the museum. We hail such doings in any nation whatever, and in the American case this is evidently their true field of conquest. If we would only emulate them as far as suits our different circumstances—making railways in India, and raising cotton there, and wherever in our dominions it will grow—there would soon (as we may talk of incidents in national life being soon,) be an end of charge and recrimination; and offense and subtlety about Cuba's and 'Uncle Tom's Cabins,' and fishery and boundary questions would be found easy of settlement between the two most commercial nations upon earth."

THE COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE OF SALEM.

Salem, as most of the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* are aware, is one of the large towns "out of Boston," and is situated some sixteen miles in an easterly direction from the last-named place. The population of Salem, according to the census of 1850, was 20,204. The time was when its foreign trade exceeded that of any other place in New England. In noticing the clearance of the bark Edward Koppisch, Captain John H. Eggleston, which sailed from Salem on the 18th of last October, for a voyage to Japan and ports in the Pacific Ocean—the Koppisch was formerly owned in Newburyport, and Captain Eggleston, her present owner and commander, who makes, it is believed, the first clearance from any port in the United States direct for Japan for commercial purposes, likewise sailed the first vessel from Salem for California, which was previous to the gold discovery.

The Newburyport *Herald* says, in noticing this fact, a common clearance even to trade with a new people would not deserve particular attention; but in this instance, it is so perfectly characteristic of Salem, that the mind is naturally drawn to other enterprises of late years. The *Herald* then goes on to give the following interesting reminiscences, which, although not new to us, may be to some of the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*. The *Herald* says:—

The Commerce of this country has been almost entirely connected with the great cities, Boston, New York, New Orleans, &c.; yet, now and then there remains a survivor of the past generations, within whose recollections those places were little more than villages, and who can amaze the young with stories of other towns—who can tell us of Salem, when she astonished the world by the enterprise of her merchant princes—the Derbys, Greys, Crowninshields, Peabodys, and others, by whom she became more wealthy and distinguished than any other port on this continent. In that early time, and to the present, it has been peculiar to Salem to trade where nobody else traded, to seek new and distant peoples, and to carry out a Commerce of her own. We will venture even now, that Salem has commenced the trade with more different

peoples in Asia, Africa, South America, and the islands of the seas, than all other American ports put together; and if the history of her Commerce was written, it would be one of the most valuable and interesting books ever issued from the press.

Once Salem held all the trade of the Indies, and fortunes of millions of dollars—such as are not now known out of the great cities—were amassed therefrom. The first American ship around the Cape of Good Hope was from Salem; the first to trade at Hindostan, Java, Sumatra, China, and, through the Dutch, with Japan, as with many other Asiatics, were from Salem. The first at Madagascar, at Zanzibar, where they retain almost the total gum and ivory trade to this day; and at other ports in East Africa, were from Salem. She was among the first, if not the very first, for ordinary commercial pursuits, on the west shores of Africa—and there she is the first now. She was the first at the mouths of the great South American rivers, at Matirided, at Para, where she retained the control for a long time, and yet leads in the rubber trade—and other ports in South America. She opened trade with the Feegee Islands, and has ships there now; she sent the first American goods to traffic in New Holland; she has her trade to-day with New Zealand, and Salem men, if not vessels, were among the first from this quarter on the northwest coast; and now the first ship for commercial pursuits sails from her quiet waters to Japan.

These facts for such a place, now comparatively insignificant, are singular indeed, and a well arrayed history thereof, from the time of her fisheries and the primary investments of Higginson, and in foreign traffic, with narratives of early voyages, sketches of eminent sea captains, and of the leading merchants, down to the Brookhouses, Uptons, Shepherds, Bertrams, and Phillipses of those times, who are like unto and not behind their predecessors, would be a work of intense interest.

THE WIFE OF A MERCHANT'S CLERK.

A merchant's clerk, of the Rue Hauteville, recently married. His master had a niece, of Spanish birth, an orphan. She is not pretty, though very sensible and well informed. At the balls, last winter, little or no attention was paid to her, indeed, she seemed to attend them rather as a whim than from inclination or amusement, as she seldom danced. But if she did not dance, she noticed much, and listened to more. The clerk soon observed that the lady was only invited to dance when no other partner could be obtained. She herself had already noticed the same fact. Being a gallant man, he acted accordingly. The incidents that led to the *denouement* may be easily divined. In six weeks after his first dance with the fair Spaniard, he obtained her permission to ask her uncle for her hand in marriage. He, astonished, gave his clerk's proposal a very cool reception, and then had a long interview with his niece. Finally, however, all was arranged, and the lovers were married on Tuesday. The Thursday after, at breakfast, Adeline said to her husband, who exhibited considerable chagrin at being compelled to return to the duties of his office thus early in the honeymoon.

"Very well—don't go there—go there no more!"

"My love, it is very easy to say so, but"—

"Easy to say and easy to do—both. I have a million and a half. Nobody knows it but my uncle. I always made a point of forgetting it myself, because I wished to choose a really disinterested husband. There need be no more office work for you, if you do not wish it. Yet still, my advice is, husband, that you neglect nothing."

THE HONEST SHOP BOY.

"That is right, my boy," said the merchant, smiling approvingly upon the bright face of his shop boy. He had brought him a dollar that lay amongst the dust and paper of the sweepings.

"That is right," he said again, "always be honest; it is the best policy."

"Should you say that?" asked the lad timidly.

"Should I say what? that honesty is the best policy? Why it is a time honored old saying. I don't know about the elevating tendency of the thing; the spirit is rather narrow, I'll allow."

"So grandmother taught me," replied the boy, "she said we should do right because God approved it, without thinking what man would say."

The merchant turned abruptly toward the desk, and the thoughtful-faced little lad resumed his duties.

