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HUNT'S
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AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

MAY, 1855.

Art. I.—THE COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA :

CONSIDERED WITH REGARD TO ITS BEARING ON THE EASTERN QUESTION.

RUSSIA proposes to restore to the Black Sea the high commercial importance which it enjoyed in antiquity, causing the reflux of the precious merchandise, both of Asia and Central and Eastern Europe. In order to realize this grand project, she has for one hundred and fifty years sought occasions to make war upon the Ottoman Empire. She now undertakes to drive the Turks out of Europe, to seize Constantinople, to subject Persia, and extend her dominions to the frontiers of India and China.

To have a clear idea of the Eastern question, it is necessary to take a retrospective view of past ages, and study the history of the Commerce of the Black Sea from remote times until the present day; retrace its vicissitudes; the influence it has exerted on the destiny of nations; the course it has taken, and the relations it has created between the nations of the extreme Eastern and Western World.

At an early period the Commerce of the Black Sea attracted navigators, who visited it to explore its resources. The initiative is attributed to the Phœnicians, who, two thousand years previous to the Christian Era, possessed a flourishing marine. Homer describes them to us as visiting all the coast of Greece and Asia Minor in the twelfth century. Antique legends attribute to them the establishment of numerous colonies in the islands at the entrance of the Dardanelles. It is also well known that the Phœnicians were a commercial people. Historians attribute to them the foundation of several cities on the southern side of the Black Sea. Indeed, Ezekiel speaks of them as bringing their slaves from Georgia, their horses, mules, and mercenary soldiers from Armenia, at an epoch six cen-

turies anterior to Christ. In ante-historical times, the Cretans, who had a powerful marine, extended their Commerce to the Black Sea; also the Pelasgians, who founded the opulent city of Troy, almost at the entrance of the Dardanelles. There was another people in those remote times who were also worthy of notice. They were the Colchians. The establishment at the foot of the Caucasus, the cradle of the white race, of a black or rather mulatto color, who were able to perpetuate and maintain themselves in the conquered country as late as the third or fourth century of the Christian Era, is an eminently curious fact. What revolution, what necessity, or what interest could have transported the Colchians to the borders of the Phasis? All the writers of antiquity believed them to be a detachment of the army with which Sesostris invaded Upper Asia. The Colchians declared themselves to be of Egyptian origin, to Herodotus.

This fact admitted, it would seem that Sesostris left this body of troops in the Caucasus for a military object. It is, however, probable that he was also influenced by commercial considerations, for he had sent previously a fleet of three hundred vessels into the Red Sea, and had conquered all the coasts of Asia and of India. Such an expedition could have no other than a commercial object. It is therefore probable that he left this detachment of troops with a view to intercept the Commerce of Upper Asia by the Black Sea, and force it to pass by caravans through Egypt, where he sought at the same time to attract that of Southern Asia. This supposition becomes probable when we reflect upon the deadly struggles which took place afterwards between the Pharaohs and the kings of Babylon and Nineveh, who endeavored to prevent the Commerce of India from reaching Egypt through the Red Sea.

The Colchians became independent, and so rich by their Commerce, that their kings, according to Pliny, had their apartments lined with gold, and their ceilings supported by pillars of silver. It is certain that an active Commerce existed between India and the Black Sea from the most remote antiquity.

An emigrant people always love to surround themselves with the souvenirs of their fatherland. We always see them giving to the rivers and mountains of the country in which they establish themselves, the names of those in the country where they have left the tombs of their fathers. Geographical names are an indestructible indication by which, when historical facts are wanting, we can trace the origin of a people and their relations. Thus, we find in the ancient geography of Colchidia and the neighboring country, names which take us immediately to India, and especially to Penjab. That is a proof that commercial relations existed between India and the Black Sea. In the thirteenth century before Jesus Christ, the Greeks began to navigate the seas bordering upon their country. Piracy is one of the characteristics of the heroic ages. Ulysses, in the *Odyssey*, boasts of skimming the *Ægean Sea*.

Colchidia, so flourishing at a time when Greece was still barbarous, naturally excited the cupidity of those petty chiefs who called themselves the descendants of the gods. Not daring to trust themselves in their fragile vessels, to make a long voyage, they were content to pillage small Phœnician and Cretan vessels, which came from the mouth of the Phasis. But in time they gained courage; and passing the Hellespont, penetrated as far as the Dardanelles and the Black Sea, casting an eager glance over the space which still separated them from Colchidia, which they desired

not to conquer, but to pillage. The history of the Argonauts, and of their numerous descents upon the Asiatic shores, presents us with a series of *coups de main*, and of expeditions which finally resulted in the accomplishment of what they had so long desired—a landing upon the shores of the Phasis, followed by the pillage of isolated establishments.

The episode of Medea shows the high state of civilization which Colchidia enjoyed at that time. The enthusiasm with which the success of the Argonauts was received in Greece, proves that it responded to a national want of expansion, the necessity of a new horizon. The Black Sea was open to them, but the navigation was not entirely free so long as the power of Troy was not humbled. The Greeks formed a coalition against the city of Priam, and Illium fell after a siege of ten years, or rather a long series of unsuccessful attempts constantly renewed.

From this date the Greeks carried on the Commerce of the Black Sea, which daily grew in consequence. About the year 1040, Ionian and Pelasgian emigrants established themselves on the Mediterranean shores of Asia Minor, and took possession of Miletus. In imitation of the example of the Carians, their descendants followed Commerce so successfully that, between the years 700 and 500, they became, after Tyre and Carthage, the most commercial people in the world. The Phocians and Migarians also took an active part in the great commercial movement, and founded colonies in the Black Sea.

The Milesians always preserved an immense superiority over the others, and acted the part of protectors to the Greeks of the Euxine, who were often exposed to the attacks of the barbarians. The Black Sea had already changed its name, and was called by the Hellenites the "Hospitable Sea." The Greeks built fortified commercial establishments at the mouth of all the rivers. The Milesians penetrated as far the Sea of Azoff, where they built Tanais—the celebrated Tanais of the Egyptians—a situation of great commercial importance, now occupied by the city of Azoff. By the Danube, the Pruth, the Dniester, the Bog, and the Dneiper, the Greeks received wool, the skins of animals, and furs. The Crimea and Kouban furnished them with an abundance of wheat. They took large quantities of fish from the Sea of Azoff. The country situated between the Cimmerian Bosphorus and the Caucasus, furnished them with salt. The Paphlagonians organized the hunting of men, and furnished them with thousands of slaves. We must add the Oriental productions, which were of great importance to the branches of Commerce already mentioned. The Greeks made great efforts to facilitate and increase Oriental Commerce. It was evidently for this object that they founded in the mountainous countries, which separated Colchis from the Caspian Sea, and even on the borders of that sea, the numerous cities of Greek origin, whose existence is testified by ancient geographers, and which were probably at first only fortified posts. Such, among others, was the immense citadel of Sarapan, where the caravans stopped after four days' march, carrying the precious merchandise which arrived by the Caspian to Cyrus. These establishments dated from a most remote period. They have been attributed to the Argonauts, who were also said to have joined the Syros and the Araxes to the Caspian, for at first these two rivers, arrested in their course by a mountain, formed a great lake, without any communication with the sea. It appears doubtful, whether a work of such magnitude could have

only been executed by the princes of the country, interested in aiding the Commerce which enriched them.

From the time of the Phœnicians silks came to Europe by the Black Sea. This assertion might appear uncertain at first, but it rests upon positive proof, for the inhabitants of the Isle of Cos had manufactures of silk from the time of Aristotle, four centuries before Jesus Christ! The Milesians, after having made themselves masters of the most important points of the "Pont Euxin," saw clearly that their Commerce would become both more stable and more active, if they could gain a political importance in the country. There were already numerous colonies grouped about the Bosphorus, forming a compact population, which, becoming prosperous, ruled over a part of the Crimea and beyond the Bosphorus. The Milesians, placing themselves at the head of a revolt against the Persians, being illy seconded, had their fleet destroyed, and lost their city. The inhabitants were put to the sword, except a small number who were transported to the Persian Gulf. This disaster was a fatal blow to the Commerce of the Black Sea. Afterwards the country was governed by kings, who neglecting Commerce, developed in a remarkable degree its agricultural resources. While the kingdom of the Bosphorus flourished under the Leuconidas princes, the city of Chersonesus, founded by the Heraclides, ruled the other extremity of the Crimea, and enjoyed a great prosperity. Divisions arising in the interior of these States, they became enfeebled, and their king, consulting the interests of his people, abdicated in favor of Mithradates Eupator. At the same time, the other Greek establishments, situated on the eastern and northern shores of the Black Sea, suffered from continual attacks made upon them by the barbarians. From the year 334 to the year 332 before our era, the whole face of the world was changed by the genius and the audacity of a young man, who died before the completion of his thirty-third year. Alexander, with a handful of soldiers, conquered Asia Minor, Phœnicia, Judea, Egypt, Persia, and a part of India.

There have been many suppositions as to the object which the Macedonian hero had in view. We shall only consider it in a commercial light. The foundation of Alexandria is a fact which does not call for a commentary. Alexander opened to Europe the Commerce of the Indian seas and of Eastern Africa by a road which, if it was at the present day free and perfected as it ought to be, would cause the way by the Cape of Good Hope to be entirely abandoned. The foundation of Alexandria, although it did not ruin the Commerce of the Black Sea, was prejudicial to it. The natural route for the productions of Western China, of Upper India, of Turkistan, was incontestably by the Aral, the Caspian, and Black Seas. But the activity of the relations established between Alexandria and the Red Sea caused a diversion of the Commerce of the Black Sea, and this diversion was also favored by the great rivers which traverse India from north to south. Alexander had perfectly appreciated the importance of each of these great arteries of the Commerce of the East, and not to sacrifice that of the North to the South, he built cities on the east and south of the Caspian, destined to increase the communication of the southern countries of India with the Black Sea. Seleucus, who after him ruled over the "Pont Euxin," or Black Sea, and Upper Asia, like his master, comprehended all the importance of this Commerce. It was this that determined him to undertake the conquest of India. He had already taken

from Sandrocottus several provinces in the kingdom of Maghador, when the ambitious projects of Demetrius and of Antigonus recalled him to Western Asia; he hastened to conclude a treaty with Sandrocottus, favorable to his plans of Commerce, and sent soon after two ambassadors to the capital of this prince, one of which was the celebrated historian Megasthenes.

This measure seems to have produced advantageous results, for Seleucus continued to take measures for the success of the Commerce of the Black Sea. With this view he gave orders to the navigator Patrocles to explore the Caspian Sea, and at the time he was assassinated (227) he was taking measures to join the Caspian and Black Sea by means of a canal, which was to cross the isthmus and unite the Kouban, which flowed into the Black Sea, with the Kouma, a tributary of the Caspian. This canal must have crossed the country where learned men have since found so many traces of the ancient communication between the two seas.

The immediate successors of Seleucus did not prove themselves altogether worthy of their magnificent inheritance. Nevertheless, the Commerce of the East by the Black Sea seems to have inspired Antiochus Soter, son of Seleucus, with the idea of founding the city of Antioch near the Oxus, on the route of the caravans of Bactres. It is also probable that his son, Antiochus Theos, was in some measure influenced by the recollection of the part the Milesians had acted in the Black Sea, and wished to attract them there again, when he delivered Miletus from the tyranny of Timarchus, and granted that city a special protection. Two great events which were accomplished under the reign of this prince, exercised a powerful influence upon the Commerce of the Black Sea. These were the revolt of Arsaces, which detached from Syria a part of Medea, the country of the Parthes and Hyrcanie, and the foundation of the kingdom of Bactriana by Theodotus.

The riches of this last province, which counted, it is said, a thousand cities or strong places, attest the activity of the Commerce of the East by land. Theodotus endeavored to render this Commerce still more flourishing by conquering the country of India near Bactriana. The alliance of his son and successor, Theodotus II., with Arsaces, who ruled over the shores of the Caspian, facilitated the market of the precious merchandise of India. Even China must have contributed considerably to this Commerce, for Theodotus seems even to have extended his States to the frontiers of that great empire—to the city of Sera, the emporium of the Commerce of silk.

Euthydemus had usurped the crown of Bactriana, when Antiochus, surnamed the Great, the worthy inheritor of the projects and genius of Seleucus, undertook to recover the dominion of the provinces which had detached themselves from the Syrian Empire. The Parthians were the first whom he attacked. They resisted with so much courage that he judged it prudent to acknowledge their independence. He then marched against Euthydemus, who, after a long time spent in hostilities, made him understand that it was for his interest to allow an independent Greek kingdom to rise up at the extremity of his States, as a barrier to the invasion of the Scythæ. It appears, according to Justinian, that there existed at the same time several small Greek States in India. These facts show how active and important must have been the commercial relations between India and the Black Sea, the highway of Greece, at a period

when the Macedonian kings of Syria were masters of all the intermediate country.

Bactriana was governed by Eucratidas II., 147 years before Christ. This State, after having resisted under a preceding reign a formidable Indian invasion, at the very moment it appeared to have consolidated its powers, disappeared suddenly under a deluge of Tartars driven from the frontiers of China. Thus the communication between India, China, and the Black Sea, was momentarily intercepted. Great events were also preparing in Western Asia, where the power of Seleucus had steadily declined from the time of Antiochus the Great. Mithridates claimed the empire of Asia, and made preparations to attack the Roman Colossus, which weighed down Western Asia. In 187 he found himself master of all the provinces bordering on the Black Sea, on the north and east, from Heraclea, in Bythnia, to the Dneiper.

The Commerce of this sea had put him in possession of immense riches. He had a fleet of 400 hundred vessels, and to the forces already under his command he joined those of Tigranes, king of Armenia. Rome sent against him successively, Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey. Mithridates fell, and the Black Sea became a Roman lake. Pompey was overwhelmed with astonishment at the riches of Mithridates and Tigranes. Fully understanding that the quantity of gold, precious stones, luxurious manufactures, and rare productions of all sorts were the fruit of the Commerce of the East, he took measures to facilitate its entrance into the Black Sea. He studied carefully the physical resources of the countries situated between Colchidia and India. He was assured that it would require only seven days to transport the merchandise of India into Bactriana on the river Icarus, which empties into the Oxus; thus it would reach the Caspian by water, and bring it from there to the Black Sea. Pompey judging the route already mentioned, of ascending the Syros to Sarapanis and Phasis, to be the most advantageous, resolved to make it more practicable and more convenient.

This enterprise promised to be doubly useful, for at the same time that it facilitated the arrival of the productions of the East, so much sought after, into Europe, it would also be prejudicial to the Commerce of Egypt, and hasten the moment when Rome should change the character of protectress of the Ptolemies for that of ruler of the valley of the Nile. The project of Pompey was not put into execution. Rome entered into the period of civil wars, and at the close Egypt belonged to her. Augustus, master of the world, divided the empire with the people and the Senate, reserving Egypt for himself, which he made a part of his private domain, and gave it a special organization. The emperor himself appointed the governor, who could neither be a Senator nor an important political personage. Egypt remained an imperial rather than a Roman province, with few modifications, until Constantine.

Augustus, by reserving to himself this privilege, secured the possession of all the breadstuffs of this country, famed for its fertility, besides the monopoly of the Commerce of India, of Arabia, and of Ethiopia. Succeeding emperors made every possible effort to develop this Commerce, and soon the Red Sea was navigated in every direction by the imperial fleet. Thalon himself saw, under the reign even of Augustus, a fleet of 120 vessels leave Alexandria to ascend the Nile, and enter the Red Sea by

a canal. Unfortunately, the emperors, masters of this Commerce, weighed it down by exorbitant duties.

This of course had the effect, in a comparatively short time, of restoring the Commerce of the East by the Black Sea to its former prosperity. Roman merchants imported into Colchidia the products of Upper India, China, Bactriana, and Persia. Silk was the principal object of this Commerce. In connection with this article of luxury, the West received also cotton, ebony, incense, rich stuffs, precious stones, and dye-stuffs. Pliny says, the merchants gained 100 per cent on these Asiatic productions.

The traffic in silk especially must have been very advantageous, as it was almost a monopoly, only a few packages coming occasionally by way of Alexandria. The Romans also received by the same route the iron of Siberia, which was considered superior to that of all other countries, and was used in the fabrication of all the articles in iron where it was necessary to insure duration and solidity. The Issedonians also dealt in furs, which were much esteemed in the empire. It is probable they were brought from those vast countries now known under the name of Siberia, and was called by the ancients "the country of the Hyperboreans." The markets of Colchidia also abounded in gold, silver, the skins of the Angora goats, and medicinal plants. The countries bordering on the Black Sea also furnished wheat, flax, hemp, salt, beaver skins, wax, fish-oil, fish, and thousands of slaves, for the Caucasian countries, from time immemorial, have carried on this detestable traffic.

It would, perhaps, be interesting to give here a description of the commercial route which united the West with India and China. The caravans went to Ecbatana, (Hammedan,) crossing the Caspian Gates, (a narrow defile near Teheran in ancient Media,) they arrived at Kekatonpylos, capital of the kingdom of the Parthia. From thence they crossed Hyrcania, (Asterbad,) and passing by Djorjan, they arrived at Aria, (Herat,) which has always been a great center of Commerce. From here, turning northwards, the merchants arrived at Antioch, (Merou-Shek-Djehan,) capital of Morjiana. From this point the route was easterly quite to Baches, (Balk,) then took a north-east direction, probably to follow the course of the Oxus, the caravan crossed the Mount Comede (now Mount Belour) and the high table lands of Pumere, entered Lesser Thibet at the south-east, following the course of the River Ladouk toward the north, arrived at a very remarkable place called the Tower of Stone. At a little distance from this place was the great rendezvous of the caravans, which assembled here in order to pass together with security the great chain of the Imaus, (Himalaya.) From this place nothing farther is said of the route, except that there was a journey of seven months to arrive at the capital of Serica, which proves that the caravans from the West penetrated into the heart of China.

In the time of Ptolemy, the emperor of China, Ho-Ti, wishing to revive the commercial projects of his predecessors, sent an army to the shores of the Caspian and into Persia, and a little later the Emperor Antoninus sent an ambassador to China. We must not forget that from the year B. C. 56, the Chinese authors speak of the arrival of Roman vessels in the port of Canton. Phasiana, the ancient Aea, on the Phasis, was then the great mart of Eastern Commerce. There were 150 bridges over the Phasis, to facilitate the intercourse between the opposite shores, which were covered with villas, inhabited by merchants, and immense warehouses,

always protected by a body of Roman troops. They were also surrounded by a fosse to prevent the invasion of the mountaineers, whose cupidity was constantly excited by the riches piled up in these establishments. The prosperity of Dioscurias, according to Pliny, was equally remarkable. It was frequented by merchants speaking 300 different languages, and the Romans were obliged to employ 130 interpreters. This city was the greatest slave market in the world, and Phasiana the greatest silk market of its time.