In the course of the morning a rich and influential citizen called at the store. While conversing, he said, I have no children of my own, and I fear to adopt one. My experience is that a boy of twelve (the age I should prefer) is fixed in his habits, and if they are bad"—

"Stop!" said the merchant, "did you see that lad, yonder?"

"With that noble brow? Yes, what of him?"

"He is remarkable"—

"Yes, yes—that's what everybody tells me who have boys to dispose of. No doubt he will do well before your face. I've tried a good many, and have been deceived more than once."

"I was going to say," remarked the merchant calmly, "that he is remarkable for principle. Never have I known him to deviate from the right, sir—never. He would restore a pin; indeed, (the merchant colored,) he's a little too honest for my employ. He points out flaws in goods, and I cannot teach him prudence in that respect. Common prudence, you know, is—is—common—common—prudence—ahem!"

The stranger made no assent, and the merchant hurried on to say:—

"He is a parish orphan—taken by an old woman out of pity, when yet a babe. Poverty has been his lot. No doubt he has suffered from hunger and cold uncounted times; his hands have been frozen, so have his feet. Sir, that boy would have died rather than been dishonest. I can't account for it, upon my word I can't.

"Have you any claim upon him?"

"Not the least in the world, except what common benevolence offers. Indeed, the boy is entirely too good for me."

"Then I will adopt him; and if I have found one really honest boy, thank God."

The little fellow rode home in a carriage, and was ushered into a luxurious room; and he who sat shivering in a cold corner, listening to the words of a pious old creature who had been taught of the spirit, became one of the best and greatest divines that England ever produced.

THE CAMPHOR OF COMMERCE—A FACT TOUCHING IT.

Camphor is a vegetable gum, semi-transparent and colorless. It is exceedingly volatile. When exposed to the air it flies off in vapor. On account of its strong aromatic smell it is much used to preserve cabinets and clothes from moths and other insects. From its strong smell has arisen the idea that it is a preservative against infective disorders; as it is poisonous, disease is more liable from the camphor than from infection. Although camphor is dissolved in water only in a small quantity, sufficient, however, is taken up to give the water both its aromatic odor and bitter taste. If some shavings of camphor are thrown on the surface of perfectly clean water in a large basin, the pieces immediately begin to move rapidly, some round on their centres, others from place to place. The cause of these motions is unknown. Camphor exists in many plants, but is chiefly obtained from two—one a native of China and Japan, much resembling the laurel. It is obtained by chopping the leaves, branches, roots, &c., into small pieces and placing them in a still, with water. The other camphor tree is a native of Borneo and Sumatra. The camphor is obtained by splitting open the tree, when it is found in large pieces in the interior.

ACORN AND CHICORY COFFEE.

There is in Berlin, Prussia, according to a correspondent of the *United States Gazette*, a large establishment for the manufacture of coffee from acorns and chicory, the article being made separately from each. The chicory is mixed with an equal weight of turnips to render it sweeter. The acorn coffee, which is made from roasted and ground acorns, is sold in large quantities, and frequently with rather a medicinal than an economical view, as it is thought to have a wholesome effect upon the bloods particularly of scrofulous persons. Acorn coffee is, however, made and used in many parts of Germany for the sole purpose of adulterating genuine coffee, and has been imported into the United States for the same use, so that, no doubt, many persons who would shrink from knowingly drinking acorn coffee have actually drunk it under another name. If it be medicinal in its nature, as is said, the use of it ought to be encouraged. And at any rate, as it is healthy in its nature, and can be made very cheaply from the superabundance of acorns in our forests, it seems to recommend itself under certain circumstances as a substitute for coffee, the price of which would thereby be much reduced.

PROGRESS OF FREE TRADE IN EUROPE.

The friends of free trade in France have formed the plan of an extensive association—a free-trade league, somewhat resembling the corn law league in England. An application is published in the late Paris papers, with numerous signatures, addressed to the minister of the interior, asking that the signers may be permitted to form themselves into a society, the object of which is to convince the country of the great benefit to be derived to all classes from an extensive reduction of the customs tariff. Among the signatures for Paris are those of M. Carlier, ex-prefect of police, M. Michel Chevalier, M. Horace Say, several deputies, members of the Chamber of Commerce, judges of the tribunals, the two Pereires, and other capitalists, and many of them leading merchants and manufacturers. For Lyons the signatures are equally numerous and important. This is also the case for Limoges and Alsace; the principal manufacturers there are among the petitioners. For Havre there are very few signatures. Boulogne-sur-Mer is represented by M. Adam, the president of the Chamber of Commerce, and some of the principal manufacturers. Other petitions to the same effect, have, it is said, been drawn up at Marseilles, Bordeaux, and many of the great trading towns of France.

The doctrine of free-trade is making manifest progress in France; and every year embraces a greater number of the politicians as well as the writers of that country. It is said that the emperor himself favors the cause of free trade.

Meantime other countries of Europe are breaking, one by one, the fetters of the old commercial despotism. A letter published in the London *Times*, dated Turin, August 19th, announces that a treaty has been signed at that place by the representatives of the British and Sardinian governments, securing free access to the coasting trade of each country by the subjects of the other. It is said also, that a treaty with similar provisions has been ratified at Constantinople between Sardinia and Turkey.

CREDIT IN PARIS.

There is an anecdote which began twelve years ago, and the denouement of which has but lately occurred. The *Cafe Foy* has, or had, a standing rule never to call back or ask an explanation of any individual leaving the establishment without paying. The doctrine was, if the gentleman is merely forgetful, he will rectify the error the next day; if the omission is a swindle, it is better to suffer the loss than provoke publicity, and perhaps unpleasant consequences.