Before we show the decline of this Commerce, we must examine particularly the relations of the West with China. From the year B. C. 984, direct relations existed between China and the West, for in that year the Emperor Mon-Wang (the Magnificent King) went to visit a queen of the western country, called Si-Wang-Mon, or the Mother of the Western King. The country inhabited by this queen is said to be Persia, by a historian and geographer of celebrity who lived in the second century before the Christian Era. It is said that the emperor, on his return, introduced horses into China. It appears the queen returned this visit. We will pass over some centuries, till we arrive at a period when we see the relations between Western and Middle Asia more clearly defined.

In the year B. C. 140, the Emperor Won-Ti, desirous of increasing the prosperity of his people by Commerce, formed treaties with the mercantile countries situated west of China. These relations probably extended as far as the Caspian, for what we have already said proves that the emperor knew how to appreciate the importance of the commercial routes which united the extreme East with the Black Sea. Europe had already for some time demanded the productions of China. This naturally fixed the attention of Won-Ti, and we remark that from his time the Chinese historians began to register the events which took place in the West—such as the war of the Parthiæ against the Scythiæ in B. C. 129, 128, 127, and the destruction of the Greek kingdom of Bactriana.

The conquest of Egypt by the Romans at a later period opened a new channel of communication with China, for we learn in the annals of this empire that in the year 56 before Christ, under the reign of Kanang-Won, Roman merchants arrived at Canton, and formed important commercial connections with the Chinese.

Between the years of 80 and 100 of the Christian Era, Pan-Tchao, general of Ho-Ti, advanced as conqueror as far as the Caspian, and led away to China a great number of hostages, chosen from among the population of the countries he had subjugated. This general had conceived the idea of attacking the Romans, but the Persians, who were among the nations he had conquered, persuaded him to relinquish the design by showing him the great dangers of the enterprise, the object of which it is more than probable was the opening of more active and more direct commercial relations with the West, rather than the invasion of the Roman Empire. Indeed, it appears that in addition to the necessity of exporting her own productions, China also attached a great importance to those of Europe, for we find the Chinese preserving with great care quantities of articles of Greek and Roman fabrication. The discoveries made in the ruins of Panticapæum, the ancient commercial mart of the Milesians on the Black Sea, prove also that the artistic productions of Europe flowed abundantly into the East a long time previous to the advance of the General Pan-Tchao towards the West. The Chinese and Roman Emperors had desired to es-

establish direct and active intercourse between the two nations. The Asiatic inhabitants of Bucharia, did all in their power to prevent the accomplishment of this desire, because they were the factors of the Commerce between the East and the West, and feared to see this business pass from their hands. This people were not only agents for the East and the West, but they also manufactured silk and linens, which they re-exported into China and the neighboring countries. At this time the Greeks and Romans manufactured silk stuffs far superior to those of the Bucharians. They knew how to dye magnificent colors, which made their fabrics greatly sought after throughout the East. To prevent this dangerous competition the Bucharians did not bring their raw silk to the markets frequented by the Romans. They would only sell manufactured silks and stuffs—a mixture of silk and cotton—which the Romans were obliged to unravel to get the silk, of which they made new stuffs, but the price was too high to make them an object of Commerce.

It appears that Pan-Tchao, although conqueror, was not able to overcome this obstacle to the accomplishment of his wishes. However, a little later, during the reign of Hoang-To, about 150 of our era, direct commercial relations were established between the Black Sea and China. An ambassador was sent by Antoninus to China, and the Roman Commerce became very flourishing. The western merchants received raw silk, and could give their stuffs at a moderate price. The communication of course became great where luxury had become a necessity. The Romans sent still other ambassadors to China, and at last some of the western merchants decided to undertake this great journey.

Mr. Remusat thinks this Commerce ceased upon the fall of the dynasty of the Hans, about 220 of the Christian Era. At this time very active intercourse existed between China, Persia, and Armenia. About the year 230, when the king of Persia, Ardeschir, disputed the possession of Armenia with Chosroes I., we see the emperor of China offering his mediation to these two powers. Towards the year 259, Tiridale was placed on the throne of Armenia by the Romans. Similar events prove incontestibly that there was uninterrupted intercourse between China and the West. Chinese historians mention a new Roman embassy sent to the Emperor Won-Ti, of the dynasty of Tsin. In the fourth, fifth, and sixth centuries, China was in constant relation with Persia and the Caspian countries. At that time the Persians sought to monopolize the silk trade, as well as the Bucharians. They did not allow the European merchants to purchase except at one single market. Possessing provinces on the shores of the Caspian, they were enabled to intercept the Commerce of the Black Sea with Serica. They refused to allow the Bucharians to cross their territory to carry on their Commerce with the Black Sea.

We must not suppose that it was only by the way of Persia that silk was received. The Romans had kept possession of the Caucasian regions, and it was impossible to prevent their communication with Serica. The policy of Prince Sullinidas augmented greatly the price of silk in the western markets. This state of things was ruinous to Constantinople, for the whole of Europe depended on her extensive manufactures for the precious stuffs made from silk. The Emperor Justinian tried in vain to import silk by the way of the Red Sea.

About 530, two Christian monks of Persia, who perhaps were sent for that purpose, in visiting the churches of the East, penetrated into China.

They observed attentively everything relative to the production and fabrication of this precious material, and brought cocoons concealed in a hollow cane to Constantinople. Europe was at once freed from the onerous duties she had so long paid to the East. The disorders which agitated Persia at the commencement of the seventh century, and the conquest of this country by the Arabs, (632,) gave the Bucharians an opportunity of re-establishing the communication with the Black Sea, intercepted by the Sassanides, and the Romans hastened to renew their ancient treaties with the Celestial Empire.

We see, from the year A. D. 63, Roman ambassadors sent to Tsai-Tsoang, to whom they carried presents of crystal of every color and emeralds. Commercial transactions were made with facility at that time, for China ruled quite to the Caspian. The Chinese annals speak of Persia as a province of the middle empire. At the commencement of the eighth century several of the Persian provinces still acknowledged the sovereignty of China. The Chinese Empire extended to the shores of the Caspian at the close of the eighth century, and the Commerce of the Black Sea must have been greatly benefited by this neighborhood. It is time to retrace our steps, and take up the Commerce of the Romans in the Black Sea at the point where we left it to consider especially its relations with China.

The Romans had not been able to possess themselves of all the shores of the Black Sea; they only had the country lying between the Danube and Byzantium, and the Asiatic coast beyond Dioscurias. The Crimea had remained independent, although acknowledging the Roman supremacy, and near a warlike population on the north of the Black Sea, who were ever ready to make war on their empire. The Dacians had even imposed an annual tribute upon Dicoetian. Trajan wished to revenge this insult. He crossed the Danube, conquered Decabale, king of the Dacians, and took possession of all the country between the Danube and the Taurida. Trajan had hardly terminated this glorious campaign, when an Indian ambassador came to felicitate him on the success of his arms, which proves that easy and important intercourse existed between the empire and India. Trajan marched against the Parthiæ, who refused to acknowledge the supremacy of the Romans in Armenia. Chosroes was vanquished. Many of the Oriental kings solicited alliance with Trajan. His legions penetrated into Arabia, and the Parthes were obliged to accept a king chosen by Trajan, their conqueror. This prince, one of the wisest perhaps of all who have worn the purple, had not consecrated his whole reign to a struggle with the people of Asia merely with the frivolous object of acquiring glory.

He had only in view the interests of Rome. He thought his expedition in Asia would establish firmly the frontiers of the empire. He wished to develop Commerce so necessary to the prosperity of his people. Conquest alone could not lead to the desired result. Trajan conceived the project of rendering the Black Sea more Roman even than it had been Greek, and established colonies taken from the heart of Italy on the shore of the Dnieper, the Dnieper, and the Bog. After the death of this emperor in A. D. 117, the barbarians succeeded in producing agitation in the extremities of the empire, and his successor, Ælius Adrian, comprehending fully that Rome, however powerful she might be, could not hold the world in her hand; also, that the sovereignty of the people lost its force and its prestige in proportion as it removed beyond the center of action, conceived

the project of reducing the empire to the limits it had before the time of Trajan. He replaced, as soon as possible, Chosroes on the throne of Persia, and restored the territory beyond the Euphrates, which Trajan had conquered from him. He would also have yielded to him the Roman colonies established on the north of the Euxine by his predecessors, if he had not been urgently dissuaded from his purpose. Already the Commerce of the Black Sea was on the decline, the Greek cities were depopulated, and Dioscurias had lost much of its importance. It could not be expected that Adrian would make an effort to re-establish relations with the Oriental countries. This Commerce only procured objects of luxury for the empire, and this consideration doubtless made it appear rather dangerous than useful to a prince who affected to desire the return of the Romans to their primitive simplicity, and who went bareheaded in winter, lived on pork and cheese, and took pleasure in drinking water mingled with vinegar.

Adrian, however, kept the Caucasian regions, which served as a barrier to the empire against the invasions of the Scythiæ and the barbarous people established to the north of Colchidia. Armenia acknowledged the Roman dominion, and this protected the communication between the Black and the Caspian Seas. How, then, shall we explain the rapid decline of the Commerce of the Black Sea? We shall easily find the explanation if we cast an eye upon the desert which spread out between the Euphrates and the Oronto. There rose Palmyra. At the time we speak of she had risen to such a standing in wealth and consequence, that she was soon to hold in check the forces of Sassanides and crown one of her princes, but lately lost in obscurity, with the title of August, and robbed him in the purple of the Cæsars. Palmyra owed its existence to one of those limpid streams which create an oasis in the midst of the burning sands of the desert. She owed her greatness to Commerce, which by degrees have populated and enriched her. Being situated on the route of the caravans which went from Upper Asia to the ports of Syria, of Phœnicia, and those upon the borders of the Nile, she became finally the metropolis of an immense Commerce, and attracted into her caravansaries the precious merchandise, which the European vessels for more than a century had come to seek in the ports of Colchidia. Antoninus, the successor of Ælius Adrian, (138,) probably sought to restore to the Commerce of the Black Sea the importance it had lost. We have already said that he sent ambassadors to China. This step could only be explained by his having a commercial object in view. It is also probable that his ministers were charged to visit, at the same time, Bactriana, Penjab, and the intermediate countries, for history shows us that he received himself Hircanian, Bactrian, and Indian ambassadors. Under Marcus Aurelius, (A. D. 161-180,) the Romans appointed a little king of Iberia, senator and consul. This country was watered by the River Cyrus, whose importance in a commercial point of view, we have already mentioned. In A. D. 223, the Roman power in the East was shaken by the Sassanides, who endeavored to restore to Persia her ancient limits.

Odenat, king of Palmyra, arrested their invasions, A. D. 256. Zenobia, his widow, who styled herself the Queen of the East, had the presumption to imagine she could establish an empire, which should have the Mediterranean for frontier on the west, and Egypt on the south-east. The valley of the Nile did for a moment acknowledge her sovereignty. It was a project worthy of the queen of a city eminently commercial.

Zenobia had for allies Persia, Armenia, and Arabia; but Rome, after having so many emperors without talent or energy, had just raised Deme-trius Aurelian to the throne, (A. D. 170.) Zenobia, after losing two great bat-tles, was besieged in her capital. Palmyra fell into the hands of the Ro-mans, and her Commerce declined; but that of the Black Sea gained less by this event than one would have supposed, for the Persians who soon ac-quired great preponderance in the East, constantly sought to divert it for their own profit. This was easily done, as they were masters of the provinces of Upper Asia as far as the frontiers of India, and of the coun-tries situated on the south and south-west of the Caspian. But the victo-ries of Aurelian must have restored a degree of activity to the Commerce of the East by the Black Sea, for we see, according to Vapiscus, that he received ambassadors from the Iberians, the Albanians, the Armenians, the Indians, and the Seres. A purely political motive might have influenced the three first-mentioned people to send ambassadors to the emperor, but the Indians and the Seres could have had no other motive than a regard to their commercial interests. The victories which Maximilian gained over the Persians, strengthened the friendly relations of the empire with the Indian princes, and two kings of this country, who were called Genobon and Esaleck, it is said, placed themselves under the protection of Diocle-tian. From this we may conclude they were distrustful of the ambition of the Persian monarchs. A new phase was about to open for the Black Sea.

Constantine rendered himself odious to the Romans by the ferocity of his character, by pillaging the temples, and persecuting polytheism, to which the Romans were still much attached. The people insulted him when he appeared in public and heaped reproaches of every sort upon him. Disgusted with his unpopularity, he turned his back forever on the city of the Cæsars, and determined to give a new capital to the empire. He thought at first to rebuild Troy, of poetic memory, and had traced the circuit of the city near the tomb of Ajax, when, enlightened, it is said, by a celestial vision, he suddenly abandoned his first project, and coming to antique Byzantium, gave it the extent and the magnificence of a new Rome. The celestial vision which had decided the choice of Constantine, was a happy political inspiration. Byzantium, in addition to its admirable position for Commerce, was on one of the great routes followed by the barbarians when they sought to penetrate into Asia Minor and into Greece. By transferring the seat of the empire to this city, an impenetrable barrier was raised against them. Byzantium, from being on the frontiers as it was for-merly, had become entirely central, for the Roman possessions extended on the east and the south as far as the Euphrates, the Caspian, the Red Sea, and Ethiopia.

Constantine soon attracted an immense population to his city. The Egyptian fleet, destined to supply Rome, changed its destination, and was placed at the service of Constantinople. The news of this great change in the empire resounded all over the Eastern world. Constantine re-ceived ambassadors from India loaded with rich presents. Twenty-four years after his death, Julian enriched Constantinople with a magnificent harbor, and Roman vessels plowed the Black Sea in every direction to furnish the markets of the capital with delicious fruits, and timber for building was brought from the northern part of Asia Minor; fish from the Sea of Azoff; wheat from Crimea. The Commerce of the East would

not be neglected. The luxury of the Byzantines surpassed in refinement that of imperial Rome. They must have stuffs wrought in gold and silver, rich carpets, tissues of silk, diamonds, pearls, and perfumery. Egypt furnished a part of these necessary objects—the others came by the way of the Euphrates and the Black Sea, either directly or after having passed through the hands of the Persians, who made their western rivals pay at a dear rate.

Towards the close of the sixteenth century silk, which was by this time naturalized in the West, was produced in abundance; however, they still continued bringing it from Serica in considerable quantities. In the time of Justinian, Constantinople received cotton from the East; for after the destruction of Carthage cotton ceased to be cultivated in the West. In the early part of the 7th century the Persians conquered Egypt, (A. D. 616.) In A. D. 632, they were dispossessed by the Arabs. The loss of this province was a disastrous event for Constantinople, which she nourished with her grains, and enriched with her Commerce. But the Arabs in the same year overturned the empire of the Sassanides. This was in some measure a compensation to Byzantium, for the obstacles which the kings of Persia placed in the way of the intercourse of the East with the Black Sea disappeared at once, and the merchandise of India and the Persian Gulf, ceasing to flow towards Alexandria, was forced into the route of the Caspian and the Pont Euxine. Commerce is, in effect, like a great river, which may be turned from its course, but can never be arrested.

The destiny of Constantinople was indissolubly connected with her possession of the Black Sea, which opened to her such vast resources, for the countries on the east and south of the Euxine were inhabited by a Christian population, whose intimate intercourse with the Greek Empire increased in proportion as Islamism gained ground. Beside, all the countries situated between the Euphrates, the Caspian Sea, and the frontiers of India, were filled with Jews. In the fourth century, Sapor III. destroyed 20,000 houses at Van, all inhabited by Jews. When Benjamin of Tudele traveled over the East, he found 50,000 of his nation at Hamadan, and he speaks of many thousands who dwelt in the different cities on the route leading from Armenia to Samarceand, where were as many as at Hamadan. The Israelitish traveler takes care to mention that by far the greatest part of these Jews were very opulent. It is probable that in the middle ages the principal Commerce of the Indies, of China, of Bactriana, and of Persia, was in the hands of the Israelites. This is another proof of the great importance of the trade between the extreme East and the Black Sea, for the skillful and obstinate Jew, who gave his allegiance to every government, submitted to every necessity, passed through all these obstacles without letting the scepter of Commerce, which he has held for twenty-four or twenty-five centuries, fall from his hands.

The Arabs, led on by the ardor of proselytism, advanced as conquerors as far as India and into Bucharia. They soon understood the advantages to be derived from the position they had gained, and made themselves the factors of the Commerce between the East and the West.

From Bucharia, the great depot of the merchandise brought from India and China, they spread towards the Caspian; from there they advanced on one side as far as the Black Sea, and on the other to the Baltic, following the course of the Volga. From the Caspian quite to the Baltic, there is found an enormous quantity of Arabian money of the time of

Abassides, and in the ruins of Boulghar, not far from Kazan, on the Volga, are found Arabian inscriptions graven on stones forming tumuli.

The Musselmen of Bucharia, crossing Eastern Russia, went as far as the frozen ocean. Many inscriptions of the Arabs and objects of art are found in Siberia, such as mirrors of bronze, earthen lamps, figures of animals, either real or fantastic. Thus we see that in the middle ages the rich productions of Upper Asia came to Europe by the northern seas, by Spain, and soon after by Venice and Genoa, whose ships went to seek them to the extremity of the Black Sea, to the shores of Syria, and even to Egypt, where the Arabs had attracted them. This flourishing Commerce restored the life to Constantinople, which at one time seemed to have left her forever. In 867 and 1056, the eastern emperors recovered numerous provinces which they had lost, namely, Bulgaria, Servia, the Island of Cyprus, Silicia, the Island of Crete, Aleppo and its territory, and Sicily. In 1063, the invasion of the Seldjoucides convulsed anew the Byzantine Empire, which from that date lost all her Asiatic provinces from the Caucasus to the Mediterranean.

The Seldjoucides made themselves masters of Asia as far as the Oxus, Samarkand, and Bucharia, which they took from the Arabs. But their princes favored science and the arts, and Commerce was not interrupted. Toward the close of the twelfth century, when Benjamin Tudele made his celebrated journey, Constantinople was the great commercial city of the world. Bagdad alone could in any degree be compared to her. He says:—"Constantinople is a place frequented by all sorts of merchants, as well from the provinces of Babylon, of Messopotamia, of Media, of Persia, as from the kingdoms of Egypt, of Canaan, of Russia, of Hungary, of Psianki, of Burie, of Lombardy, and of Spain. This city is open to all the world without distinction of religion or of country. There is no city on the earth to be compared in the least to her except Bagdad, the most powerful city of the Ishmaelites. The Greeks who dwell in Constantinople are of a wonderful magnificence; their clothes are made of rich stuffs wrought in gold and silver, they wear a profusion of precious stones. The Jews are numerous, of whom many are workers in dresses of silk, and others are merchants, for, although the Greeks hold them in aversion and illtreat them, it does not prevent many of them from becoming rich and respectable."

In the tenth century the Empire of the East declined rapidly. Venice, which for a long time had nominally formed a part of it, declared herself independent, and her powerful marine ruled in the Mediterranean at the moment of the outbreak of the great religious movement, in which Christian Europe rushed upon Mussulman Asia. The Venetians, whose commercial interests had given rise to an intercourse with the Infidels, did not sympathize with the general enthusiasm for adventurous expeditions. A commercial people are always philosophic. The republic could not, without compromising her own existence, keep entirely aloof. She followed the movement, and in some respects put herself at the head. She transported the armies of the Crusaders, received their gold in exchange, and when the payment was too long delayed, she received as an indemnification some one of the commercial cities which the Christians had taken from the enemy. While kings, princes, seigniors, down to the most insignificant of their class belonging to Christianity, united themselves in a spirit of devotion to obtain possession of an apochryphal tomb, Venice en-

riched herself with their spoils. Her ambition soon demanded a wider horizon. She conceived the project of becoming mistress of the Commerce of the Black Sea. The Crusaders on more than one occasion had reason to complain of the perfidy of the Byzantine emperors. The Greeks were schismatic. The Roman Catholics armed for the defense of the faith. Had they not the right to attack Constantinople? It was this that Henry Dandolo undertook to make a German and French army of Crusaders understand, who in 1202 came to Venice to procure vessels to transport them to the scene of war. The Pope had indeed forbidden an attack upon the Greek Empire, but it was perfectly understood that a Latin empire, which would immediately replace Constantinople, under the supremacy of the Pope, would be recognized by the court of Rome. The Crusaders accordingly took possession of Byzantium the 12th of April, 1204. Baldwin, count of Flanders, was proclaimed emperor. The sovereign Pontiff, as the Doge had anticipated, received the news with the liveliest satisfaction. He even promised Baldwin to use all his influence to consolidate the new empire. But the successor of St. Peter owed it to himself to punish the conquerors for their disobedience, and he enjoined upon them penances for the disorders of which they had been guilty. It was to the Venetians that they owed the idea, and the success of the enterprise.

Dandolo might with justice have claimed the imperial purple for himself; but he was too profound a politician to desire it. He felt that the new empire had no great chance of a permanent existence, and he wisely judged advantageous for his country to take the second place, in which the Venetians could enrich without compromising herself. He contented himself with the title of Prince of Rocemelic, and reserved for Venice the quarter in Constantinople, La Morce, the center of the production of silk in the West, a great number of fertile islands, which stretch along in the Mediterranean from the Adriatic Gulf to the Bosphorus. He bought also from the Marquis of Montferrat the important island of Candia, which this nobleman had obtained in the division of the Empire of the East. Thus Venice at a moment became mistress of the Mediterranean and of the Black Sea, where her vessels had already carried on an active competition with the Genoese. She was now the absolute mistress, and the care of providing for the necessities and the demands of luxury of the populous capital of the empire, was the exclusive privilege of her galleys.

Other events of great interest to the Commerce of the Black Sea were on the eve of accomplishment in the Taurida, which had been occupied since the close of the ninth century by the Turks Petchingres, who had been joined by the Comans, or Kiptchak, called also Poutoutges, a people of the same origin. It was Gengis Khan who advanced towards the West with his hordes of Tartars and Mongols—his lieutenants penetrated into Taurida. Bautou Khan, his grandson, joined it to the Empire of Kiptchak, and fixed his residence in Levkopol, not far from Caffa. All Asia, from the Black Sea and the Euphrates to India, obeyed the princes of the family of Gengis Khan, and soon after the great Koubtai Khan ascended the throne of China, and elevated the country to a degree of prosperity and power hitherto unheard of. These Gengis Khanides princes were not barbarians as is often thought; they protected the arts and sciences, and Koubtai Khan did not spare any expense to bring around him the learned men of India, of Persia, and even of Christian Europe. The

Venetians soon appreciated the importance of establishing friendly relations with the Mogul princes, whose dominions extended to the extreme limits of Asia. By means of the Tartars the East could discharge her riches into the Black Sea. They soon taught the sovereigns of the Crimea to understand the advantages they would themselves gain by this Commerce, and soon the productions of the East arrived in great abundance. Samarkand, which had caused Balkh to be forgotten, and which was destined soon to give way to Bucharia, became the great depot of this Commerce. The merchandise transported by the Caspian, reascended the Volga, passed into the Don, and after a short distance of land carriage, descended to Tanai, at the mouth of this river on the Sea of Azoff, where the Venetians had established their vast magazines. The Volga and the Don, near Teherkask, suddenly approach each other, and are only separated by a distance of forty Italian miles, actually reduced to five miles by two of their tributary streams. A canal made at this point would connect the Black with the Caspian Sea.

The Mongols undertook this great work at the instigation of the Venetians, but they had not time to finish it. While the Venetians were making every effort to establish permanently their Commerce in the Black Sea, the Greek sovereigns of Nicene and of Trebizond were exerting themselves to take Constantinople from the Latins. The Venetian fleets paralyzed these efforts for a long time. They even destroyed the vessels equipped at great expense by John Valace, and beat the Genoese, whose interests led them to desire the ruin of the Latins as much as those of Venice did to defend them. In 1261, Michael Paleologue V., Emperor of Nice, succeeded, with the aid of the Genoese, in entering Byzantium, for these bold merchants did not hesitate, in the furtherance of their commercial interests, to brave the thunders of the Church, by restoring Constantinople to the schismatic Greeks. They obtained from Michael Paleologue all the privileges which the Venetians had enjoyed for more than half a century—they had the faubourg of Pera, the right of fishing, and the monopoly of the customs. The influence of the Venetians was such, however, that Michael Paleologue could not refuse them permission to reside at Constantinople. Their interests were respected, and they obtained the right to establish a bailli at Byzantium, charged with the duty of protecting the subjects of the republic. The Genoese would have been glad to prevent the Venetian galleys from entering the Black Sea, but this was not to be thought of. They failed also in their design of imposing a heavy duty of entry and *sortie* on the vessels and the merchandise under Venetian colors. Nevertheless, Venice saw with anger the superiority that the fall of the Latin Empire had assured to the Genoese. She sent twenty-five galleys into the Black Sea, which took possession of Caffa, and pillaged the Genoese establishments even to the faubourg of Pera. A deadly war was lighted between the two rival cities. The Genoese triumphed before the island of Curzola, on the coasts of Dalmatia, (1296,) and acquired so great an influence in Constantinople, that they held, as it were, the lives of the inhabitants in their hands, whom they could starve at will, as they had acquired the sole right of provisioning the city.

The freedom of the Black Sea was at that time loudly claimed. The galleys of Pisa frequented it, and a short time after the re-establishment of the Greek Empire, the Sultan of Cairo asked permission of Michael Paleologue to send Egyptian vessels, or those under Egyptian colors, to buy

slaves on the coasts of Circassia, for the recruitment of the Mamalukes; but the Genoese masters of Pera, which they fortified at their own expense, obliged all the vessels which presented themselves at this passage of the Bosphorus to pay a contribution, which produced annually some millions of francs. The Venetian galleys alone were exempt from this tax. The Genoese were established since 1270 at Caffa, on the site of the ancient Cafum. They had been led there by a chief of ability whose name being written Auria, leads us to suppose that he belonged to that illustrious family of Doria, which has acted so distinguished a part in the history of Genoa and of Italy. They obtained permission from the Khan of the Tartars to construct warehouses on this important point. Instead of counting-houses they built a fortress, which soon became a populous city and depot of all the Commerce of the Black Sea, gaining continually upon the territory of the Khan. They erected the redoubtable citadel of Soldaja, near to Sondak, and other forts near Sebastopol, Balaklava, Panticopec, and in the island of Taman, on the other side of the island of Caffa. They were still established on other points, and in particular at Cymbanon, the ancient port of the Symboles, so celebrated in antiquity as a place of refuge for the pirates Achiens, Tignes, and Hersiochens. These establishments were so important that the Genoese, independent of the administration they had organized at Caffa, had instituted at Genoa a minister of these colonies, which bore the name of Khazains. A severe winter, together with a great famine, obliged the Venetians to abandon Caffa after the *coup de main* of 1293.

This city had soon repaired all its losses, and the Tare, the great counting-house of the Venetians, lost all its importance, however the Commerce of Venice in the Black Sea continued to prosper.

Trebizond offered an advantageous market for the various productions of her industry, and her vessels also found there the merchandise of India, of Persia, of Armenia, and of the oriental provinces of Asia Minor. The pearls of the queen sea, the perfumes of Arabia, articles of every kind brought by the caravans to Bagdad, came also by the Euphrates, for Trebizond had become the center of a considerable Commerce, since it was made the capital of one of the little Greek empires, formed in Asia Minor after the occupation of Constantinople by the crusaders.

But the navigation of the Black Sea had become fraught with dangers that did not exist at an earlier period. The Turks, who had for two centuries inhabited some part of its shores, became navigators. They attacked with their weak vessels the Genoese and the Venetians, and pillaged them unmercifully. These two republics were obliged to support a considerable number of ships of war, to escort and protect their merchant vessels. Indeed the Venetians withdrew their ordinary merchant vessels, and replaced them by strong armed ships. This occasioned great expenses, and diminished the profits of commercial relations, and partially paralyzed the activity of the merchants who no longer dared to go to many parts of the coast. The large vessels could not enter into many of the ports. The Sea of Azoff could not be navigated except by light vessels. This prevented the entrance of large Venetian ships, and consequently the importance of Tanais as a commercial port declined. The Venetians sent out two fleets every year, one composed of light craft, which coasted along the northern shores of the Black Sea, where the Turkish pirates were less to be feared, and went to Tanais, (now Azoff);

the other, composed of large, strong, armed ships, followed the Asiatic coast to Trebizond, whose port is accessible to large vessels. In spite of all these precautions, their vessels, even the armed galleys, were often captured by the corsairs.

Notwithstanding such numerous obstacles, the Genoese and the Venetians continued to carry on an active Commerce in the Black Sea. This last-mentioned power conceived a new project worthy of the genius that had conceived and realized the establishment of a Latin empire at Constantinople. Venice had been forced to share the Commerce of the Black Sea with Genoa, her eternal rival, but she did not give up the hope of recovering the exclusive monopoly of this Commerce, to which she wished to add that of Sweden, of Arabia, and of Africa by Egypt. She ruled still in the Mediterranean, where she had preserved the precious fragments which Dandolo had detached from the Byzantine empire for her. The island of Candia belonged to her, and from there in a hundred hours her fleets could reach Alexandria. Placed so near Egypt, Venice began to dream of possessing the country, for which she would have rapidly created a prosperous Commerce. But how was she to accomplish the double object she had in view? Could she a second time overthrow the Greek empire? Could she exterminate the Mamalukes who reigned in the valley of the Nile? No; this could not be done. But a half-century had scarcely passed since the crusade of St. Louis against Tunis, and fanaticism was not yet extinct in Europe. Venice undertook to resuscitate the religious zeal of the Christians, and level them against the infidels and heretics for the profit of her Commerce. One of her most distinguished patricians, Marino Sanudo, a man of superior ability and of great experience, who had made five journeys into the East to study the condition of the Muslim population, was chosen to explain to Christendom this new project of crusade.

It was in 1321 Sanudo urged a crowd of reasons to prove that the efforts of the Christians should be principally directed towards Egypt, and Venice placed all her galleys at the disposition of the crusaders. Sanudo then directed attention to all the advantages which Europe would derive from the Commerce of Christian Egypt. He proposed to open a canal between the Nile and the Red Sea. He wrote at the same time to different sovereigns in Europe, sought to awaken their hatred against the schismatic Greeks, and proposed to reunite the church of Constantinople with that of Rome. But the time of crusades was past, and the Christian princes remained deaf to the call of Venice.

Having failed in their attempt, and seeing the continued progress the Turks were making in Asia Minor, the Venetians resolved to renew, at any price, their former relations with Egypt. The Mamalukes were furious against them for wishing to unchain the fanaticism of the Europeans against them, but the rich presents of the republic insured a favorable reception for their ambassadors. Besides, the ambition of the Turks began to be a source of serious anxiety to the Egyptians; they needed money to resist this dangerous enemy who advanced on the coast of Syria. The Venetians offered to render the Commerce of Egypt prosperous, and the two powers concluded a treaty in 1347, which, apart from the duties paid to the Sultan, assured to Venice the monopoly of the Commerce of India and Africa. The Genoese, always haughty and proud, had displeased John VI., Cantacuzene. This prince had an intelligent mind, and saw

that the empire had incessantly declined since the Venetians and Genoese had become masters of the Commerce of the Black Sea.

Constantinople, that had been so brilliant while enriched by the Commerce of the Euxine, rather vegetated than lived since she had yielded the monopoly to strangers, and this capital, whose luxury excited so greatly the admiration of Benjamin of Tudela scarcely 250 years before, was fallen low, and the imperial treasury was poor, when John Cantacuzene was crowned. Siberia supplied her with iron, as she had done the Roman merchants twelve or thirteen centuries before, which shows the obstinacy with which a nation will maintain, in spite of wars, of invasions and revolutions, commercial relations from which they have derived so much prosperity.

The Venetians bought in the northern ports of the Black Sea, an enormous quantity of wool, hemp, and flax, which they needed to furnish their numerous manufactures, from which they carried cloths of all sorts to all the ports of the Mediterranean; also for the fabrication of their fine linens which were so much sought after; and their sail-cloths and cordage, of which they made themselves such a prodigious consumption, with their three or four thousand ships dispersed over all the seas of Europe. The southern ports of the Black Sea furnished to Commerce rich carpets and beautiful stuffs of Persia, with skins of the Angora goat, and the camel with hair from which they made formerly at Venice the camlets formerly so much esteemed; wax, medicinal plants, and dye-stuffs; raw silk, but in smaller quantities than from the opposite coast; honey, precious metals, pearls, diamonds, perfumes, and timber for building.

The imports of the Venetians and Genoese into the Black Sea were much less considerable than the exports. They consisted in linen stuffs, of cotton and woolen, arms, skins dyed purple or scarlet, gilded leathers, cloths of gold and silver, thread of gold and silver, velvets, opiates, satins, glass, iron utensils, jewelry, and pieces in money to be worn as ornaments by the Tartar and Casaque women. When the Tartars took their counting fairs at Tanais from the Venetians, the Greek empire was in the last phase of its expiring agony.

In 1355 the Turks passed the strait which separates Europe from Asia, and gained possession of Gallipoli. Albania and Servia soon fell into the power of Amurath, who established at Adrianople the seat of his government. In 1360-64 John Paliologue had a frightful dream. He thought he saw Amurath under the walls of Constantinople. Tearing himself at once from his life of effeminacy and pleasure, he set off for Rome, passing by Venice, where he borrowed a considerable sum of money, so as to be able to appear in Italy with becoming dignity and splendor. Addressing himself to Pope Urban V., he abjured the schism, and the Holy Father promised to arm the Christian princes in favor of Constantinople. But John Paliologue obtained nothing but indulgences, and when he returned to Venice, where he intended to re-embark immediately, he was arrested by his creditors.

The conduct of Venice on this occasion is an historical fact of great importance. A new crusade would have reconsolidated the empire, and the Venetians would have regained their supremacy in Constantinople. But the Greek emperor had failed in his attempt; Europe turned a deaf ear to his cries of distress; the Byzantine empire had come to its end, and having nothing in future to expect from the favor of Paliologue, he was

retained prisoner like any common creditor. His son Manuel with great trouble collected the sum necessary to obtain his liberty, and John, when he returned to his capital was obliged to resign himself to the necessity of paying tribute to Amurath.

The Genoese, in spite of John Cantacuzene, had preserved a great influence in Constantinople. Foreseeing like the Venetians the ruin of the Greek empire, they sought the good graces of the sultan, in order to preserve the advantages which the Commerce of the Black Sea still offered to them. In concert with Bajazet, they stimulated a revolt in Constantinople, which placed Andronic, son of John Paliologue on the throne. The conduct of Andronic was soon displeasing to the sultan, and John, having escaped, obtained assistance from Bajazet, with which he entered into his capital. The Mussulmans made rapid progress, and the successors of Constantine soon found themselves degraded to the humiliating position of vassals of the sultan. In vain they called upon Christian Europe. Catholic sovereigns refused to arm themselves in favor of schismatic Greeks. Religious fanaticism had given place to cool calculations of interest and policy. Still Christian armies went to the assistance of Constantinople, but the terror which the conquests of the Ottomans inspired, was the only motive for this enterprise, which completely failed.

The Turks were determined to have Constantinople at any price; they began by taking, one after another, all the provinces which belonged to this capital, and when Byzantium was entirely isolated—without treasure, without armies—they attacked it openly. It was the combat of Hercules with Anteus, who perished because the ground was wanting to stand upon. To be the more sure of their victim, they took even the sea from Constantinople, by taking possession of the Bosphorus.

Mahomet II. gave the final blow to the old Greek empire, which had so long been struggling with death. The year following, 1453, Constantinople became Turk. The Commerce of the Black Sea was about to be entirely ruined by the Turks, who had already so powerfully contributed to its decline. The Genoese established at Galdia hastened to make their submission. They hoped to preserve under the Ottomans the privileges they enjoyed under the Greek emperors, but, like the rest of the population they were treated as slaves. Soon Mahomet passed to the Asiatic shores of the Black Sea, and took possession of Amastris, one of the most important of the Genoese colonies, until then supposed impregnable, but which could not hold out against the Turkish artillery. The sultan took afterwards Sinope, which belonged to a petty Persian prince. Trebizond fell in 1462, and all the Southern shores of the Euxine found themselves under the yoke of the Mussulman. The Genoese kept still Caffa, and their other establishments in the Crimea. The Venetians possessed nothing beyond the Dardanelles; but thinking of the advantages which they would draw from the Commerce of the Black Sea under the empire of the Turks, who, notwithstanding their fondness for luxury, had neither arts nor manufactures, they made the offer to Mahomet to provision Constantinople, and succeeded in making a bargain with him. They even engaged, although forbidden by the Pope, to furnish arms and munitions of war to the Turks.