For five years an individual had breakfasted regularly at the *Cafe Foy*, and as regularly had acquitted his each morning's indebtedness. At last he omitted to do so, but no notice was taken of it. He went on in the same way for a week, but as he was a habitue of so long standing, it excited no uneasiness. The waiter finally asked the proprietor if he should remind the gentleman of his delinquency. "By no means," was the reply; "he has been punctual in his payments for five years, and if he is less so now, it is perhaps that he is in want of money. At any rate, do not let him suppose, by a look or word or any want of attention, that his recent irregularity has been noticed." At the end of eight months the gentleman disappeared, leaving his bill unsettled. It was put down to profit and loss, and in five years more had almost passed from the recollection of the master of the house. Not long ago he received from a distant port a shipment of genuine Moka, worth a thousand dollars, and a draft upon a Paris banker for eleven hundred francs, the approximate amount of two hundred and fifty breakfasts. The latter was a reimbursement—the former a "recognition of an act of delicacy, rare in any station in life."

A SAMPLE CLERK WANTED IN A DRUG STORE.

Jem B. is a wag. A joke to Jem is both food and raiment; and whenever and wherever there is an opening for fun, he has it.

Jem was recently in a drug store, when a youth, apparently fresh from the

"mounting," entered the store, and at once accosted Jem, stating that he was in search of a job.

"What kind of a job?" inquired the wag.

"Oh, a'most anything—I want to git a kind of a ginteel job; I'm tired o' farmin', an' kin turn my hand to most anything."

"Well, we want a man—a good, strong, healthy man, as sample clerk."

"What's the wages?"

"Wages are good; we pay $1,000 to a man in that situation."

"What's a fellow have to do?"

"Oh, merely to test medicines, that's all. It requires a stout man, one of good constitution, and after he gets used to it, he doesn't mind it. You see, we are very particular about the quality of our medicines, and before we sell any, we test every parcel. You would be required to take—say six or seven ounces of castor-oil some days, with a few doses of rhubarb, aloes, Croton-oil, and similar preparations. Some days you would not be required to take anything; but, as a general thing, you can count upon—say from six to ten doses of something daily. As to the work, that does not amount to much—the testing department would be the principal labor required of you; and, as I said before, it requires a person of very healthy organization to endure it; but you look hearty, and I guess you would suit us. That young man—pointing to a very pale-faced, slim-looking youth, who happened to be present—has filled the post for the past two weeks; but he is hardly stout enough to stand it. We should like to have you take right hold, if you are ready, and if you say so, we'll begin to-day. Here's a new barrel of castor-oil just come in; I'll go and draw an ounce——"

Here verdant, who had been gazing intently upon the slim youth, interrupted him with—

"N-no, no, I g-u-ess not; not to-day, anyhow. I'll go down and see my aunt; and ef I o'clude to come, I'll come up termorrer an' let you know."

As he did not return, it is to be supposed he considered the work too hard.

THE MATERIAL FOR ADULTERATING TEA.

There is scarcely an article known in Commerce exempt from the clever inventions of the dishonest dealer, either as maker or vendor. Some few months since sixty tons of one of these adulterious compounds, purporting to be Gunpowder Tea, was received in New York from San Francisco. The *Journal of Commerce* stated at the time that there was "not the least smell or taste of tea about it, but in *appearance* it is the most complete imitation we ever saw. It is probably thin paper rolled in mud; but in weight, color, and peculiar shape of the leaf, and everything else but *flavor*, it cannot be distinguished from the genuine article. Even the little bits of broken stones seen in good samples of Gunpowder Tea, are imitated to the life—apparently from the same material. Once mixed with genuine tea, the adulteration could hardly be discovered; and it may be well for dealers to keep a look-out as to the disposal of this invoice."

ICELAND A FIELD FOR COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE.

A correspondent of the London *Morning Chronicle* says that the Iceland papers exult in the new Free Trade Bill, and anticipate large Commerce, especially with England. As an instance, they state that in the last two years there has been an export from Iceland to England of 563 young horses, at an average of a guinea a piece; and this branch alone, which is quite in its infancy, can be indefinitely increased. In 1851 the population of Iceland amounted to 60,206. In 1842 there were 2,442 births, and 1,444 deaths; surplus of births over deaths, 998—total population, 61,204. This interesting country is therefore progressing favorably, and it only wants the kindly co-operation of English capital to advance rapidly. Its resources have hitherto been suffered to lie dormant. I (says the *Chronicle's* correspondent) can assure our countrymen that they will find this island a noble field for commercial operations. Its mines, sheep, horses, wool, fish, and a number of other articles, will give a large return for any trouble bestowed on them. Now that the old monopoly is broken up, it is to be hoped that our merchants will not allow this hint to escape them.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*Noctes Ambrosianæ.* By the late JOHN WILSON, Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh, Editor Blackwood's Magazine, author of the Isle of Palms, &c., and WM. MAGINN, LL. D, J. G. LOCKHART, JAMES HOGG, &c. With Memoirs and Notes. By R. SHELTON MACKENZIE, D. C. L., editor Shiel's "Sketches of the Irish Bar." 12mo., 5 vols., pp. 486, 432, 469, 468, 465. New York: J. S. Redfield.

This is beyond all question the most complete edition of the famous "Noctes Ambrosianæ" of Blackwood, which contributed so largely to the reputation of that celebrated repository of conservative literature and politics. The biographies of Wilson, Lockhart, Hogg and Maginn, the accredited authors of these sparkling scintillations of genius, wit and humor, and the copious notes and illustrations, so necessary to a true understanding of the allusions with which the work is crowded, and the personal satire it contains, are features which lend a value and interest to the work they could not otherwise possess. These have been prepared by Dr. Mackenzie, one of the best names in English literature, in the most scholarly and satisfactory manner. The History of the Rise and Progress of Blackwood's Magazine, from the pen of Dr. Mackenzie, is very properly introduced in connection with the papers that formed so unique a feature of that work. The volumes are illustrated with first rate engravings of the distinguished writers of the "Noctes." Mr. Redfield, the liberal and enterprising publisher, has produced the work in a form and style that must commend it to every library gatherer in this country. It may and must be regarded as the only complete library edition of the work that has been or is likely to be published on this side the Atlantic.

2.—*Woodcraft:* or Hawks About the Dovecot. A Story of the South at the Close of the Revolution. By WILLIAM GILMORE SIMMS, Esq., author of "The Partisan's "Mellichampe," "Katharine Walton," "The Scout," "The Yemasse," "Guy Rivers," &c. 12mo., pp. 518. New York: J. S. Redfield.

The American people are greatly indebted to Mr. Redfield for producing in a substantial style a handsome library edition of the complete works of the most distinguished novelist of the "sunny South." The present story is one of a series connected with the events of the great American revolution. It was first published some years since, and has probably received the final revision of the author. Without making any comparison, we may be allowed to remark, that the historical and other romances of Mr. Simms are deserving of a high rank in our purely American literature. The South, nay, more, the American nation, may well be proud of possessing a novelist and poet so capable of illustrating their history.

3.—*The Writings of Thomas Jefferson;* being his Autobiography, Correspondence, Reports, Messages, Addresses, and other Writings, Official and Private, published by order of the Joint Committee of Congress on the Library, from the Original Manuscripts deposited in the Department of State, with Explanatory Notes, Tables of Contents, and a Copious Index to each volume, as well as a General Index to the whole. By H. A. WASHINGTON. Vols. 3, 4 and 5, 8vo., pp. 599, 597 and 612. New York: Riker, Thorne & Co.

The third, fourth and fifth volumes of the present collection of the varied writings of Jefferson, include the letters written while in Europe, from 1784 to 1790, and the letters written after his return to the United States down to his death, in 1826. We have given in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, some account of the character of this great national work, and we repeat the title above as it gives a concise and comprehensive description of the contents of the volumes published. The complete writings of Jefferson should be read by all who desire to understand the history and philosophy of our free democratic institutions, and become familiar with the mind and character of their great exponent. The nine or ten volumes which will include the larger part of the most interesting and important writings of Mr. Jefferson, must be regarded as indispensable to every public library. We have ever regarded Mr. Jefferson, in his views and opinions, as far in advance of the statesmen of his time, and but comparatively few in our own day have attained so commanding an eminence in the science of popular government and democratic institutions.

4.—*A Compendium of the Theological and Spiritual Writings of Emanuel Swedenborg:* being a Systematic and Orderly Epitome of all his Religious Works; selected from more than thirty volumes, and embracing all his Fundamental Principles, with copious Illustrations and Teachings. With an appropriate Introduction, prefaced by a Full Life of the author; with a brief view of all his Works on Science, Philosophy and Theology. 8vo., pp. 574. Boston: Crosby & Nichols. New York: Fowlers & Wells.

The contents and character of this large and handsome volume are concisely and comprehensively described in the title page, as above quoted. In its preparation Professor Bronson, who is understood to be compiler, brought to the labor an earnest devotion to the views and principles of the Swedish Seer, combined with a thorough knowledge of his voluminous writings, religious and philosophical, as well as good taste and sound judgment. The writings of Swedenborg are quite voluminous, and his spiritual works abound in repetitions; and it appears to be the object of Mr. B. in this collection to avoid these, and furnish the reader with a comprehensive compendium of the writings of a man, whom the compiler regards as "the most transcendent luminary that has ever yet shone upon the world." He was certainly one of the most extraordinary men that have ever lived. We acknowledge our obligations to Dr. Bronson for culling from the works of his author just what we, and nine-tenths of Swedenborg's readers, will be glad to possess. Swedenborg, in his day, divided the readers of his writings into five classes. The first, he said, neglected them entirely, because they are in another persuasion, or because they are in no faith. The second receive them as scientifics, or as objects of mere curiosity; the third receive them intellectually, and are in some measure pleased with them; the fourth in a persuasive manner; and the fifth, he concludes, receive them with delight, and confirm them in their lives. To these several classes we commend the present volume, and particularly to those who are in ignorance of the character of his remarkable writings on subjects of the deepest interest to the human race.

5.—*The Rhyme and Reason of Country Life;* or Selections from Fields Old and New. By the author of "Rural Hours," etc., etc. 8vo., pp. 428. New York: G. P Putnam & Co.

Miss Cooper, a daughter of the celebrated American novelist of that name, has evinced, in the preparation of this really unique volume, all the characteristics of a successful book-maker. Correct taste, sound judgment, with a full appreciation of "the good, the beautiful and the true," in country life, are displayed in every page of the present work. The selections here embodied relate to one subject only—but that comprehends a very wide sphere—that of rural life. She has explored its many different fields, old and new, and gathered and grouped all the variety from them that the most capacious spirit could desire. In it she has brought together, classified and arranged cleverly, many beautiful passages from the best writers, mingled with others interesting rather from their quaintness and oddity, or their antiquity. Not only have the poets of our own tongue in England and America, been laid under contribution for the reader's amusement, but translations from some dozen different languages have also been introduced.

6.—*Martin Merrivale* X *his Mark.* By Paul Crayton. 12mo. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co. New York: J. C. Derby.

This story, after the manner of Dickens and other writers of the day, "is being" published in semi-monthly parts. The hero of the story, an ambitious youth from the country, who, coming poor and inexperienced to the city, attempts to earn a livelihood and win a name in literary pursuits. In tracing his varied fortunes the author gives us some amusing and characteristic sketches of life and society, with some clever touches of humor and satire. The previous writings of "Paul Crayton" have been extensively read and very generally admired. Many of his delineations would not detract from the fame of a Dickens.