Besides, the republic obtained the privilege of retaining Scutari and the places she occupied in Albania, by paying an annual tribute of 230,000 ducats. Mahomet II. was determined to rule alone in the Black Sea, and

had created a formidable marine. He felt the importance of possessing the Crimea for the provisioning of Constantinople, and also as a barrier against the Eastern powers. He sought occasion to drive out the Genoese, who were masters of Caffa, and could at any moment unite themselves with the Hungarians, the Poles, and the Russians, and with their galleys bring an army of crusaders before his new capital. An injustice of the Genoese towards the Tartars of the Crimea, and the treachery of a Tartar seigneur named Eminéh, soon furnished him with a favorable pretext. The 1st of June, 1474, four hundred Turkish galleys appeared before Caffa, which Eminéh already besieged by land. The city surrendered after an obstinate defense. Fifteen thousand Genoese were incorporated into the body of the Janizaries, and Mahomet employed the rest of the population to cultivate the ground in the environs. As for Menghely-Gherai, khan of the Crimea, the conqueror treated him generously, because, like himself, he was descended from Batou-Khan, and was satisfied to make him a vassal of the Porte. The Turks had no longer a rival in the Black Sea; they permitted the Venetian galleys to navigate it, which, freed from the competition of the Genoese, made considerable profits, notwithstanding the unceasing demands made upon them by the Porte. The rich productions of India did not come any more by the way of the Black Sea; but they found entrance into Europe by the way of Egypt, and Venice had the monopoly of this Commerce which was worth sixty or seventy per cent. The fall of Genoa seemed to assure to her for a long time the empire of the Mediterranean, when two unexpected events changed the face of the world. Christopher Columbus discovered America in 1492, and Vasco de Gama found a new route to India. There only remained one means of saving Venice; it was to send her own ships into the two Indies. The superiority of her marine over that of all Europe, and the prodigious number of her vessels, enabled her, without compromising herself, to run the risk of sending to make discoveries, and extend into India and the new world the limits of her commercial operations. Strange to relate, not a single vessel left her ports to steer towards America, or to go to cast anchor at the mouth of the Ganges or the Indus. What then was the Venetian government thinking of—this government so capable, so justly renowned for the sagacity of its policy, so prompt to profit by all wars and all revolutions? Had it lost all at once the instinct of its own existence, and the boldness of its deliberations? No; but Venice had followed for ages an object to which she consecrated all her resources, and all the secrets of her policy and her power. She struggled to obtain the empire of the Mediterranean, and she had so identified herself with this dream that she could not awaken from it, even by the noise which the discovery of a new world made in Europe. Besides, ruled by her aristocracy and embarrassed more and more by her administration, Venice seemed to have become motionless in her lagoons, and this inertia had begun to arrest the development of her manufacturing industry.

The republic had been profoundly awakened, nevertheless, when she heard of the voyage of the Portuguese by Africa. She sent spies to Lisbon, and learnt, that out of 105 vessels sent during one year to India by the "cape of tempests," as it was called, one half were wrecked. She concluded that the new route would be abandoned, and slumbered in a chimerical hope, with her eyes fixed on the extremity of the Black Sea, and on the shores of Egypt. This illusion was of short duration; the

value of the merchandise of India diminished daily in Europe, and soon there remained no other markets for the merchandise which the Venetians brought from the East, but those of Turkey, the Black Sea, and the Adriatic, from which they sought to drive away all competition. Venice, after having raised herself to the summit of grandeur, was destined to see the rapid decline of her power and her Commerce. She was far from the time when her judges at Constantinople walked in equality with the emperors, surrounded like them by guards, and like them wearing insignia of the imperial dignity. The genius and the audacity of a single man had caused the Venetians to lose the privilege of furnishing with the provisions of the East, the greater part of the country washed by the Mediterranean, and the numerous vessels of the Hanseatic league, which spread them through all the north of Europe. When Venice comprehended finally the imminent danger to which she was exposed, she prepared to make a vigorous resistance. She proposed at first to buy of the Portuguese, in mass, all the merchandise which they brought from the Indian seas by the way of the Cape. It was a calculation made by skillful heads, but the Portuguese refused to co-operate with the Venetians. After this check to her policy, the republic struck out a new plan; she even dared to dream of annihilating the Commerce of India by the Cape of Good Hope. United in interest with the Egyptians, she represented to the Sultan known in Europe by the name of Camson, that Commerce was one cause of the ruin of his kingdom, and that it was more important to him than to any other power to drive the Portuguese from the shores of India, when they had not had time to establish themselves firmly. The Venetians offered at the same time to open at their own expense a canal between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. Besides speculating upon the religious zeal of Europe as they had done so many times before, they engaged the Sultan Mamaluke to threaten the Catholic princes to massacre all the Christians of Egypt, of Palestine, and of Syria, and to destroy the holy places, if they did not immediately oblige the Portuguese to abandon their establishments in India. Camson wrote to this effect to the Pope, to the court of Spain, to the king of Portugal. This negotiation did not lead to any result. Then the Sultan equipped a fleet; the constructors, the wood, the iron, and the cannons, were sent to him by the Venetians, and, in concert with the kings of Calcutta and of Cambaye, he undertook to drive the Portuguese from the shores of India. The Egyptian fleet destroyed a Portuguese one which left Cochin to return to Europe, and was in turn destroyed afterward. It was in consequence of these events that the famous Alphonso Alberquerque, to protect the Commerce of the Portuguese against the hostile attempts of the Egyptians, threatened to ruin their country forever by turning the course of the Nile into the Red Sea, where it came out of Ethiopia—a project which though impossible to execute, was not new, for in 1200, and 1348, the kings of Ethiopia made the same menace to the sovereigns of Egypt. The course of the Nile, if we can believe El Maein, was actually turned, by means of a powerful dyke, which the king of Ethiopia consented to destroy, after having deprived Egypt one year of its inundations.

Venice at last lost all hopes of destroying the Portuguese establishments in the Indian seas. In 1508 she received a new blow; the king of France, the emperor of Germany, and the king of Naples, leagued themselves against her under pretext of her alliance with the Infidels. The

war of Cambrai lasted eight years. It caused Venice to lose all her important territories in Italy, ruined her treasure, and placed her in the impossibility of undertaking to prevent the conquest of Egypt by Selim I. In 1517 she was able, however, to conclude a treaty with this prince, in virtue of which she preserved the monopoly of the Commerce in Egypt and the right of navigation in the Black Sea. But these advantages had lost much of their importance, and the Greeks, having submitted to the Ottoman Empire, carried on a dangerous competition with her. Her merchants were tolerated in the Black Sea, but were not favored, and they were obliged to purchase by presents, continually, the protection of the Turkish functionaries, which diminished still more the advantages of their Commerce. Thus the Bosphorus was entirely closed to her when she took part with Spain against Soliman. She made many attempts to obtain entrance again, but the Turks remained inflexible. However, in 1672, Querini, her agent at Constantinople obtained, by force of presents, a treaty of navigation; but this treaty was completely illusory, and the Ottoman ministers had scarcely received the Venetian gold, when they gave secret orders not to allow a single vessel of the republic to pass the straits. From the reign of Soliman I. the Black Sea was closed to foreign vessels.

This prince was in reality the first Turkish sovereign who had ever comprehended all the advantages of Commerce. Struck with the advantages which the admirable position of Constantinople, between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, offered, he undertook to make her the depot of the productions of Asia. It was necessary to reopen the ancient routes of Commerce, and assure the monopoly of all the merchandise which came from Asia and Southern Africa to the coasts of Syria and Egypt. Soliman forbade any foreign vessels from loading in any of the ports of the Levant or Egypt. He employed fifty thousand men to dig the canal so often projected, which was to unite the Red Sea with the Mediterranean. He followed the plans conceived by the Venetian policy, and resolved in his turn to drive the Europeans out of the establishment they had founded in India. Bakadie-Shah, sovereign of Gaudjerat, from whom the Portuguese had taken Diu, soon furnished him a pretext. He equipped a fleet at Suez, composed of seventy-six vessels, which, after taking possession of Aden in Arabia, set sail for Diu, which they took, after an obstinate resistance. The citadel remaining in possession of the Portuguese, who forced the Turks finally to retreat, Soliman saw himself forced to renounce his enterprise. The Black Sea remained not the less interdicted to strangers.

In the eighteenth century the French ambassador at Constantinople, the Marquis of Villeneuve, flattered himself for a moment that he should obtain admission for the merchant vessels of France. Desirous at first of establishing business relations in the principal ports, he obtained permission to sail barks under French colors. But the grand vizier, who had favored this project, was removed, and the new minister hastened to withdraw the permission accorded by his predecessor. In 1753 the French consul in the Crimea, struck with the advantages which the Commerce of the Black Sea offered to France, made a profound study of the elements of this Commerce, and published the fruits of his researches in a work which was very important at that epoch. He proposed the formation of a company of shareholders, whose office should be at Constantinople. He did not

doubt that the French merchants would espouse the project, and thought it would then be easy to obtain permission of the Sultan, by making him comprehend the advantages which he would himself derive from this concession. But while the French consul was preoccupied with this important question, Russia pursued her projects of aggrandisement on the Black Sea, and Catherine II., after a series of triumphs over the Turks, imposed on them a treaty in 1774, in consequence of which the Black Sea was thrown open to vessels of Commerce. The steps taken by the Marquis de Villeneuve, and by M. Peysonel, the French consul in the Crimea, had produced a sensation in England, and as soon as the English were apprised of the particulars of the treaty they solicited permission from the court of St. Petersburg, to found an establishment in the Crimea, but their pretensions were too exclusive, and were repulsed. Russia, in order to attract Commerce to her ports, offered great privileges to merchants, and soon the vessels of Greece and Italy, and of other European nations, went in crowds into the Black Sea, which resumed an activity which had been lost for so long a time. The Commerce of the Black Sea, like that carried on by the Europeans in the Turkish ports of the Mediterranean, was paralyzed for a long time by the disorders of the Ottoman administration. The rapacity and arbitrary conduct of the Ottoman functionaries gave place to a crowd of vexations, especially when the duties to be paid by foreign ships were in question. Constant and loud complaints were made. At last the European powers united in their determination to reform these abuses. For this object they concluded a treaty with the Porte in 1838, which established a tariff regulated by common accord.

The reader can now have an exact idea of the importance of the oriental Commerce by the Black Sea, and of its connection with the development of the Commerce of India, by the routes of the Red Sea and the Cape of Good Hope. The terrible struggle which has existed from antiquity until modern times, between nations, to give a preponderance of one of these commercial routes over the other, are so many phases of the grand question of the East, which at this moment agitates Europe, and the entire world. Russia, renewing these ferocious quarrels, exerts herself to her utmost to oblige the Commerce of the East to take the route of the Black Sea, and to attain this object she wishes to take Constantinople, as everybody knows, and drive the English out of India, as the Venetians, the Egyptians, and the Turks, tried formerly to drive out the Portuguese. We will now show the efforts of every kind which she has attempted or accomplished in order to realize her project, and to render herself mistress of the Black Sea and the commercial routes which connect it with India and China. Here is really the knot of the Eastern question.

The empire of Russia is the largest one ever yet formed in the world by the sword of conquerors. In Europe and Asia it stretches over one million of square leagues, and is made up of a crowd of people of different races, languages, and religion. We are accustomed to regard this variety of population as a probable cause of her ultimate ruin. Unity without doubt is force. But how many states have existed and prospered during ages in the same ethnographic condition as Russia. It is sufficient to cite the Roman empire as an example. Under the yoke of Rome were held the most civilized, the most warlike, and the most powerful of the nations of ancient times—Greece, Macedonia, Gaul, Spain, the British Isles, Syria, Egypt, and the half of Germany. What was her secret? A patience

which nothing could exhaust, a crooked and violent policy, and a dexterous system of intervention and of protection, with which she weakened by rivalry and intestine wars the people she wished to subjugate. Russia pursues a similar policy at the present day. She has the same resources as Rome for the maintenance of obedience in the countries she has conquered. If a country revolts, she crushes it by soldiers drawn from another part of the empire. It is easier for her to do this than it was for Rome. The city of Romulus had to govern the compact and redoubtable nations already named. Russia has only to hold in subjection half-barbarous tribes, who could not unite against her, and of which no one in particular is a subject of anxiety. The difference of races and religion prevents nationality of feeling. Religious fanaticism keeps the people in a constant fermentation. The court of St. Petersburg fully appreciates this. Therefore she seeks to destroy Islamism and polytheism throughout the whole extent of her empire, in order to arrive some day at religious unity, which would more closely attach the population of the conquered countries to the supreme chief of the Greek religion, who is the Czar himself. It is probable, if not certain, that when diverse people forcibly united under the Russian yoke, shall have acquired a certain development, the Muscovite empire will fall to pieces, like the Roman. Such an event cannot be regarded except as very distant. Colossal Russia will rule for ages over eastern Europe and a part of Asia. Her birth has been long and painful, and logically we are permitted to see in this fact a grave presumption in favor of the duration of the Russian monarchy.

Let the Western nations not forget—let them not sleep in a fatal indifference. Russia will never place under her yoke France, England, Spain, or Italy, nor even Germany; but she can exercise a dangerous influence over the West, and trample rudely upon our liberal and progressive tendencies, whose expansion she fears more than war or the plague. Russia does not expect to spread her conquests in the West. The Czar governs a seventh of the habitable earth; it is not a ridiculous passion for aggrandisement that governs him; he is not tormented by the folly of conquest; the object which he pursues is a commercial one; he has already realized the dream of Rome—he now wishes to accomplish that of Carthage, and take possession of the Commerce of the world; this is what pushes the Czar to Constantinople. There is not, truly, in the whole world, a state whose topographical position can be compared to that of Russia, as regards the facility of commercial intercourse. This immense empire, bounded on the North by the ocean, on the East by Behring's Straits, Southeast by the Aral and the Caspian, on the South by the Black Sea. Stretching to China, it touches Bucharia, Turkistan, Persia, and Armenia. It is also watered by large rivers and great lakes in Europe, which are capable of being united by numerous canals. These great advantages did not escape the view of the sagacious bishop Huet, who regretted to see them in the hands of an ignorant people, incapable of appreciating and utilizing them: "Should an adroit and intelligent prince," writes the bishop, "rise up among this ignorant people, we should see these barbarians enriched by Commerce, and soon become formidable to their neighbors." The learned Huet wrote these lines. The genius of Peter the Great appeared in the political horizon. Russia, now transformed, began to count among the great nations of Europe. Peter fully comprehended to what a point of prosperity Russia could be raised by Commerce, and seeing at one glance

the Ladoga, Onega, Uman, and White lakes, and the principal tributaries of the great rivers, he had the idea of uniting them by canals. His successors continued this gigantic work, and Russia has the most extensive system of canalization in all Europe.

The object of Peter the Great was to found the power of Russia on her commercial greatness. Such has been and such still is that of his successors. We will follow them in the development of this great enterprise, attaching ourselves especially to the facts connected with the Black Sea, the real key of the arch of the policy of the Czars. We will notice at the same time their efforts to get possession of the shores of the Caspian, which, with the Aral and its tributaries, is indissolubly connected with their commercial system.

Peter occupied the culminating point of intelligence and genius in his country; but we must not suppose no one before him had sought to make use of the admirable position of Russia for Commerce. We have seen that the Arabs in the ninth and tenth centuries of our era, traversed the whole extent of Russia, to transport the precious merchandise of India, China, and central and southern Asia, to the shores of the Baltic. Europe did not lose the recollection of this, and when the new route to the Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, was discovered by the Portuguese, several commercial nations proposed to Russia to renew the Commerce of the Black Sea by turning the productions of the East by that route. But Russia was not strong enough, or sufficiently advanced in civilization, to put such a project in execution.

This attempt was renewed by an English company, who, under the title of company of merchants for the discovery of new countries, under a treaty signed between Queen Mary and Ivan IV., 1555, obtained permission to navigate the Caspian; but the only useful results of this enterprise were the exploring voyages of two of the agents of this company, who gave to geographers more positive ideas with regard to the basin of the Caspian and the Aral.

Frederick Duke of Holstein, 1633, sent a legation to Ispahan. The famous geographer, Olearius, accompanied this legation. The object of this was to induce the Shah of Persia to direct towards the North the productions of the labor and soil of Asia; but it was without success. In his turn, the king of Sweden sent an ambassador to the king of Persia, who was also unsuccessful.

These overtures of these different governments at last excited the attention of the Russian government, and Alexis Michlailovitch, appreciating the commercial importance of the Caspian, founded Astrakan, destined to become the depot of the Commerce of Persia with Russia. Such was the situation of Russia when Peter the Great found himself master of the empire of Russia thirteen years only after the death of Alexis. Peter, comprehending at a glance all the commercial advantages which his immense empire contained, and enlightened by all the events we have spoken of, resolved to enrich his people by Commerce. He knew that the Black Sea had been for a long time the center of the greatest and richest Commerce that had ever existed; and, accustomed to great enterprises, he resolved to restore its Commerce. There is a chart preserved at St. Petersburg, on which he had traced the plan of a canal which would unite the Black with the Caspian seas. It would be necessary to conquer Turkey to realize this project. Peter had this magnificent dream. The Ottoman

empire had begun to decline. The Christian subjects of the Porte were disposed to revolt.

It was thought in Europe, that the conqueror of Charles XII. would easily overturn the Crescent. The time seemed to have arrived for him to raise himself on the ruins of the Turks. Peter, profiting by these circumstances, began to discipline his troops, in order, if possible, to rule over the Black Sea.

In 1695 Russia had not a single seaport. Peter declared war against the Porte, and sent two small vessels into the Sea of Azoff. He had in his employ sailors, engineers, and artillery men, from Germany and Holland. He took Azoff, and entered into Moscow in triumph. Then appeared the first medal that was struck in Russia. On one side was inscribed "Peter I., Emperor of Russia, always august;" on the other, "Conqueror by fire and water." This was taking the position of a Roman emperor. Peter then set about creating a fleet with which he could attack the Turks in the Black Sea. He began by exacting a contribution from the Bayards, the merchants, and the Russian clergy. To realize with more certainty his project, he resolved to learn himself the art of naval construction. He came to Europe, and worked in the workshops of Saardam like a common carpenter. On his return to Russia, wishing for a port in the Baltic, he founded St. Petersburg.

The battle of Pultowa delivered him from the rivalry of Charles XII. In 1711 he attacked Turkey resolutely, but vanquished on the Pruth, he was obliged to sign the treaty of Zolkson, by which he was compelled to return Azoff to the Turks, and demolish the forts on the Sea of Azoff. The Czar did not fulfill the condition of the treaty until two years afterwards, when Great Britain and Holland obliged him by threats to accomplish his engagements. This check in the Black Sea did not make him renounce his projects, for his iron will only became the stronger from being opposed. He desired to extend his power from India to the Caucasus. Repelled in the West, he turned towards the East. In 1719 he got possession, by treachery, of a territory dependent on Khiva, south of the Aral. A general massacre of his troops by the inhabitants caused him to lose this conquest.

In 1718 he concluded a treaty with Shah Hurrein, in virtue of which all the silk exported from Persia should be directed towards Russia. Persia was at that time fallen into a state of anarchy and weakness which singularly favored the ambitious views of the Czar. The Turks had seized all the western provinces from the Caucasus to the mouth of the Tigris and Euphrates. Peter resolved to imitate them, and to make himself master of the countries around the Caspian. The Shah, hardly pressed by the revolted Affghans, decided to ask assistance from Russia. The Czar marched at the head of 22,000 men in 1722, took Dedent, and occupied the provinces in Persia which produced the most silk. He laid siege to Bakou, and returned to Moscow to receive the honors of triumph. Hurrein was made prisoner by the Affghans, and his son Tamasp proclaimed Shah, sent an ambassador to Russia who concluded a treaty with the Czar, by which Russia was put in possession of the provinces of Magenderand and Asterbad, situated south of the Caspian, on condition that Peter should send an army to fight the Affghans.

The young Shah, enlightened with regard to the Russian policy and disapproving the dismemberment of his empire, directed a part of his

army against the Russians; but Peter obstinately insisted upon the validity of the treaty, and wanted to regulate by it the frontiers of Persia, Russia, and Turkey. Things were at this point, when death surprised him in 1725.

Faithful to the policy of Peter, Catherine looked upon the disputed territory as belonging to Russia; but at last Russia was obliged to yield, and Anne Ivanovoe abandoned the territory to Nadir Shah, who had become so powerful that the Czarina thought best to keep on friendly terms with him.

Her successor, Ivan II., did not reign, he only passed by the throne. His daughter, Elizabeth Gehonnee, was too much occupied in the West to follow out the designs of her father in the East. But she did not lose sight of them; and seeing herself in the impossibility of renewing commercial relations which would enrich Russia with Asiatic productions, she gave the enterprise into the hands of an English company, which she loaded with favors. The English did not show any gratitude; one of the chiefs passed over to the service of Nadir Shah, and organized for him a fleet in the Caspian far superior to that of Russia. In a word, this power remained stationary thirty-seven years on the side of Asia.

We must come to the reign of Catherine II., 1763, to see the policy of Peter the Great revived and fearfully extended. Catherine acted, intrigued, struggled, and combated on all her frontiers at once. She did not conceal her designs, but declared loudly her intention to destroy the Ottoman empire, and re-establish that of the East in favor of her grandson, whom she named Constantine for that reason. In 1768 Turkey, alarmed by the ascendancy of Russia in Poland, demanded the evacuation of that country by Catherine, and on her refusal, declared war against her. The empress was prepared for it; her fleet—commanded by Elphinstone, an Englishman—crushed the Turkish fleet in the Bay of Tcherme. The conqueror wished to profit by his triumph and force the strait of the Dardanelles, and bombard Constantinople, as he had promised to Catherine. The success was not doubtful; but Alexis Orloff, chief of the expedition, jealous of Elphinstone, would not consent. The Russian squadrons had at the same time stirred up Greece, Syria, and Egypt; for Catherine wished to ruin Turkey on all sides at once; and the army of the Sultan experienced constant defeat. This war, so fatal to Turkey, was concluded by the treaty of 1774, which gave to Russia the free navigation of the Black Sea, that even of the Dardanelles, where, however, she could only have one vessel of war, beside Azoff, Toganrog, Kerch, Kinburn, the Kouban—all the country situated near the Don and the Bog, and a considerable indemnity for the expenses of the war. Catherine made the Porte also acknowledge the independence of the Crimea. She thus deprived the Turks of the powerful reinforcements they drew from this country; moreover, in case of necessity, she could invade the peninsula, and the Sultan could not place any obstacle to her intentions.

It is thus Russia continues to act at the present day. To reign supreme in the Black Sea and the Caspian, it was necessary to occupy the vast countries extending from the Don to Persia and Armenia. The power of Catherine was acknowledged by the tribes of Kouban Fenek, the two Kabardies, and those north of the Caucasus.

The Caucasians still remained to be conquered. This was not to be done by force. She laid a train which would make a future conquest

easy. She persuaded the petty princes of the country to accept her protection, not forgetting to sow dissensions among them. She used the same policy towards Persia, and prepared to put the projects of Peter the Great, with regard to the provinces west of the Caspian, in execution, and kept in this sea a fleet to which orders were given to burn all the Persian ships, even the timber for building them, so jealous was Catherine of rivalry in the dominion of this sea. While establishing this policy for the middle of her empire, she had accomplished the first dismemberment of Poland in concert with Prussia and Austria. This first attempt scarcely excited any interest in Europe, and Catherine, rendered stronger by their inertness, meditated vast projects.

She determined to replace the Cross on the dome of St. Sophia. She had nothing to fear from Prussia, and had persuaded Austria to accept some fragments of the magnificent spoils which she had in view. Sweden had consented to sign the treaty of neutrality in case of a war between the Porte and Russia. Catherine believed herself at the point of realizing the great dream of Russia. But it was necessary before commencing an open attack on Turkey, to get possession of the Crimea. To accomplish this, nothing more was necessary than a ruse of diplomacy, which Catherine understood marvelously well. The Khan Dewlet Gherai was entirely devoted to Turkey. A sedition, adroitly fomented and conducted, drove him from his country, and Sans Gherai, raised to his throne by the Russian influence, naturally placed himself under the protection of the Czarina.

Soon after, new troubles arose in the Crimea, and Catherine sent an army of 60,000 men to the assistance of the Khan. The Russian army took possession of the whole Crimea and the fortresses. There was nothing more to be done but to force Sans Gherai to abdicate in favor of Catherine (1783,) who settled on him a pension of 800,000 roubles, which they soon ceased to pay. The Czarina bestowed the honors of triumph on her commander, Potemkin, who caused to be inscribed on a guide-board at Cherson these words, which contained the whole policy of Russia: "The road to Byzantium."

The same year, 1783, Heradius, Prince of Georgia—although this province belonged to Persia—acknowledged himself the vassal of Russia, who engaged to maintain him in the possession of his States and all the territories which he might acquire at a later period. Soloman, Prince of Iremelia, soon followed his example. Turkey becoming, with reason, anxious, prepared for war; but too feeble to measure her strength with Russia, accepted the mediation of France, and concluded the treaty of Constantinople with Catherine, 1784, which assured the possession of the Crimea to Russia, also the Island of Taman, and the greater part of Kouban.

In 1787 the Porte learned that treaties were no barriers to the ambition of Russia; she declared war against this power, whose destruction appeared to be seriously threatened. Catherine had secret conferences with Joseph, Emperor of Austria; and, notwithstanding all the precautions for secrecy, the subject in question was nothing less than the expulsion of the Turks from Europe, and the raising upon the ruins of a Greek empire in favor of the Grand Duke Constantine. Russia at the same time sowed sedition in Moldavia and Wallachia; she excited a revolt in Greece, and treated secretly with the Mamalukes of Egypt. The Turks commenced

hostilities; the fortune of war was in favor of the Russians, who were electrified by religious fanaticism, and proud of being the heroes of a holy war and a new crusade.

Catherine offered the possession of Egypt to France as the price of her co-operation. During these negotiations, the Russians continued their victorious march. Potemkin took possession of Olchakoo, at the mouth of the Dnieper, a place of great importance, and razed it after a horrible massacre, which cost the lives of 25,000 persons, 1788. The Sultan Abdoul Hamid died four months after, and was succeeded by Selim III., who continued the war with more firmness than success. The Russians went on, always triumphant.

In 1790 Suvarrow took Ismail, on the Danube, after an obstinate resistance, and massacred without pity. Out of a garrison of 40,000 Musulmen, scarcely a man escaped to carry the news of this great disaster to Constantinople. Such great success made Europe tremble. Sweden declared war against Catherine; Prussia put an army into the field; and England, beginning to understand more clearly the policy of Russia, equipped a powerful fleet destined for the Baltic.

"Since your government seems to wish to drive me from St. Petersburg," said Catherine haughtily to the English ambassador, "I hope at least they will allow me to retire to Constantinople." The Russian army at that moment marched upon Constantinople.

But the attitude of Europe frightened the Czarina, even Austria abandoned her. She arrested the march of her troops, and signed the treaty of Jassy, 1792, with Turkey, which cost this power all the country between the Bog and the Dniester; this last river was to form the boundary of the two empires. The Porte also acknowledged the sovereignty of Russia over Georgia and the neighboring cantons, and confirmed her ancient privileges in the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. To immortalize her triumph, Catherine founded Odessa, which has since become a city of great importance. She died four years after, equally great and powerful as Semiramis and Margaret of Waldemere. Catherine had directed, towards the end of her reign, a successful expedition against the Persians, who had taken a part of Georgia, where her vassal Heraclius reigned; but death surprised her in the midst of her vast projects.

Paul I. succeeded Catherine. This prince recalled the Russian army, and by an inexplicable caprice ordered the evacuation of all the places his mother had conquered. However, in 1800 he published a ukase, confirmed the following year by Alexander, by which Georgia was definitely incorporated with Russia.

At this time a fearful struggle held the world in suspense. Europe entire was leagued against France. Russia found herself almost at the head of this confederacy of nations. It would be supposed that this would have arrested her projects of aggrandisement; but Alexander sent troops into Caucasia, and continued his conquests. In 1805 one of his generals took a Persian province, although the Russians had been at peace seven years with Persia. The Shah, not able to resist the Russians, implored the assistance of Napoleon, whose glory filled the world. In 1805 a French ambassador was sent into Persia (M. Jaubert) to inquire into the situation of the country; and the Persian government charged Mirza-Reza with an embassy to Napoleon, whom he accompanied to Tilsit in 1807. Napoleon thought of nothing less than the destruction of Eng-

land at that time, as Russia did that of the Porte; he comprehended the assistance he could receive from Persia, in case he concluded to take the Indies from the English. He concluded a treaty with the ambassador of the Shah, and sent General Gardanne to introduce European discipline into the Persian army.

England was much moved by this intelligence; and the Governor of the Indies sent an ambassador immediately to the Shah to counterbalance the influence of the French. It is since that time that Persia, the western barrier of the Indies, acts in concert with Europe, and has become the political battle-field of the cabinets of St. James and St. Petersburg. The treaty of Tilsit astonished Europe; the alliance of Alexander and Napoleon appeared an indissoluble problem.

But were not the two emperors united on the same idea? Could the gigantic commercial plan of Russia be accomplished so long as the English were masters of India? The project of Napoleon for the invasion of England—had it not preoccupied Catherine II. in the last years of her reign? The annihilation of the Commerce of Great Britain—would it not profit Russia as much as France? Napoleon needed the assistance of Russia to crush his enemy. We therefore see him giving up Poland, the ancient ally of France, for the alliance with Russia. Alexander had recommenced the war against Turkey; but Napoleon took the Porte under his protection, and stipulated for the immediate evacuation of the Danubian principalities. Napoleon would not, at any price, abandon Constantinople to Russia, not even for the consideration of receiving as indemnification Syria, Egypt, and the Turkish islands in the Mediterranean. The peace which the treaty of Tilsit had procured for Turkey was of short duration.

Alexander recommenced the war, was victorious, and offered peace on condition that Turkey should yield to him Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia. The Divan refused, and hostilities were about to recommence, when Napoleon prepared to carry war into the heart of Russia, and Alexander, on the eve of taking the Danubian principalities, was constrained to terminate the campaign.

By the treaty of Bucharest, 1812, Alexander evacuated Wallachia, Moldavia, and Bessarabia, which carried the Russian frontiers to the Dnieper and the Pruth. Russia became mistress of the mouth of the Danube which she had so ardently desired. She engaged to restore several strong places on the Black Sea to Turkey, but she did not fulfill her engagement. Russia had continued to gain on the territory of Persia, and had in reality extended her empire south of the Caucasus; her frontiers extended on the shores of the Caspian as far as Ghilau; all the basin of the Kur or Cyrus, belonged to her. It required but a step to reach Armenia, and she stayed under arms on the limits of Persia and Turkey in Asia. The French empire fell with an astounding crash. The powers leagued against Napoleon concluded the treaty of Vienna, which had the pretension of settling upon a solid basis the interests of the different nations in Europe. Amid all the concessions and restitutions made by the contracting parties, Russia alone preserved all her conquests. She was ambitious of making new ones, and not being able to take by a single blow, she sought to enfeeble them by successive dismemberments. The Ottoman empire, composed in part of a Christian population, offered a great field for intrigues. The Danubian principalities were always kept in a state of agita-

tion, and since the time of Catherine II. there had been a constant attempt to reanimate the spirit of nationality of the Greeks and excite a war of independence in the Hellenic peninsula. It was she who gave the impulsion to the great insurrectional movement of 1821, which resulted in the creation of a new State in Europe.

She first offered an army of Cossacks to the Sultan to quell the revolt. The Divan had the good sense to refuse to accept it. Russia insisted, claiming the right to interfere between the Sultan and his Christian subjects. The Congress of Verona, in 1822, decided otherwise. The Greek insurrection soon excited the most lively sympathy in Europe. Russia then espoused the popular side of the question, and wished to become the liberator and protectress of the Greeks. England and France did not fall into this snare, but they forced the Czar Nicholas to sign a protocol, by which the three powers mutually engaged not to take up an armed intervention in the struggle between the Greeks and the Ottoman empire. While the attention of Europe was fixed upon Greece, Russia sought a new quarrel with Persia; war was declared, and lasted during the autumn of 1827, and always to the disadvantage of Persia. In the winter of 1828 the Czar dictated the treaty of Turkomanchai, which gave the Araxus for the boundary of Russia, and thus detached several rich provinces from Persia. Besides, Persia engaged to pay an enormous sum to indemnify Russia for the expenses of the war.

Public opinion had forced Europe to abandon its neutrality, and sign a treaty in 1827, by which France, England, and Russia engaged to settle by arms, if necessary, the differences between Greece and the Ottoman Porte.

The Sultan granted the Greeks the privilege of governing themselves on condition of their paying him an annual tribute. Nicholas determined to make war again on the Ottoman Porte. Hostilities were commenced in 1828, and continued the greater part of the year following. Never was a war more disastrous for the Porte. The Russians advanced to Adrianople on one side, and to Ezeroom on the other; Constantinople was threatened, and the Ottoman empire was on the brink of ruin. But the European powers again arrested the progress of Russia; the war terminated by the treaty of Adrianople, which gave many privileges to Russia, and an indemnity for the expenses of the war—more than one hundred and ten millions of francs.

The treaty of Adrianople was hardly concluded, when Nicholas, resuming the project of Peter the Great, decided the Persian government should join with him in the conquest of the Khanal of Kkiree. The Russian troops were assembled for this expedition, when the insurrection in Poland obliged them to be sent in another direction. Catherine II. had endeavored to withdraw Egypt and Syria from the dominion of the Sultan. Russia had, without doubt, forgotten this intention of the empress. When a soldier of fortune, with no other resources than his genius, gained such great power that he dared to dictate to the Porte, to whom he was only a vassal, the Sultan had promised Mehemet Ali to give him the possession of Syria as the price of his services in the war in the Morea. Besides always asking, without obtaining the fulfillment of this promise, Mehemet invaded Syria; his son, Ibrahim Pacha, advanced victoriously to the center of Asia Minor. The cabinet of St. Petersburg offered her services to the affrighted Sultan; but he preferred addressing himself to France and

England; but not obtaining their assistance, was obliged to accept that of the Czar. The Russian fleet appeared in the Bosphorus, and no longer fearing to see Constantinople fall into the hands of the Egyptians, remained quiet.

At bottom quite glad of the success of Ibrahim, the Czar made his own terms with the Sultan, and left to the other powers the care of imposing conditions on the victorious Egyptians. The Czar obtained almost a protectorate over Turkey; beside, the Czar had the right to exact of the Sultan to exclude from the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus all the vessels of war belonging to foreign nations, the moment Russia should be at war with any maritime power, while Turkey was forced to receive the Russian fleets without any obstacle. But the other powers opposed this treaty, and Russia was obliged to yield her pretensions on this point. Nicholas also failed in his attempt to gain the Caucasian provinces.

This is what Russia has done since the time of Peter the Great for the accomplishment of the most gigantic commercial project that a nation has ever dreamed of. Her success has been equal to her ambition; for in half a century, since 1772, she has added, either in Europe or in Asia, immense territories of five or six times the extent of the whole of France.

Before concluding, we will take a hasty view of the commercial relations of Russia with the different countries of Asia, and of the routes by which she purposes to bring this prodigious Commerce to the Black Sea. The Czars have neglected no means to create commercial relations between their States, and China. The first Russian embassy was sent to China in 1656. It was organized by the Governor of Tobolsk, and only served to make known the itinerancy to be followed. Very soon, the Russians and Bucharians formed associations to develop the Commerce of the Celestial empire; and in 1670 a great caravan left Tobolsk for Peking, and arrived there without difficulty. This expedition was very lucrative, opened entirely the road to China; and the caravans succeeded each other from that time with regularity. But in 1784 a quarrel arose between the Russians and Chinese, which was followed by hostilities which interrupted their commercial transactions. Peace was established in 1691. Peter the Great obtained permission to send a caravan which should not exceed 200 men every year to Peking. During twenty years the caravans realized great profits; but the Russians committed excesses which made the government anxious, and they forbade their entrance into Peking. In 1719 the Czar soon repaired the injury, and the caravans again took the route of the capital, until new disorders committed by the Russians caused them to be forbidden entrance into the Celestial empire, 1792. The commercial transactions between China and Russia had acquired too great importance to allow them to be interrupted. A treaty, signed in 1787, between the two governments fixed upon a place upon the frontiers where the merchants should transact their exchanges. They chose Kiatka, on the Russian frontiers, and Zoucoukai, on the Chinese frontiers; and it is there at this day that all the commercial operations take place. The Russian ambassador even obtained permission to send royal caravans to Peking. But the Russians did not show themselves to be wiser than in former times, and the angry Chinese caused the guilty ones to perish; the Russian government dared only to show its dissatisfaction.

In 1770, 300,000 Kalmucks, dissatisfied with the Russian government, left the shores of the Volga, where they were established, and traversing

the desert, demanded an asylum from the Chinese emperor Kiaw-Loung, who received them with cordiality. Catherine II., who reigned then in Russia, protested energetically against this. But the emperor paid no attention to this, and received other Kalmucks who soon after abandoned the Russian territory, and refused entirely to allow the royal caravans to come to Pekin; but Commerce went on without interruption on the frontiers. The Russian caravans carry the furs of foxes, beavers, castors, of Kamkschatka and of America, coral, clocks, linens, woolen cloths, wool, leather, looking-glasses, glass, &c., and give them to the Chinese in exchange for silk, precious stones, tea, cotton, rice, porcelain, rhubarb, gauze-crape, mourning-crape, musk, anniseed, silks with threads of gold, velvets, tobacco, sugar-candy, preserved ginger, pipes, combs, dolls made of silk and of porcelain.

In the time of Catherine this business was valued at 20,000,000 of francs, equally divided between the Russians and Chinese. The business has constantly progressed ever since, and in 1850 the Russians exported to China 28,000,000 francs' worth of merchandise. The caravans of Kiatka have not alone the privilege of the Commerce between China and Russia; the independent Tartars carry to Oremberg and Troizkai the provisions which they purchase in India and China. A part of this merchandise, and of that brought by other caravans from Thibet, from India, from Khiva, from Bokhara, from all Central Asia, from Persia, from Georgia, from Armenia—arrive at the great fair at Nijnei-Novgorod, at the confluence of the Volga and the Oka, where, it is said, 600,000 merchants assemble. To give an idea of the importance of the Commerce of Russia with the different countries of Asia, it is sufficient to say that she imports by the Caspian 8,000,000 francs' worth of merchandise, to which must be added about 10,000,000, to represent the productions which she receives by land from the Turkish and Persian provinces. She buys 116,000,000 francs' worth of Chinese productions, and brings from Bokhara and Tartary 76,000,000. Her exports by land to Asia amount to 170,000,000 of francs.