7.—*Letters from Rome, A. D.* 138. By the author of "Clouds and Sunshine," "Spiritual Visitors," etc. 12mo., pp. 239. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This we take it is an imaginary correspondence between distinguished Romans. The volume contains twenty letters from Marcus Sextorius to Lucius Virginius, Marcellina to Octavia, Publius to Caius, Julia to Valeria, and others. The author's epistolary style is easy and graceful, and the series of letters may serve as a suggestive model for friendly and familiar correspondence.

8.—*The Parables of the New Testament Practically Unfolded.* By Rev. William Bacon Stevens, D. D., Rector of St. Andrews, Philadelphia. Elegantly Illustrated. Royal 8vo., pp. 326. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler.

The parable has ever been regarded as one of the most agreeable and attractive methods of conveying to the mind the salutary lessons of wisdom and truth. It conveys the latter in a less offensive or more engaging form than that of direct assertion. In using parables as the Media of instruction, the Great Teacher of the New Testament conformed to the usage of all preceding ages, and to the constitution of the human mind. The design of the volume before us, as its title indicates, is a practical unfolding of the impressive parables of Christ, as we find them recorded in the writings of the Apostles. The author does not give the explanations of various writers, nor store up in his pages the treasures of exegetical criticism, as such a plan would have made his work less acceptable to the popular mind, which he specially aims to reach, enlighten, and expand. The publisher, aided by the artist, has produced a book of great beauty, fitly designed as a gift for the approaching Christmas and New Year. It has, however, a perennial value, and like the parables it illustrates, will stand the test of time.

9.—*Elocution;* or Mental and Vocal Philosophy: embracing the Principles of Reading and Speaking, and designed for the Development and Cultivation of both Body and Mind, in accordance with the Nature, Uses, and Destiny of Man, etc., etc. By Professor C. P. Bronson, A. M., M. D. 8vo., pp. 384. Boston: Otis Clapp and Crosby, Nichols & Co.

This volume contains all that its title indicates, and forms altogether one of the most unique and instructive works of the kind we have ever seen. It is not a mere dry treatise on the elementary principles of elocution; it is a treatise on elocution, and in our judgment a good one; but it is more—it embodies a fund of information, wisdom and philosophy, the earnest study of which cannot well fail of enlarging the mind, and elevating its moral and mental faculties. Some idea of its contents may be learned, when we state that the volume contains near three hundred choice anecdotes; three thousand oratorical and poetical readings; five thousand proverbs, maxims, and laconics, and several hundred engravings. The present edition (the fortieth thousand) has been revised and corrected, with large additions, embracing original and selected dialogues and speeches. It is just such a book as we desire to see widely circulated among the young men of America.

10.—*A Journey to Central Africa:* or Life and Landscape from Egypt to the Negro Kingdoms of the White Nile. By Bayard Taylor. With a Map and Illustrations by the author. 12mo., pp. 522. New York: George P. Putnam & Co.

Books of travel are as "plenty as blackberries," to use an old saw, which is not always correct, unless indeed, "the exception proves the rule." Mr. Taylor, in choosing fresh fields, and paths which few had trodden before him, evinced his usual good sense and sound judgment. Those, however, who have read his other books of travel, would scarcely need a recommendation to induce them to take up anything from his graphic pen. His pure and beautiful style, and his ready perception of whatever is interesting in "life" or pleasing in "landscape," gives a value to whatever path he attempts to portray. The present volume is not wanting in the characteristics that constitute the readable and the agreeable traveler. It is a model in its way, and as such we commend it to all who would be amused and instructed at the same time.

11.—*Poems.* By Thomas William Parsons. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

Dr. Parsons evinces much true poetic power and imaginative faculties of a high order. There is classic beauty in some of his productions. His style at times, has been likened to Milton, yet he has originality. This volume contains some fifty pieces on varied subjects, grave and gay; one on the death of Daniel Webster, and the Hudson River, are fine productions. Several addresses written for theatrical inaugurations are included in the collection. The poets of America have in this author one of their most brilliant stars.

12.—*Uncle Jerry's Letters to Young Mothers.* Compiled by Anna E. Porter. 18mo., pp. 144. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

This book contains some useful hints on the physical, moral, and intellectual training of children, the necessity of a personal supervision, and other subjects interesting to mothers.

13.—*Ornaments of Memory;* or Beauties of History, Romance and Poetry. With Eighteen Engravings, from Original Designs. 4to., pp. 189. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Historical events, embellished with the best efforts of the novelist's art, it is well remarked, have long been a favorite study with the lovers of polished literature. We treasure up passages of our favorite authors, and remember and dwell upon them with pleasure. Taking advantage of this taste, or passion, the editor of the volume before us has given what may be esteemed the "Ornaments of Memory," richly illustrated with choice gems of history, romance and poetry, and embellished with eighteen fine engravings on steel, drawn from some of the best specimens of the painter's art, and which may well challenge comparison with any which have ever been executed. Among the engraved illustrations we notice faithful copies from the paintings of Cole, Leutze, Durand, Ranney, Hinckley, and other American artists of merit. On the whole the volume embodies some of the purest productions of the pen, with plates from paintings of a high order of artistic skill. It is a fitting "ornament" of "memory," and well may grace the center table of every "family circle" in which culture, taste, refinement, and a love of the beautiful predominate.

14.—*The Meaning of Words:* analyzed into Words and Verbal Things, and Unverbal Things classified into Intellections, Sensations, and Emotions. By A. B. Johnson, author of a "Treatise on Banking," "Religion in its Relations to the Present Life," etc., etc. 12mo., pp. 256. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

It is out of the question, in the little space allotted to our "book-trade" notices, to give our readers anything like an adequate idea of the contents or character of this volume, and we should do the author great injustice were we to make the attempt. Mr. Johnson possesses an eminently sound, acute, philosophical, and analytical mind, and is very clever in the treatment of every subject he attempts to discuss. His style is terse, vigorous, and original. These characteristics of mind and manner mark every page and paragraph of the present work. We trust, however, the reader of this notice will not take our word in the matter, but examine for himself, as we feel quite sure he will add much to his store of information by so doing; that is, if he have any taste for the study of "words," which Mr. J. has so ingeniously "analyzed" into "unverbal things," &c. The importance of the treatise will be apparent to all who agree with Blair, who truly says, that in learning to arrange words correctly, we are learning to think correctly.

15.—*Jerusalem and its Vicinity;* A Series of Familiar Lectures on the Sacred Localities connected with the Week before the Resurrection. By W. H. Odenheimer, M. A., Rector of St. Peter's Church, Philadelphia. 12mo., pp. 218. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

Six lectures connected with the week before the resurrection as observed in the Episcopal and Catholic Churches. The author follows the plan of the Gospels. Without following the chronological arrangement of events selected for each day, he conveys in a systematic form what he conceives to be appropriate spiritual instruction, as well as topographical information, connecting his references to "Storied scenes, and haunts of sacred lore." He has visited the places in "Holy Land" he so gracefully describes. The volume is charmingly illustrated with appropriate engravings, and forms altogether a beautiful gift book for the approaching Christmas, or any other season of the year. It possesses a perennial value and interest.

16.—*The Pastor's Wedding Gift.* By Wm. M. Thayer, author of "Hints for the Household," "Spots in our Hearts of Charity." 18mo., pp. 108. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

This is a pretty little gift-book, beautifully printed on fine paper, and will do very well for a present from clergymen to married couples. It contains advice to the married, and several poems of some merit on "Love," "Hope," and "Broken Ties;" also the "Bachelor's Soliloquy," &c.

17.—*Reginald Lyle.* By Miss Pardoe, author of "The Life of Marie de Medicis," "Louis the Fourteenth and the Court of France," "Confessions of a Pretty Woman," &c. 12mo., pp. 342. New York: Burgess & Day,

The novels of Miss Pardoe have had numerous readers. Her descriptive and narrative powers are of a high order; and those who have read one of her books, will be very apt to read more.

18.—*Biography of the Rev. Hosea Ballou.* By his Youngest Son, MATURIN M. BALLOU, 12mo., pp. 404. Boston: Abel Tompkins.

Mr. Ballou was one of the earliest in Boston to preach the doctrine of Universal Salvation. We heard him twenty-five or thirty years ago, when we were a mere boy, and although we have not from that time to his death, we are glad to possess these memorials of his life and character. The biography, a simple and apparently faithful narrative of facts, is a beautiful tribute of filial affection—a tribute worthily paid by the scholarly author to the father who instilled into his mind the love of learning. The author aims to illustrate "the harmony of a Christian character, the daily beauty of whose life accorded with that of his public career; through whose existence religion ran like a silver thread, linking all its component parts together." The unprejudiced and liberal of every sect may read the book with equal pleasure and profit.

19.—*Famous Persons and Places.* By N. P. WILLIS. 12mo., pp. 492. New York: Charles Scribner.

No writer of the present day so gracefully and so graphically portrays persons and places as the author of these sketches of scenes and society. In the "whim of the hour," its manners, fashions, and those ephemeral trifles, which constitute, in a great measure, the "form and pressure" of all that is noteworthy in this moving, living world, Mr. Willis excels all his cotemporaries, and, to the "best of our knowledge and belief," all his predecessors. His genius, taste, discrimination, truthfulness, and philosophy, (and he has an abundance of the last, as well as the first-named quality,) permeate every page and paragraph of his polished pen. Every editorial in the "Home Journal" is well worth preserving, and will form in all time, part and parcel of the literature of the nineteenth century.

20.—*Fruits and Farinacea the Proper Food of Man;* being an Attempt to Prove from History, Anatomy, Physiology and Chemistry, that the Original, Natural, and Best Diet of Man is derived from the Vegetable Kingdom. By JOHN SMITH. With Notes and Illustrations. By R. T. TRALL, M. D. From the second London edition. 12mo., pp. 314. New York: Fowlers & Wells.

The design of this work is concisely stated in the title quoted above. The views advocated differ widely from the various writers of the past on dietetics, and are at variance with the habits and customs of society. It is nevertheless an interesting and suggestive treatise, evincing considerable research, and pleasurable, to say the least, arguments. As a compendium of the evidences and reasonings on the whole subject of diet, it is as full and complete as the number of pages into which it is compressed will permit.

21.—*The Evidences of Christianity,* as exhibited in the Writings of its Apologists down to Augustine. Hulsean Prize Essay. By W. J. BOLTON, Professor in Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. 12mo., pp. 302. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

The work before us received the Hulsean prize in England in 1852—a prize conferred annually for many years, and originally established by a legacy from the Rev. John Hulse, of Elsworth, in 1777. The essay is divided into six "arguments." These are drawn from antecedent probability, from antiquity, prophecy, miracles, superior morality, the reasonableness of the doctrine, and finally from the success of the gospel. The work displays research and learning, and will, no doubt, be acceptable to those who require other evidence than their own consciousness of the truth and excellence of Christianity.

22.—*Sister Agnes;* or the Captive Nun. A Picture of Convent Life. By a Clergyman's Widow, author of "The Orphan's Friend," "The Widow's Friend," &c. 12mo. pp. 412. New York: Riker, Thorne & Co.

This tale, by an English lady, contains what purports to be an exposition of Jesuitism and of nunneries unveiled, and is written in the desire of inducing persons to pause before entering such places, and of adding an impetus to the movement in England for obtaining an efficient inspection and control of British nunneries.