It would be easy for Russia to bring all this Commerce to the Black Sea, without doing any prejudice to her provinces in the north of Europe. She is doing everything for the accomplishment of this result, and nature has traced the route by which this immense Commerce would easily flow into the Euxine. The most considerable rivers in Russia—the Dnieper, the Dniester, and the Don—empty into this sea; and with them, all the agricultural and manufacturing riches of Russia would descend into the Euxine, attracted there by the merchant vessels of the maritime nations of southern Europe, of western Asia, and of the north of Africa. In order to prevent any obstacle to this powerful current of Commerce, which would bring to the south the productions of the northeast of Europe, the rivers just mentioned were connected with the Baltic and the White Sea by means of a vast system of canalization, conceived and commenced by the genius of Peter the Great.

The Danube alone could bring into the Russian ports of the Black Sea the Commerce of a large part of western Europe; for the Danube, united to the Rhine by the canal Louis, which puts it in direct communication with France, Belgium, and Holland, offers to Commerce the most direct line of communication between Europe and Asia. The Caspian is connected with the Northern Sea by means of an immensely important canal, which joins the Volga to the Msta, a tributary of the Volchov, which falls

into the Lake of Ladoga. This lake communicates with the Baltic (Gulf of Finland;) the Volga itself is connected with the Lake of Ladoga by the Canal of Tehkvin; and the canals of Koubensk and of the north unite the Caspian with the White Sea.

However great the importance of this network of canals in Russia in Europe, still they do not suffice to carry out but a part of the commercial projects of Peter the Great. It was still necessary to bring eastern Asia and the Black Sea into communication with the Caspian Sea. Peter, as we have already seen, had traced on a map the plan of a canal between these two seas; this was no more than the renewal of the project of Seleucus, of which we have spoken in its place. At a later period he decided to join these seas by means of a canal between Clavlia, a tributary of the Don, and the Kamychenka, a tributary of the Volga—an enterprise which had been attempted by the Venetians and the Tartars of the Crimea.

There were great difficulties to overcome before completing this canal, for the Don is higher than the Volga. But Peter undertook to overcome them, and employed an English engineer named Perry, who, after three years' labor, was obliged to abandon it to complete fortifications of immediate necessity. Catherine II. caused the enterprise to be carried on for two years; but the Ravine of Peter the Great, as it is called, is still unfinished.

Now, it is probable a railroad will take the place of a canal. The Black Sea has already become almost a Russian lake. The Caspian belongs to the Czar, for Persia has lost the right to keep an armed force there, and her communication with the Black Sea becomes at once of the greatest importance to Russia. Besides, the Caspian receives the Volga, that immense stream which traverses all southern and eastern Russia, which, by the aid of the Kama—one of its tributaries—is connected with the Ural Mountains, so rich in mines of gold, platina, iron, and copper; also the rich productions of all eastern and central Asia, of Persia, of Armenia, and the neighboring countries, flow into the Caspian by different routes. Now, to carry out the commercial views of Russia, it remains to put the Caspian in direct communication with all central Asia as far as India and China. Nature had primitively established this immense line of communication, by making but one great internal sea of the Aral and Caspian. Ever since the epoch of the separation of these two seas by the vast steppes of Manquischlaks, a communication still existed, if it is true that as late as the tenth or eleventh century of our era the ancient Oxus (Amou Daria) emptied into the Caspian, placing her in direct communication with the southwest frontiers of China and the north of India; but in the present day this river empties into the Aral, but still could, by its numerous tributaries and by caravans, easily bring the productions of Chinese Tartary, of Thibet, of Cashmere, and of India, by Khiva, to the Aral, which receives the Scria Daria, (Jaxade,) which is the route of an active Commerce and the best communication with the table-lands of China, Turkistan, southern Russia, and the Black Sea.

From the preceding, it is easy to understand the efforts made by Russia to get possession of Khiva, which is at the head of the Amou Scria (Oxus.) Once mistress of this place, Bokhara would soon see her at her gates, and Khokanee, which is near, would become her prey. Then she would at pleasure direct the caravans of China, of Thibet, and of India. After that,

it would be easy to create a communication between the Caspian and the Aral, and the Black Sea would be connected with the extreme east. Independently of the facilities of communication by water just mentioned, a prodigious quantity of merchandise would come by caravans from the east to the Black Sea.

In two hundred days, the caravans can make the journey from Chin-Si, on the western frontiers of China, to the eastern shores of the Caspian. From there the numerous steamers can easily transport the merchandise to Astrakan. A large part of the Commerce of western Persia, of Armenia, of Mesopotamia, and other countries bordering on the Tigris and the Euphrates, on the northeast of Asia Minor, goes to the Black Sea, and Trebizond is its principal depot. Now, Trebizond is within a few leagues of the Muscovite frontiers. Russia is preparing to extend herself on the south. She already covets Kurdistan and Armenia, would like the possession of the Tigris and the Euphrates, so important to her commercial interests; and in 1829, during the war against the Turks, Gen. Paskiewitch, who was at Ezeroom, had the intention for a moment of taking possession of Bagdad, rendered an important city by its Commerce with Egypt, Arabia, India, Turkistan, and Persia, and depot of the merchandise from the East, which is directed to Syria, Asia Minor, Trebizond, and Constantinople.

Russia, in order to firmly establish her commercial power, tries, like an immense polypus, to stretch her thousand arms over the eastern world. At the same time she attempts to naturalize in her provinces all the industrial arts of the west, and has made a real progress, which is easy to be proved, and of which Europe makes too little account. The Czars, in their haughty pride, do not wish to be obliged to have to ask anything from the rest of the world, and profiting by the different climates united in their vast empire, endeavor to cultivate the productions of every clime. They have no colonies for the production of sugar; but the provinces of Orel and of Sacalof are covered with immense plantations of beets, from which sugar is manufactured. Their southern provinces furnish wheat for part of the west; in 1850 the exportation was enormous. The northern provinces produce prodigious quantities of flax and of hemp. Cotton is cultivated in Georgia and the country taken from Persia; since 1845 indigo has been introduced into the Caucasian provinces; merino sheep by hundreds of thousands are all around Moscow, towards the Baltic, and on the shores of the Black Sea—they prosper everywhere, and produce abundantly. Silk is produced in the southern provinces, and in 1833 the emperor Nicholas caused 4,000,000 of shoots of the mulberry-tree to be planted. The gold mines of Asiatic Russia are very productive, and furnish annually 100,000,000 of francs to the treasury. Finally, the Czars wished to have their wine independently of France, and the Crimea is covered with vineyards.

We look with astonishment, and almost with fear, at the rapid and powerful development of Russian activity; for the genius which has given and still gives impulsion to this great movement of Oriental Slavism is not the friend of liberal institutions, or the tendency of the people towards political and religious emancipation. Any nation whatever that rises, marches onward in grandeur and prosperity, has a claim to our respect and to our sympathies; but in Russia, it is not the *people* that rise—it is the *autocrat*.

Now, Great Britain incommodes and paralyzes the realization of the commercial plans of Russia. All the diplomacy of Europe cannot prevent this, for it grows out of the necessity of expansion, which is the life of England. For Russia there is but one solution to this problem. England is one too many in the world—she must be put down; and the Czars have declared a deadly war against her. Till now it has been in secret; but now it is broken out, and has for its theater Persia, India, and Constantinople.

Indeed, on whichever side Russia turns, whatever may be the designs she meditates or the enterprise to be accomplished, she sees England instantly hurrying on from the West to dispute the prey with her. If the Czar brings the merchandise of Persia and Armenia into the Caspian, England glides into the port of Trebizond, gets a part of this merchandise, and sends into their country two millions sterling of the productions of her manufactures, to the prejudice of Russia. Does the Czar try to monopolize the Commerce of China, the English are there to dispute it with him; does he wish to make the precious merchandise of Thibet, Cashmere, Lahore, &c., pass by the western route, the English bring them by the way of southern India.

Indeed, Russia finds herself frustrated by British activity even at her great fair of Nijnei-Novgorod, in the center of her European provinces. Merchants from all countries of Asia come by thousands to this celebrated fair, where they formerly supplied themselves with goods manufactured in Russia; but latterly they only sell their own merchandise, without buying anything in return, because they prefer, with good reason, those which England sends throughout all Asia, by India, Persia, and China. It can easily be understood that Russia should wish to get rid of this dangerous rivalry.

It would be a great error to suppose that a secret arrangement between St. Petersburg and England could take place, giving Constantinople to the Czar and Egypt to England. This would not be allowed by France, and is diametrically opposite to the policy which Russia has always followed; for to favor the occupation of Egypt by England, would double her power in India, from which Russia wishes to drive her in order to substitute the Black Sea for the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope or by the Arabian Gulf.

The English are aware of the danger which menaces them. They fear constantly to see the Russians extend their dominion over Persia, and take possession of Herat, which is the key of India.

Napoleon, who had thought of driving the English from the shores of the Indus and the Ganges, thought the enterprise could easily be accomplished by Russia, and said to O'Meara, that the Czar could take this country from England in the first year she would be at open war with her. It can easily be understood how poignant the apprehension of such a catastrophe would be for England. She counts 128 millions of inhabitants in her colonies and dependencies. India alone includes 125 millions of her subjects. How fatal to England, that has already such numerous dangers threatening her existence at home, would be the loss of this country, so rich in its productions, and which offers her a market unequalled in the world. But England has powerful means of resistance; she can annihilate the fleets of the Czar, destroy his ports in the Black Sea and in the Baltic, and force him to an honorable peace. Besides, England is not

alone; she is aided by the sword of France, who has an equal interest in preventing Russia from coming into the Mediterranean.

The Czar, if allowed to resuscitate the ancient commercial importance of the Black Sea, would create a monopoly for himself which would weigh heavily on the nations of Southern and Western Europe; the custom-houses on the Bosphorus would naturally protect Russian industry, by imposing heavy duties on the manufactures of other countries. Asiatic productions would arrive in Europe subject to onerous duties, for the Russian government has always been remarkable for the exaggeration of its custom-house taxes. In 1844 the revenue from the customs formed almost a third of the receipts of the royal treasury.

Europe, that has carried the development of commerce and manufactures to such a high point, and has based them on the principle of the liberty of the seas, cannot oppose with too much energy the projects of Russia, which in advancing towards Constantinople, threatens alike her moral and material interests.

Art. II.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XV.

WAR WITH SPAIN AND FRANCE—FRENCH AND COLONIAL PRIVATEERS—LOUISBURG—ITS COMMERCE AND FISHERY—IMPORTANCE—CAPTURE—RANSOM OF MADRAS—TREATY OF 1748—WAR EXPENDITURE REPAID—NOVA SCOTIA—EXPORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN TO THE COLONIES—VARIOUS PRODUCTS—CONTRABAND TRADE, ETC.

1740 TO 1750. In 1741, a British and American expedition was made against the island of Cuba, but returned unsuccessful.

In the year 1742, the fortune of war made a small addition to the sphere of the legitimate Commerce of the colonies, in the capture by the English of Ruatan and other islands of the archipelago, lately made a subject of dispute under the denomination of the "Bay of Islands." At the same time, the home-field was near being diminished through the formidable invasion of Georgia from Florida, in return of the visit of General Oglethorpe to the latter, in 1740—a danger which was averted only by a lucky stratagem on the part of the alarmed governor.

In 1743, the war assumed, regarding the interests both of England and the colonies, a much more serious aspect, by the French becoming a party to the contest, in support of the cause of Spain.

The French and Spanish privateers were soon swarming upon the coasts of the colonies, the latter having their head-quarters in the West Indies, the rendezvous of the former being at Louisburg, in the island of Cape Breton. New England was obliged to abandon the fisheries at Newfoundland and the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Commerce of all the colonies was restricted to such vessels as sailed under convoy. To venture out without such protection was to dare an almost certain capture.

The colonies at once busied themselves in converting a large proportion of their commercial marine into an armed navy, to clear their coasts of the enemy's vessels, and to prey in turn upon their Commerce, as had been

the custom in former wars. From the town of Newport alone ten or fifteen privateers were fitted out in 1744, and upwards of twenty prizes, some of them of great value, were sent in to that place. It is said that during the war, the small colony of Rhode Island had 1,500 men employed in the privateer service. Almost the whole mercantile portion of that colony appears to have engaged in the business, and their success was such that they became quite partial to the necessity which first obliged them to suspend the operations of regular trade. In the privateers sent out by Massachusetts there were several thousand men, and the extent of their quest was from the St. Lawrence to the Orinoco.

But the colonies did not limit their efforts to private enterprise. The New England governments, in obedience to the eager desire of their people, turned their earnest attention to the project of reducing the French possessions at the fishing grounds of the north-eastern waters. To the permanent acquisition, at last effected, of Port Royal and its provincial territory of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, they hoped now to add Louisburg, and the island of Cape Breton. New England had carried on some illicit trade with this place, and the project for its capture originated with Mr. Vaughan, of New Hampshire, who had been there as a trader, and who convinced Governor Shirley of the practicability of the enterprise. Massachusetts made vigorous preparations for the expedition, and while thus engaged, solicited England for the naval aid which the colonies could not well furnish of themselves. Robert Auchmuty, the agent of the colony in England, urged the subject upon the attention of the ministry in 1744, and endeavored, also, in a printed pamphlet, to excite the feeling of the English people in favor of the scheme.

The considerations which at that time would naturally influence the people of New England toward this project, and some of which were set forth in Auchmuty's pamphlet, were indeed very urgent. In the first place, they desired to reopen, and to secure the safety of, their fisheries. In the next place, by possessing themselves of Louisburg, they cut off the source whence multitudes of the enemy's privateers issued, and deprived the French vessels of all resort belonging to their own nation upon the coast of North America. Further, the possession of Louisburg was deemed essential to the preservation of Nova Scotia itself, which had been acquired with so much difficulty and expense, and from the capital of which, in the hands of the French, they had suffered so severely. Early in 1744, a force from Louisburg, under Duvi vier, had surprised the English garrison at Canseau, and destroyed the fort and settlement, and twice from the same source, before its fall, assisted by the Indians of Nova Scotia, was Annapolis, the former Port Royal, besieged. But even should the conquered province be retained, the whole object of its capture was lost, if their old enemy were allowed to maintain his seat in this stronger and more dangerous position.

The work that was thought to have been effected at the conquest of Acadia, remained, in fact, to be yet accomplished. The French had again built up a fishing colony, able to rival New England in the markets of Europe, and endangering the continuance of their privileges in those long-contested waters. If they were driven from this point there seemed to be no other convenient place where they could locate a new fishing establishment, and the monopoly of the fisheries thus fell into the hands of England and her colonies. Again, this colony might become an efficient

source for the supply of the French sugar islands, and by its destruction a blow would be aimed at the supremacy which the latter had recently acquired in the markets of Europe, and upon which the fabric of French power was making such alarming progress.

Another great reason for the acquisition of this island was found in the command which it was supposed to give of the mouth of the St. Lawrence. It would enable the English to cut off all correspondence of the French by that channel with Quebec, the consequence of which would be that the settlements upon the upper waters, the colony of Canada, must be starved out, or fall an easy prey to the English; and thus would be secured to the latter a monopoly of the important fur trade.

These additions to the English colonial empire, and the enlarged advantages afforded to the growth of their existing possessions in America, it was urged, would, besides many other benefits, indefinitely augment the American market for English manufactures and merchandises, generally. This was an argument to which the ear of English ministers was at all times open, for it seemed to be considered that when America were developed into the condition of the great consumer of English fabrics, she would then have completed the main feature of her destiny.

About twenty years before this time the island of Cape Breton was a wilderness. Within that short period had grown up a city, thought to be impregnable to any force likely to be brought against it, and denominated by the French, in their confidence of its strength, the "Dunkirk of America." It was undoubtedly the best defended settlement in the New World, so far as it could be made so by artificial preparations. In the work of building and fortifying this place, the French government had expended 30,000,000 livres, (about 5,550,000*l.*) The walls were built of bricks imported from France, and were guarded by over two hundred pieces of cannon. The population of Louisburg was between 4,000 and 5,000, a number sufficient to have placed it within the first class of towns in the assailing English colonies. It is described as a fine city, with palaces, terraces, gardens, and monasteries.

Almost the sole occupation of the inhabitants was the fishery and the trade founded thereon. Some little grain was raised, but the attention paid to agriculture was very slight. Most of their necessaries of all kinds were obtained from the sale of their fish, a business that was found very lucrative. According to the detailed statements furnished by the captor, there were employed annually upon the eastern shore of Cape Breton, belonging to the island, 500 shallops, employing 2,500 men, and 60 brigs, schooners, and sloops, employing on sea and shore 900 others, making 3,400 men in the fisheries resident upon the island. The catch made by these was 186,000 quintals yearly, in the transportation of which to Europe would be required 93 ships, and about 1,900 men.

Beside the fishery of Cape Breton, there was a still larger one from France, in the neighboring waters, dependent upon the possession of the island. From St. Maloes and Granville there were at least 300 ships yearly fishing at Petit-nord, Fichance, Belle-isle, and the gulf. There were ships also from St. Jean de Sur, Bayonne, Nantes, and Havre de Grace. From other ports in France there were ships fishing at the ports of Gaspé, Quadre, Port en Basque, the Les Toils Islands, &c. Beside all these, there were constantly from the rivers Sindie, Oliene, Poiteaux, Havre, &c., 150 ships at least, or by the French accounts, 200, carrying about 4,000 men, em-

ployed in the *mort-vert*, or mud fishery. The total number of vessels employed in the French North American fishery was stated at 625; the number of men employed, 30,000; and the annual amount of fish carried to France, 1,250,000 quintals, or about 50,000,000 fish, beside 12,465 hogsheads of train-oil. The value of this product in France was estimated at 809,342*l.*, and the amount of the freightage upon its transportation at 172,350*l.* The amount of French woolen manufactures used for clothes, bedding, &c., by the men employed in the ships and boats at 30*s.* sterling yearly per head, amounted to 41,250*l.* Then there was the demand for canvas, cordage, lines, hooks, nets, twine, lead, nails, spikes, edge-tools, graplins, anchors, &c., for all this great fleet. If this fishery, with the trade by which it was supported, were in the same extent as those enjoyed by France, transferred to England, the value, it was declared by Anderson, would "be found of greater consequence than any other trade dependent on our plantations, not even excepting the tobacco trade. For the combined objects of furnishing a nursery for seamen, encouraging the business of ship-building, affording a market for English manufactures, and enlarging trade with the south of Europe, no interest in the English colonies could rival it." The value of the New England catch was at this time probably not above one-fourth of that of France, and was deemed to inure much more to the benefit of those colonies than of the mother country.