23.—*Tender Grass for Little Lambs.* By Rev. CORNELIUS WINTER BOLTON. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

Six stories of a religious character, as will be inferred from the titles, viz.: 1, Temptation; 2, Redemption; 3, Repentance; 4, Faith; 5, the Song of the Angels; 6, the Resurrection of the Body.

24.—*The Angel of the Household.* By T. S. ARTHUR. 12mo., pp. 211. Boston: L. P. Crown & Co.

A simple domestic story, beautifully illustrating the power of kindness upon the human heart. The angel of the household, in the form of an infant, comes to a home which was before all strife and ill temper, and with her unconscious influence becomes a real blessing to its inmates. The love and innocence which the little foundling diffuses around her, and calls out, from the care extended towards her, causes a complete reformation in this abode of contention. The bad effects of scandal are shown, and how much injury a single individual may do by indulging in that sin, which is so frequently the bane of society. Many of the scenes in the story, particularly those interviews of the village gossip with her neighbors, are finely delineated. It is a story exposing the prevalent foibles of social and domestic life, and cannot fail in its mission, to do good. The reader, while enjoying the story, will be impressed with its simplicity and truthfulness.

25.—*Outlines of History:* Illustrated by numerous Geographical and Historical Notes and Maps. 8vo., pp. 845. New York: Ivison & Phinney.

The author of this work has given, we should judge, a judiciously arranged general history, in which he has embodied the results of the best modern writers with very considerable success. The author has endeavored to bring out conspicuously the more important nations, grouping around them as lesser lights those of minor greatness. The work is supplied with copious historical and geographical notes, and in addition to the general analysis given in the table of contents, a rather minute one of each chapter or section. The author in speaking of the "Philosophy of History," disclaims any other merit than that of having laboriously gathered and analyzed the results of the researches of others, and reconstructed them with some degree of unity of plan, and for a good purpose, into these forms of his own.

26.—*The Wide Awake Gift and Know Nothing Token for* 1855. Edited by "ONE OF 'EM." 12mo., pp. 312. New York: J. C. Derby. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

This volume contains extracts from the speeches of eminent Americans, and papers on subjects of a national character, together with articles advocating the principles of the new organization called "Know Nothings." There are also scattered through the book poems and national songs. The Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, and the words of Webster, Chief Justice Marshall, Bancroft, Sparks, and Everett appropriately find a place, and we should like also to say that the Token contained something more of the gallant Harry Clay's than a text to an article on "American Women," from that able and spirited press, the New York Mirror, which, by the way, has furnished several pieces for this compilation.

27.—*New Receipts for Cooking.* By Miss LESLIE. Comprising all the New and Approved Methods. 12mo., pp. 520. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson.

The name of Miss Leslie is a sufficient assurance of the value of this book on cooking. She has published heretofore one or two works on cookery and housewifery, which have been very successful. The present volume contains over one thousand new and tried receipts for cooking and for the preparation of domestic liquors, perfumery, remedies, laundry and needle work; also rules for the preparation of meals, with appropriate combinations of dishes for each meal, the whole comprising a vast amount of useful information pertaining to domestic economy.

28.—*Fitz-Harold;* or the Temptation. Altered and Enlarged from the German. By SARAH A. MYERS. New York: Robert Carter & Brother.

This is a religious story, designed to entertain young readers as well as to instruct them. It aims to show how sin, clothed in the garb of virtue, assaults and sometimes overcomes one of good principles and careful training, and illustrates how out of the mouths of babes and sucklings truth has been ordained.

29.—*The Rat Catcher;* or the Magic Fife. A Story of the Olden Time. By GUSTAVE MERITZ. Translated from the German by Mrs. R. C. Conant. 18mo., pp. 155. New York: Charles Scribner.

A characteristically German magical tale, and one that has amused the children of Germany in one form or another for the last half century, and in its English dress will, no doubt, equally delight the children of America.

30.—*Rural Life in England.* By WILLIAM HOWITT, author of "Visits to Remarkable Places," etc., etc. In two volumes, 376 and 372. Philadelphia: Parry & M'Millan, successors to A. Hart.

The descriptions of the life of the aristocracy and the English agricultural population, the picturesque and moral features of the country, the sketch of the habits, amusements, and condition of the people, are happily drawn. A great portion of the author's life from boyhood has been amid rural scenes, and he has visited every section of the country, and witnessed domestic life in lordly halls and humble cottages. He has visited the valleys, the mountains, and the sea-coast, surveying the lankmarks of the past, and noting living men, manners, and things. Mr. Howitt quotes Willis' description of English aristocratical life, as one of the most perfect and graphic descriptions ever written.

31.—*Our Honeymoon*, and other Comicalities from Punch. 12mo., pp. 571. New York; Stringer & Townsend.

This book contains a selection of some of the choice and sparkling productions that have appeared in the mirth-provoking "Punch," that well-known journal, devoted to wit and humor, which has enlisted among its contributors the most eminent writers of England, such as Dickens, Thackeray, Mark Timon, Douglass Jerrold, and poor Tom Hood. From each of these named authors it has been the aim in this volume to select such productions as would best convey to the reader an idea of the style and peculiarities of each. The illustrations are by J. W. Orr, a New Yorker, and reflect considerable credit on American art. It is the intention of the publishers to issue other similar volumes of choice matter which appears in Punch from time to time.

32.—*The Hearth-Stone:* Thoughts upon Home-life in our Cities. By SAMUEL OSGOOD, author of "Studies on Christian Biography," "God with Men, or Footprints of Providential Leaders," &c. 12mo., pp. 318. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We have in this volume a series of essays on home-life subjects, in which the author exhibits the home affections and virtues in a manner at once agreeable and impressive. The several topics here discussed are more or less closely connected with a year's life in the household. The author is a popular preacher among the Unitarians, and many of the ideas embraced in this volume have been expressed in the lyceum and the pulpit in a different form. Conspicuous and controverted questions, though not avoided, are treated in a kindly spirit, and above the reach of sect and party.