The mercantile interest of New England, as usual in these essays against the commercial interests of France, took the lead in this undertaking with a spirit equal to the occasion. No project could be more popular with that portion of the community. The other colonies, as far to the South as Pennsylvania, were invited to join in the expense, dangers, and profits of the enterprise; but they all refused participation in what they considered so mad a project. Nothing weakened in her purpose by this refusal, and not willing even to wait the uncertain co-operation of the home government, New England went on with preparations upon her own account. Admiral Warren, commanding in the West Indies, was solicited for naval aid, which he declined furnishing. The refusal was kept secret, and the troops embarked; but, happily, the admiral was ordered to assist in any operations from New England, in season to join the expedition while yet at sea.

In order to provide the number of vessels necessary to transport the troops, Massachusetts had laid a general embargo, and also impressed private property. There were in the fleet, of all kinds of vessels, upon its arrival at Louisburg, about one hundred sail. The colonies had themselves twelve ships. In making the preparations, bills of credit were plentifully issued. The expense to the four colonies engaged was above 200,000*l.* sterling—other accounts say Massachusetts alone expended 400,000*l.*—or about a million of dollars; an immense amount, as Burke remarked in his eulogy upon their proceedings, for such colonies. The population of New England was then below 400,000.

The man selected to command the expedition, William Pepperell, Esq., was a wealthy merchant, residing in Kittery, now within the State of Maine.

The value of the stores of European merchandise of various kinds, and of fish, found by the captors at Louisburg, was immense. Pepperell kept the French flag flying after the city was in his possession, in order that the fishing and merchant vessels bound thither from France might not be

notified of the change of masters, and by this means acquired the possession of property to the farther amount of above \$1,000,000.

The conquest of Louisburg was really the great event of the war. It was the only real advantage gained by England over France during the whole contest. The joy manifested in England upon the receipt of the unexpected intelligence, was no less intense than the feeling of the victor colonies. Pepperell and Gov. Shirley were knighted. It was considered that all mishaps of the war were redeemed; and leading statesmen and economists declared that "the acquisition of Cape-Breton is, of itself and alone, a sufficient compensation for the war."

The effect of the loss of Louisburg upon the French fisheries was immediately visible. In a single year their fishing fleet was reduced to less than 100 vessels.

Some of the privateers fitted out in this war were vessels of very considerable weight of metal. Two ships of 22 guns each, and carrying 400 men between them, sailed from Newport in December, 1745, for the Spanish Main. They were never heard of after, and their loss made 200 widows in that town.

The privateers of the enemy still continued along the southern coasts. In 1746, finding the Delaware River unprotected, they made many captures of vessels going in and out, and ascended the river itself as high as Newcastle, in Delaware, and even threatened Philadelphia. In May, 1748, the city was again alarmed by a Spanish privateer in the bay.

To recover Louisburg, and to conquer New England, or so far cripple her that she would in future be the source of less trouble, the French government fitted out, in 1746, the great expedition of D'Anville, the news of which filled those colonies with consternation. But the elements and disease combined to defeat the vast armament.

But in a remote quarter of the globe the French were in that year successful in an enterprise which was really to New England the most disastrous event of the war, as being the occasion of the loss of what they had themselves effected. This was the capture of Madras, the capital of the English East India Company's possessions.

The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, to which, beside England, France, and Spain, Holland and Austria having been also involved in the war, were parties, by an article of *status ante bellum*, obliged the mutual restoration of all conquests. The restoration of Louisburg was made the equivalent for the recovery of Madras. Thus did New England pay in behalf of the wealthy and powerful East India Company the ransom of their capital. England agreed also to abandon all the islands occupied by her on the coast of Central America, but violated this part of the agreement, continuing still to maintain possession of Ruatan and some other islands. It was agreed also with France that the West India islands of Dominica, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, and Tobago, should remain neutral, and in the unmolested possession of the Carribbee Indians. Beside these concessions, the British ministry was willing to omit all reference to the right of English subjects to navigate the American seas without being subjected to search or molestation—a leading object of the war in regard to France having been to compel that nation to relinquish the practice of such obstruction. The sole advantage derived from the contest, if it were any advantage, on the part of England and her colonies—the only compensation for the immense debt contracted—was that the sovereignty of the German princess, Maria Theresa, had been upheld.

The restoration of Cape Breton excited the strongest feelings of indignation in the New England colonies, and their discontent was vented in an unreserved attack upon the ministry, which they charged with a desire of upholding the power of Louis in America, as a means of check upon the spirit of independence growing up within the colonies. Their complaints were strongly supported by a party in England, which denounced the ministers as having wantonly sacrificed interests of the first magnitude. It is certain that there had been for some time a jealousy in the minds of certain English statesmen, conceived from the rapid development of the commercial and political importance of the colonies—a feeling which the successful energy exhibited in this war was but calculated to strengthen.

It would seem that a proper regard to justice would have dictated that the cession of Cape Breton should be accompanied with some share in the advantages derived by the East India Company from the restoration of its territories; but the exclusive privileges of the company remained unimpaired, and the proud association thought little of its obligation to New England.

The aid derived from the efforts of the colonies was not, however, unrecognized by the imperial government. At the conclusion of the war, Parliament gratefully acknowledged the indebtedness of the nation to them, and considered it "just and reasonable that the several provinces and colonies of Massachusetts Bay, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island be reimbursed the expenses they have been at in taking and securing to the crown of Great Britain the Island of Cape Breton and its dependencies." In conformity with this resolution, these colonies were paid 183,649*l.* sterling, and the same year (1748) the agent arrived at Boston with six hundred and fifty-three ounces of silver and ten tons of copper. This event restored the good humor of the colonies, and re-inspired their fainting loyalty.

It was determined also to take efficient measures to obviate, as far as possible, the disadvantages of the surrender of Louisburg, by building up a contiguous colony strong enough to secure the rights of England and her dependencies in the fishery, and to hold the retroceded colony in check. The attention of the government was, therefore, actively directed toward Nova Scotia. Hitherto, since coming into the possession of England, this region had been slighted. Its population was still composed almost wholly of French, who were accused at each rupture between France and England of violating the condition of neutrality upon which they were allowed to remain, and of Indians in their interest. Beyond the garrisons, there were few English residents in the province. In 1749 there were sent out 4,000 of the disbanded soldiers engaged in the late war, every private being allowed fifty acres of land, with ten more for each member of his family; and all officers above the rank of captains, six hundred acres, and proportionately for their families. Emigrants were conveyed free of expense, and provided with arms, ammunition, and utensils and materials for clearing land and building houses, and were, beside, maintained in their new home for a twelvemonth by the government. Parliament also afforded considerable annual grants of money, to encourage the growth of the colony.

The town of Halifax was founded upon a very fine harbor, as better situated for the objects for which the colony was established than Annapo-

lis. The English designed also the colonization of New Brunswick, which was claimed as embraced within the undefined limits of Nova Scotia. But the French, denying this claim, and alarmed at a project which would have given the English effective control of the Gulf and of the St. Lawrence, erected fortifications at the neck of the peninsula, also upon the St. John's, and at other points, completely restricting the progress of English settlement.

STATE OF TRADE. The exports of Great Britain to her continental and West India colonies in the years 1744-8, were as given below. It should be here remarked, that in the statistics of the English custom-houses at this time, the valuation of all articles was based upon a scale established a half century before, and which, of course, varied largely from the rates of existing values in trade. It was not until after 1800 that a better practice was adopted:—

	Continental.	West Indies.		Continental.	West Indies.
1744.....	£640,000	£796,000	1747.....	£726,000	£856,000
1745.....	534,000	503,000	1748.....	830,000	734,000
1746.....	754,000	472,000		<u>£3,484,000</u>	<u>£3,361,000</u>
Difference in favor of the Continental Colonies.....					123,000

The total exports of England in 1750 were 12,699,081*l.*, the imports being 7,772,039*l.*

New England, about the year 1745, was in possession of about 1,000 vessels, exclusive of fishing craft. One compensating advantage for restrictions elsewhere afforded by a state of war to the shipping of the Northern colonies, was their enlarged employment in the transportation of the products of Maryland, Virginia, and the British sugar colonies, which in time of peace relied mainly upon British vessels. At Charleston, in 1744, there were loaded 230 vessels, and 1,500 seamen were employed in the trade of that port. By the custom-house returns of this period, it appears that the commercial towns of the colonies ranked in the following order: Boston stood in the first importance; Philadelphia occupied the second rank; the third position belonged to New York; the fourth to Charleston; the fifth to Newport; the sixth to Perth Amboy, in New Jersey.

The entrances from, and clearances to foreign places from several of the colonial ports in 1749, were as follows. While there were so many vessels employed in the trade of Portsmouth, New Hampshire owned only two or three vessels engaged in foreign Commerce. Marblehead began about this time to engage in foreign trade:—

	Cleared.	Entered.		Cleared.	Entered.
Boston.....	504	489	Newport.....	160	75
Philadelphia.....	291	303	Portsmouth, N. H.....	121	73
New York.....	286	232			

The imports into Philadelphia from Great Britain, in 1749, were nearly as great as in any three consecutive years previously. For the years 1749-52, the clearances from Philadelphia averaged yearly 403 vessels. From Charleston, in 1748, the exports were—of rice, 55,000 barrels; of corn, 39,308 bushels; of sweet potatoes, 700 bushels. There was shipped also from the same port *seven bags of cotton*, valued at 3*l.* 11*s.* 5*d.* per bag. From Georgia, in 1750, eight vessels cleared, with exports valued at 2,004*l.* sterling.

But the peace which afforded so strong an impetus to the growth of several commercial towns of the colonies, operated unfavorably upon the interests of some others. There were a few towns, among which Newport was prominent, which had invested their capital so largely in vessels adapted expressly to the privateering service, and the seamen and merchants of which had acquired such a taste for that species of enterprise, that it was some years before they could again accommodate themselves to a state of peace, and in the meantime their interests were suffering in the transition state.

TOBACCO. The imports of tobacco into Great Britain from the American colonies, in 1744-5-6, averaged yearly above 40,000,000 lbs., according to the custom-house statements, of which amount 7,000,000 lbs., paying a duty of 138,541*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, were consumed in the kingdom, and the remaining 33,000,000 lbs., (being allowed a drawback of duties,) was re-exported to other parts of Europe. The British shipping employed in the tobacco trade amounted to 25,000 tons. By another account the quantity of tobacco imported from the colonies was 62,000 hogsheads, or 55,800,000 lbs., and another statement placed it at the still higher amount of 80,000 hogsheads, or 72,000,000 lbs., of which Great Britain was said to use 18,000,000 lbs.* Assuming an average value of 6*d.* per lb., the value of the quantity first stated as the import would have been 1,000,000*l.*, and that of the last-named quantity 1,800,000 *l.* The larger amounts were estimates, in which allowance was made for considerable quantities said to be smuggled into England. We find, however, by statements elsewhere that the smuggling business upon the British coasts had been of late years, in a great degree, suppressed. Anderson says these two estimates were made up by interested parties, and were designed to operate upon the Parliament, then debating the scheme of a new general subsidy of 5 per cent upon imported commodities, from which the sugar, tobacco, and some other interests, were making strenuous efforts to gain exemption.

INDIGO. The production of rice in Carolina had for some time been so large as to overstock the market of Europe, and to occasion such a depression of price that the profits of the culture had become very small. The enhanced rates of freight and insurance during the war, made it absolutely necessary to divert a portion of their industry to some other channel. They soon fell upon the "true indigo plant," which Murray says was found "growing spontaneously almost everywhere there," but which is stated by others to have been propagated by seed brought there from the West Indies in 1743. In 1747, there was exported from Carolina to England 200,000 lbs. of indigo, and the next year the merchants of Charleston petitioned Parliament for a small bounty on the importation of the article into England as an encouragement to the planters of that colony. This petition was seconded by merchants, clothiers, and dyers from all parts of England, and an act was accordingly passed giving a bounty of 6*d.* per lb. on all indigo raised in any of the British American colonies, and imported direct into Great Britain.

SILK. To encourage the culture of silk in the colonies, Parliament, in 1749, enacted that raw silk grown there might be imported in British vessels into the port of London duty free. A bounty was also offered at the

* Notwithstanding the laws inhibitory of the culture of tobacco in Great Britain, Scotland was supposed to export at this time 7,000,000 lbs., yearly of her own tobacco.

same time on the production, and a person named Ortolengi was employed to teach the people of Georgia and Carolina the Italian mode of the culture. The silk produced in Georgia was also bought by the government at 3s. a lb., as a constant price, of which three-fourths at least was regarded as bounty. In 1750, there was exported from Georgia 118 lbs. raw silk, and the culture slowly increased in Georgia and Carolina.

IRON. The manufacture of iron in its ruder stages, lately undertaken, was rapidly progressing in several of the colonies. Before 1750 furnaces had been erected, as mentioned, in Pennsylvania, in New York, in New Jersey, and in Maryland. Extensive explorations in search of mines had been made, and were still going forward, and it is said that letters of Sampson Simson, who was actively engaged in the business, written in 1750, show that nearly all the mines now known within the original States had then been discovered. The abundance of wood and iron, and the high price of the metal abroad, stimulated the colonies in this enterprise. The English, as yet, produced but about 17,000 tons of pig-iron yearly. They had acquired no more skill, and were possessed of no better machinery for the business, than the colonists. Indeed, it was not until 1760 that bellows were operated in England by water-power, while the blast was worked in that manner in the furnaces alluded to as already existing in the colonies.

Coal had not yet been discovered, or if discovered the veins had not been worked, and some of the more reflective minds of the time, anticipated a deficiency of fuel to be soon realized, especially in the more northern colonies, which threatened not only to restrain the growth of the iron interest, but to obstruct the whole progress of the colonies. They endeavored to avert the impending evil, by petitioning for compulsory legislation regarding the planting of trees by the farmers. But the woods held out until such time as the coal fields could be opened, and the iron interest, with others depending upon fuel, escaped with but the threat of this early suppression.

Had the colonies been allowed unrestricted progress in the manufacture of iron, they would, in a short time, have undermined the establishments set up in that business in England. The English manufacturers were excessively anxious for full protection in all the superior branches of the business against the colonists, but were willing the latter should be allowed to reduce their ore into pigs and even bars, if they were restrained from any process beyond these stages. The rougher operations could be done better and cheaper in America than in England, and it was an advantage to the English manufacturers to encourage the working of the American mines. Petitions referring to these combined objects were frequently presented to Parliament. One act upon the subject had already been passed, as we have noticed, in 1719. In 1750, after animated debate on sundry of these memorials—the policy of allowing the colonies the right of unrestricted manufacture finding zealous advocates—an act was passed permitting the import into London *duty free* of pig and bar iron from the colonies; but prohibiting the erection or continuance, if already erected, of any mill or other engine for *slitting* or *rolling* iron, or any *plating forge* to work with a tilt hammer, or any furnace for *making steel*, in the colonies. Every such mill, forge, furnace, or engine, was declared by the act a *common nuisance*, the penalty of committing which was 200*l.*, and which the several governors, upon information being given them, were ordered, in the forfeit of 500*l.*, to have abated.

The amount of pig-metal exported from the colonies to Great Britain in 1750 was 3,425 tons. The market thus made free to the rougher manufacture was enjoyed until the Revolution, and this branch gained deep root in the colonies.

COPPER. Copper ore was still mined in Jersey to a very considerable extent, and shipped at New York for Bristol, England, where it sold at 40*l.* a ton.

FLAX, LINEN, WOOLEN, ETC. Flax had become a considerable article of export from Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and several others of the colonies. During the war, the people of Carolina endeavored to follow the example of the northern colonies, employing a portion of the slaves in the manufacture of linen, woolen, and other articles, in lieu of the cultivation of rice. Their success was, however, very indifferent, and these attempts were soon relinquished for the indigo culture. In 1745, Parliament passed an act calculated to discourage these manufacturing efforts in the colonies, giving an additional bounty on the export of British and Irish linens of one half-penny per yard on such as was valued at 5*d.* to 12*d.* per yard, and of 1½*d.* on linens of 12*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per yard. Great progress had of late been made in the linen manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland, and the price of the article had been much reduced.* New England remained almost alone in the woolen and linen manufacture, of all the English colonies; the latter was extensively carried on in Massachusetts and New Hampshire, and from the former Massachusetts nearly supplied her own wants. About 1750, an act was adopted by Parliament prohibiting the exportation by sea, or carriage by land, from one province to another, of all wools and woolen goods, of the produce of the colonies.

The **POTATO** is mentioned in 1749, as among the products of Virginia, Carolina, New York, and New England. Ginseng was found in 1751 growing wild abundantly in the neighborhood of Stockbridge, Massachusetts.

NAVAL ARTICLES. An act of Parliament, in 1750, prohibited the felling of white-pine trees in the colonies, unless within private inclosures.

REGISTRATION. We have mentioned the enactments 7 and 8 King William III., (1695-6,) and the 5th Anne, (1707,) providing for the registration of all ships that may lawfully be employed in the British, Irish, or colonial trade as of British, Irish, or plantation build, or as prize-ships made free. It was about this time discovered that these acts had of late been extensively violated in the colonies, certificates of register having been sold to foreigners, who, under this cover, had introduced foreign-built vessels into the colonial trade. To repair this breach in the exclusive system, it was, in 1742, enacted that the master of every ship arriving in America should take oath of all the qualifications necessary to establish the fact of the complete possession of such ships by British subjects.

THE WHALE FISHERY. In 1749, Parliament granted further encouragement to the fishery for whales. The existing laws provided a bounty of 20*s.* a ton to British vessels engaged in the pursuit. This premium was now raised to 40*s.*, and extended to American vessels, being so arranged as to encourage the building of large vessels in the colonies. The bounty was to be paid to vessels of 200 tons and upwards, not over two years old, en-

* An ineffective act was also passed at the same time to suppress the use of French cambrics and lawns, by a penalty of £3 on the wearer.

gaging in the fishery, upon their arrival in England from the cruise, certain other conditions being annexed.

About the middle of the century, Pitkin says, whales began to grow scarce on the American coast, and the Nantucket whalers consequently began to extend their search to the Western Islands, to Brazil, and finally to the Northern and Southern Oceans.

CODFISH. The exports of codfish from New England, in this period, averaged above 50,000 quintals yearly, of which 32,000 were sent to Spain, Italy, and other places on the Mediterranean, and about 9,000 quintals to the West Indies.*

RUM. The distillation of West India molasses was now carried on to such an extent in New England, that the price of rum had fallen to the very low rate of 2s. sterling a gallon. New Hampshire had a single distillery.

CONTRABAND TRADE. Immediately upon the close of the war, the northern colonies returned vigorously to the contraband trade with the Spanish and other foreign islands in the West Indies, and with Mexico, Central America, and the upper provinces of the southern continent. The South Sea Company's trade with Spanish America came to an end, by a treaty between Spain and England in 1750.

Art. III.—THE "MERCHANTS' FUND" OF PHILADELPHIA.