33.—*The Poetical Works of Mark Akenside.* Edited, with a Life, by Rev. ALEXANDER DYCE. 18mo., pp. 452. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. New York: Evans & Dickerson.

Another of the series of British Poets, and the best library edition that has been published in this country. The series embraces the entire productions of the most celebrated authors, and selections from the minor poets. They are printed in a very superior style and on beautiful paper, and should form part of the library of every man of taste. No poem of so elevated and abstracted a kind was ever so popular as the "Pleasures of the Imagination," and is still read with admiration by lovers of pure poetic conception. Dr. Akenside was a zealous votary of Grecian philosophy and classic literature, and an ardent lover of liberty.

34.—*Happy Hours at Hazel Nook;* or Cottage Stories. By HARRIET FARLEY. 12mo. pp. 256. Boston: Dayton & Wentworth.

This work contains twelve stories, related by a family circle, and each story commented on by the children of the family. They are written in an entertaining, imaginative style, well calculated to find a large class of readers. Some of them are fairy tales, with good morals, both amusing and instructive. The work is embellished with fourteen illiustrations by the best artists in America; these make it quite attractive. The simple yet spirited style of the stories will interest the mature, and delight and fascinate the youthful mind.

35.—*Herman and Dorothea.* From the German of Goethe. Translated by THOMAS CONRAD POTTER. 18mo., pp. 168. New York: Riker, Thorne & Co.

This is one of the delicious poems of the great German bard Goethe, translated into English prose, the original verse being hexameter, which is almost unmanageable in our tongue. Of course then, we have only the beautiful creation of genius divested of its poetical clothing, but it is beautiful still. The mechanical execution of this book is creditable.

36.—*Illustrations of Genius*, in some of its Relations to Culture and Society. By HENRY GILES, author of "Lectures and Essays." 18mo., pp. 362. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

The friends and admirers of the Rev. Henry Giles in various parts of the country, who have thronged to hear him in lecture-rooms, and have hung fascinated upon his eloquent tongue, will peruse this volume with delight. Mr. Giles is a bold, original thinker, and writes in an elegant, earnest style. Possessed of a fine imagination and much scholarship, with a large and liberal knowledge of human nature, a devotee at the shrines of goodness, beauty, truth, and genius, these essays on realities and idealities have a peculiar charm. The volume embraces papers on Cervantes, Don Quixotte, The Scarlet Letter, Fiction, Public Opinion, The Philanthropic Sentiment, Music, The Cost of a Cultivated Man, Conversation, Wordsworth, Robert Burns, Thomas de Quincy. We may at times differ with the author in sentiment, but cannot but be pleased with his enthusiasm, and appreciate the vigor and beauty of his style. There is much of the poetic in Mr. Giles.

37.—*The Turkish Empire:* Its History, Statistical, and Religious Condition; also, its Manners, Customs, etc. By ALFRED DE BESSE, Member of the Embassay at Constantinople. Translated, Revised, and Enlarged, (from the fourth German edition,) with Mémoirs of the Reigning Sultan, Omer Pacha, the Turkish Cabinet, etc. By EDWARD JOY MORRIS, late United State Charge d'Affairs at Naples. 12mo., pp. 216. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blackiston.

The translation of this work has given in a concise form the matters indicated in the title. In order to render the original work more complete, he has embodied portions of celebrated French writings on Turkey and Constantinople, and some original matter, which his own travels suggested, and made him acquainted with. Mr. Morris has performed satisfactorily the labor for which he is so competent.

38.—*Gan Eden, or Pictures of Cuba.* 12mo., pp. 235. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

A glowing, lively description of fair Cuba. Its enchanting natural beauties are vividly described in a style as luxuriant at times as tropical foliage. The character and manners of the people, the peculiarities and deformities of things, the brief literary history of the Eden of the Gulf, and the question of its acquisition to the United States, are touched on. The author has not attempted a history or gazetteer, but has sketched the sights and reproduced the thoughts which he had while there, with such perspicuity as to convey to the mind a most vivid and distinct idea of that "Garden of Delight;" He has truly produced "pictures." and choice ones too.

39.—*The Captains of the Roman Republic as Compared with the Great Modern Strategists;* their Campaigns, Character and Conduct, from the Punic Wars to the Death of Cæsar. By HENRY WILLIAM HERBERT. New York: Charles Scribner.

The author of this work has already published "The Captains of the Old World," a work which was well received by the public. This volume furnishes the memoirs and a critical analysis of the great military leaders of another age. Many readers will be surprised at Mr. Herbert's opinion that before Publius Cornelius Scipio there was no Roman deserving of the title of Great Captain. That the success of many of the Roman generals was due to the valor and peculiar organization of the people rather than to the peculiar merits of their leaders, is probably the fact. These biographies indicate much research, and are the production of an erudite, critical student of history. This volume, we are informed, will be followed by others of a similar character.

40.—*The American Cottage Builder.* A Series of Designs, Plans, and Specifications, from $200 to $20,000, for Homes for the People. By JOHN BULLOCK, Architect, Civil Engineer, and Editor of the "History and Rudiments of the Art of Building." 8vo, pp. 326. New York: Stringer & Townsend.

The third of a series of publications on architectural subjects, containing designs of dwellings, from the lowly cot to the costly palace, with estimates as to cost, and with plans of different styles and suited to various localities—the village, the suburbs of the city, and the prairie. The author is a man of good taste, and the book, although of a practical character, has some general remarks on the position and difficulties of the artist in chapters on "The Artist's Calling." The engravings are well executed and the typographical appearance is very fine.