SUCH is the title of an excellent association incorporated by the Legislature of Pennsylvania on the 28th of January, 1854. The object of the "Merchants' Fund" is to furnish relief to indigent merchants of the city of Philadelphia, especially such as are aged and infirm. It is somewhat similar in its character to the Mercantile Beneficial Association established in the same city some ten or twelve years since, to the history and progress of which we referred at the time in the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

The affairs of the Merchants' Fund are under the direction of a Board, consisting of a President, two Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, and fifteen additional managers elected by the members. Life memberships are constituted by the payment of fifty dollars, and annual members pay five dollars per annum.

The first anniversary of this society was celebrated at the Musical Fund Hall on the 6th of February, 1855, upon which occasion the meeting was addressed by the Rev. Dr. Boardman. To his address, and the report of the Board of Managers, which have been published, we are indebted for the facts contained in the present article.

From the report of the President we learn that the receipts have amounted, during the year it has been in operation, to \$3,500, and the payments to \$2,871—leaving a balance of cash on hand of about \$689. The association have invested in Philadelphia city 6 per cent bonds—making the avail-

* A great company was organized in England in 1750, with a capital of £500,000, to carry on the herring fishery at the north of Scotland, then still in the hands mainly of the Dutch. The project met with no better success than attended other associations organized for a similar purpose. The fisheries were never successfully managed by large companies.

able means, at the time the report was made, \$2,228. The sum of \$1,000 has been bequeathed to the association by one of its late managers, Elliott Cresson, Esq.

The appropriations for relief have been made to seven individuals. Five of these are now under the care of the association. Two are beyond the sympathy and aid of the society.

We believe this is the first attempt that has been made to provide, by a systematic organization, for the decayed merchant. We trust an example so laudable will be followed by the prosperous merchants of all our Commercial cities.

A few extracts, embracing the substance of the report, will give our readers some idea of the character and aims of the Merchants' Fund Association :—

"By the wise and humane provisions of our by-laws, the bestowment of pecuniary relief is private and confidential; but we may state that all the beneficiaries are aged men, none less than 70 years old. All were esteemed through their business lives as men of integrity and honor, and who in adversity as well as in prosperity, were without reproach. They have also, in each case, continued to labor as they could for the support of themselves and those dependent upon them, although it is within our knowledge that, in their patient struggles to provide for the day that was passing over them, they were sometimes—and we fear often—limited to a single scanty meal for the 24 hours. It must be of interest to add, that of all the recipients of the donations of the society, no one had sought its help. The information of their wants was obtained from other sources, and the assistance rendered entirely unlooked-for; but not on that account less gratefully received or less affectingly acknowledged, nor in most cases without tears."

In bespeaking for it the thoughtful attention of the merchants of Philadelphia, the President says :—

"If other professions need their beneficial associations, we more; for, without vouching for the accuracy of some statistics on this point, it is admitted by common consent, that around no other professions do there cluster exposures to reverses of fortune so numerous or so great. The present is not the proper occasion for expatiating upon these perils which beset the merchant's path, or upon their too frequent fatal issues; but we may be permitted to remark, that for results so lamentably common, there must be a cause as general. What this is may be readily perceived.

"Apart from the exposure to pecuniary reverses, arising from inexperienced incompetent abilities, sickness, fraud, or any of the calamitous accidents to which the merchant, in common with all others, is liable, his peculiarity is that he is the representative and exponent of credit in this and every commercial country. His business, his fortune, his capital must suffer, when from any cause, or combination of causes, the monetary condition of the country is disturbed. Whether this occurs from ill-adjusted tariffs, the errors of banking, the extravagant undertakings of corporations for public improvements, wars in another hemisphere, drouths on the land, or tempests on the ocean, it is the commercial profession which first feels, and must chiefly bear the shock. Against this, as a breakwater, every wave beats and expends its force; while behind this barrier many a bark, which would otherwise be wrecked, may lie at safe and peaceful anchorage.

"To protect the merchant from the disasters to which he is thus exposed, or to assure to him in his stricken fortunes the comforts and privileges of his days of affluence, it would be vain to expect. The Merchants' Fund contemplates no such visionary purpose. Its single design is to furnish relief to those of our profession who are in destitute circumstances, and who in their sore calamities have no other earthly help. This object will plead its own cause in the hearts

of the liberal-minded merchants of Philadelphia, who, while with ready hand they are distributing to other and various charities, will not forget the peculiar claims of those of their own household. All that is necessary, all that can ever be necessary, to secure help in such a cause in this community, is to demonstrate that the attainment of the object is, in any good degree, within the compass of private munificence, and that the funds will be faithfully and judiciously bestowed."

The present number of life members is 57, who have paid \$50 each; and of members paying \$5 annually, 209. In a city of merchants and business men like Philadelphia, the annual subscribers to a "Merchants' Fund," devoted to purposes of such unquestionable utility and benevolence, should number by thousands, rather than hundreds.

The following touching narrative, furnished by one of the officers of the Merchants' Fund, forcibly illustrates the character of the institution, and with it we bring this sketch of the association to a close:—

"The name of C. D. having been suggested as a proper object of the benefactions of the society—for of all the beneficiaries of the fund none have ever made application—he was immediately recollected by some of the committee as having formerly been an active and respected merchant of our city, and in circumstances of considerable affluence. Having, however, experienced severe reverses of fortune, he had, for many years, been withdrawn from the business world, and was living in great seclusion, and, from some circumstances, it was feared in occasional want. Upon visiting his family at their humble lodging, this apprehension was realized. With that shrinking from an exposure of their poverty which, if it be an infirmity, is the infirmity of noble minds, they have struggled on for years, earning by their united labor the means of providing sometimes one, sometimes two meals a day. The father, of more than 80 years old, gained from 30 to 35 cents per day by collecting small bills—an occupation which took him from Kensington to Southwark, and from the Delaware to the Schuylkill, and in all weather. His aged partner was found at the wash-tub, washing the clothes of some mechanics, who paid her as they could afford; while of the two daughters, one earned a scanty pittance by binding shoes, the other had been long confined to her bed from a complaint of the spine.

"Upon being informed that an appropriation had been made for his benefit by the society, he evinced great emotion, but said he could not conscientiously receive it; that though at times sorely straitened, he and his family had so far been fed, while there were doubtless others in greater need. Upon its being explained that the Merchants' Fund did not by any means merely contemplate relieving the extremity of suffering want, but the furnishing of the comforts which age and infirmity require, to those members of the profession who, in the providence of God, were unable to procure them for themselves, he said he could not at any rate avail himself of the kind offer until one fact was made known to the committee. A few years before, an old friend had bequeathed to him the sum of \$500, with a recommendation that the principal should be touched only in case of extreme emergency. So far he had used only the income; nothing but dire necessity should force him to consume the sole provision he had to leave to his aged partner and his invalid daughter. All this must be known by the committee.

"It is almost superfluous to add, that this exhibition of magnanimity—for, to abstain from an offered advantage not to be enjoyed except at the expense of a good conscience, is true moral greatness—did not lessen the desire of the committee to extend to this well-deserving gentleman a participation in the benefits of the Merchants' Fund, which he still continues to enjoy. Upon the final action of the committee being communicated to him, he threw his arms around the neck of the messenger and wept for joy."

ART. IV.—COMMERCIAL LAWS OF LOWER CANADA.

DURING times of commercial embarrassment, plans are proposed by which the honest trader will be protected, and the dishonest one be prevented from cheating his creditors. One might imagine that commercial states would enjoy such a code of laws regulating their Commerce as would leave nothing to be desired. An honest, efficient Bankrupt Law might prove a remedy for many abuses; but such a law, to be of any worth, must be put in force by stern, unbending judges, who will strictly follow its provisions, and grant or refuse certificates of discharge without fear or favor. That which would be swindling in low places, must be considered swindling if practiced by any dweller in a ducal palace. I say nothing of the morality or immorality of discharging a man forever, because he cannot to-day pay the debt he owes me. The question has two sides; but I may be allowed to say, that the argument of "immorality," in the mouths of those who support "statutes of limitations," as regards bills or notes, does not weigh much with me. Because my debtor has now nothing, and I do not therefore expend money to obtain a judgment against him, I cannot make him pay me one penny at the end of five or six years, (as the case may be,) when he may happen to be wealthy, perhaps far wealthier than his creditor! We have this statute in full force, and in all its naked deformity. In an evil hour the common law of lower Canada was altered but not improved. By the provincial law a defendant could plead a *quasi*-prescription of five years to an action on a promissory note, but at the same time he was bound to tender his oath that he had paid or satisfied the same.

I will, as briefly as I can, describe the law as it exists in Lower Canada, and which, if by no means perfect, will at least compare advantageously with the laws of other countries.

A creditor, on making an affidavit that he believes (and on giving the reason of his belief) that his debtor is about leaving the province, whereby he may lose his debt, may arrest his debtor. The debtor, on giving surety is discharged. If judgment be given against the debtor, he may give in special bail, who will not be liable unless he leaves the province.

A creditor can attach the moveable effects and credits of the debtor, upon making an affidavit that his debtor is now about immediately to secrete his estate, debts, and effects, with an intent to defraud his creditors.

A judgment creditor has no preference over other creditors: he may even be examined upon oath by any creditor who may suspect the judgment to have been obtained by collusion with the debtor. Judgment having been obtained against the debtor, the creditor, within a short delay, may issue an execution against the moveables of the debtor: the proceeds of the sale are returned into court, and all creditors (except the privileged ones) come in for their share *pro rata*. The privileged creditors are:—

1. Such persons other than the debtor who negligently or by ignorance have allowed some of their moveables to be sold in execution as belonging to defendant.

2. Persons who have sold to the debtor goods which have not been paid for by the debtor, and sold under such execution.

3. The lessor for the rent of the current year.

4. The clerks' and servants' wages, for their salary up to time of sale, provided not more than one year be due.

If the debtor should die, and execution then issue against his moveable property, the funeral expenses, the physician's bill for his last illness, his baker and butcher, and the expense of making an inventory of his property, would first be paid.

The proceeds of the immoveable property, if there be no mortgages upon it, would also be divided *pro rata*: but if there be *bona fide* mortgages, these are paid according to priority or privilege.

Any gifts or alienations made by an insolvent debtor with a view to defraud his creditors, will be set aside by the courts.

It is very extraordinary how little has been done by the legislatures of commercial States, even during the last century, to protect the creditor from the wiles and cheats of the dishonest debtor. The laws enacted by the French king about three hundred and fifty years ago, gave more protection to the creditor than he enjoys in many countries where English law prevails, and where "cognovits" reign in full sway. The law of Scotland, being based upon the civil law, was more favorable to creditors than that of England, and we accordingly find, "that the action of cession, by which a debtor, on giving up his whole available property to his creditors, is relieved from all existing diligences against his person for civil debts, had a very existence in the common law of Scotland," and if we go as far back as the reign of James VI., (James I. of England,) we find the following excellent law to have been enacted, and which declares: "All alienations, dispositions, assignations, and translations, whatsoever, made by the debtor, of any of his lands, teinds, reversions, actions, debts, or goods, whatsoever, to any *conjunct* or confident person, without true, just, and necessary causes, and without a just price really paid, the same being done after the contraction of lawful debts from true creditors, to have been from the beginning, and to be in all time coming, null and of non-avail, force, nor effect, at the instance of the true and just creditor, by way of action, exception, or reply, without farther declaration," and for the protection of individuals who might have fairly purchased the property of the debtor, from any one to whom it had been so transferred, the law farther declares: "In case of any of his majesty's good subjects, no way partaker of the said frauds, have lawfully purchased any of the said bankrupt's lands or goods by true bargains, for just and competent prices, or in satisfaction of their lawful debts from the interposed person, trusted by the said dysnom: in that case the right lawfully acquired by him who is nowise partaker of the fraud, shall not be annulled in manner aforesaid, but the receiver of the price of the said lands, goods, and others, from the buyer, shall be holden and obliged to make the same forthcoming to the behoof of the bankrupt's true creditors, in payment of their lawful debts."

Under the bankrupt law at one time in force in lower Canada, and which was allowed to expire, it was held that all sales or transfers of property by a bankrupt, within thirty days prior to the bankruptcy, were *prima facie* void, and that in an action by the assignees to recover such property, the burden of proof lay with the defendant, to show his good faith, and that the transaction was in the usual course of dealing. The vendor's privilege upon the goods sold to the bankrupt was abolished. It is perhaps desirable, for the interests of Commerce, that, with or without a bankrupt law, these alterations of our law were again re-enacted.

Two bills for the establishment of a bankrupt court, are now before the legislature; as they meet with much opposition, it is doubtful whether either bill will become law.

ART. V.—THE POULTRY MANIA.

IN past numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, we have from time to time noted the details of numerous *manias* that have had their day in the commercial world—the tulip mania, the famed South Sea expedition, the Mississippi scheme, etc., and we have now to add to the list a few words upon the subject of the *poultry* delusion which has for the past five or six years “run riot” over this and other countries.

A cotemporary has lately remarked, with much truth, that “since the tulip mania it may be doubted if anything more singular than the ‘hen fever’ ever disturbed the minds of men! But the tulip mania was confined to very narrow limits. It raged only amongst Dutchmen, in the little republic of Holland, whilst the hen fever affected people throughout a country from which you might take as much land (and water) as would suffice to make the United Provinces ten times over without missing it. It ran over a whole empire, and seems to have been as acutely felt by the men of Louisiana as by those of New England.”

Unlike the tulip mania the hen fever appears to have grown out of a real desire to improve the articles that were the object of speculation. The Dutch cared no more for the improvement of tulips than they did for the improvement of stones. The tulips were the certificates of fancy stocks, of stocks in companies that never had, and never were intended to have, an existence. “People laugh at the tulip mania,” says Beekman, “because they believe that the beauty and variety of the flowers induced florists to give such extravagant prices; they imagine that the tulips were purchased so excessively dear in order to ornament gardens; but this supposition is false.” The hen speculators, in the proportion of a thousand to one, did look to great improvement in poultry, and some of them, judging from the extravagance of their language, must have expected the appearance of a breed that should be found equal to laying eggs by the dozen on demand, which would have been a great thing for contractors, had it been realized. It is very certain that people were mad on the subject of hens, and that they acted extravagantly, crazily, and but too often with the rankest dishonesty of intention.

It can scarcely be credited, yet there is really no doubt that this “epidemic,” the effect of which has been costly to the people of this country and England, has been serious, yet it has resulted in good, though the experience has been dearly bought. Until the statistics have been placed before us, by statements based upon reliable authority, we had not believed that this mania had actually been carried to that extent which the accounts seem to verify.

For instance—during the hight of the poultry mania in England, in the years 1852, 1853, and 1854, the price paid by British “fanciers” of pet fowls, ranged—for the Dorking breed, \$40 to \$50 for a single pair! As high as \$125 were paid at a Birmingham poultry-show for a pair of diminutive “Seabright Bantams.” A pair of “Cochin China” favorites at a

metropolitan exhibition in London, in 1852, were held at \$700! In the winter of 1852, the "Cottage Gardener" stated that within the last few weeks, a gentleman near London sold one pair of fancy "Cochin China" fowls for thirty guineas, (\$150,) and another pair for thirty-two guineas, (\$160.) At this period £1 sterling was not an unfrequent price, each, for these Chinese chickens, just hatched, or "twelve guineas (\$60) the half-dozen at one month old!" The Bury and Norwich *Post* (England) asserted at this time that "in our own neighborhood, we happen to know that a young cock and two hens (of the Cochin China variety) have been sold for thirty-two guineas, or \$160." In a notice of an English exhibition of fowls, in the year 1853, a British journal remarks that in this show "there is a pen of three geese, weighing forty-eight pounds; and among the Cochin China birds are to be found hens which, in the period that forms the usual boundary of chicken life, have attained a weight of seven or eight pounds. Of the value of these birds it is difficult to speak without calling forth expressions of incredulity. It is evident that there is a desperate mania in bird-fancying, as in other things. Thus, for example, there is a single fowl to which is affixed the enormous money value of 30 guineas; two Cochin China birds are estimated at 25 guineas; and four other birds, of the same breed, a cock and three hens, are rated in the aggregate at 60 guineas—a price which the owner confidently expects them to realize at the auction-sale on Thursday. A further illustration of this ornithological enthusiasm is to be found in the fact that, at a sale on Wednesday last, one hundred and two lots, comprising one hundred and ten Cochin China birds, all belonging to one lady, realized £369 4s. 6d.; the highest price realized for a single one being 20 guineas."

Another British journal stated, a short time previously, that "a circumstance occurred which proves that the Cochin China mania has by no means diminished in intensity. The last annual sale of the stock of Mr. Sturgeon, of Greys, has taken place at the Baker-street Bazaar. The two hundred birds there disposed of could not have realized a less sum than nearly £700, or \$3,500, some of the single specimens being knocked down at more than £12, and many producing £4, £5, or £6 each."

At the Boston Fowl Show in 1852, three Cochin Chinas were sold at \$100; a pair of grey Chittagongs at \$50; two Canton Chinese fowls at \$80; three grey Shanghae chicks at \$75; three white Shanghaes at \$65; six white Shanghae chickens, \$40 to \$45, etc.; and these prices, for similar samples, could have been obtained again and again.

In this same year a Boston agricultural journal stated that "within three months extra samples of two-year-old fowls, of the large Chinese varieties, have been sold in Massachusetts at \$100 the pair. Several pairs, within our own knowledge, have commanded \$50 a pair, within the past six months. Last week we saw a trio of white Shanghaes sold in Boston for \$45. And the best specimens of Shanghaes and Cochin China fowls now bring \$20 to \$25 a pair readily, to purchasers at the South and West."

In 1853 and 1854, Mr. G. P. Burnham, of Boston, a somewhat noted fancier in this country, sent out to England a cage of grey Shanghaes, for which he received \$100 for a trio. A single pair of these same fowls, having carried away the first prize at a show in Birmingham a few months afterwards, were immediately sold, says the London *Field*, by Mr. Baily, to whom Mr. Burnham sent them, to a Mr. Taylor, of Shepard's Bush, at the enormous sum of £100 sterling, or \$500!

In this country, for four or five years, the average price of what were deemed by the "initiated" first-class China fowls, of known purity of blood, ranged at from \$10 to \$25 for a single pair—and hundreds of choice birds have been quickly sold at double these figures in the last three years. The furore of these monstrous domestic fowls was by no means confined to any particular portion of this country; but, as in England, it pervaded all classes, from the queen to the peasant, and extended from the Tyne to the Isle of Wight—so, on the American continent, from Passamaquoddy Bay to Texas, everybody was more or less affected with the curious, inexplicable, bewitching desire to possess themselves of these foreign fowls!

Messrs. James French & Co., of Boston, have recently published a work, by George P. Burnham, Esq., from which we learn that in a single year (1853) his sales for this fancy stock reached nearly twenty-three thousand dollars. His orders in that season from Louisiana and Mississippi, oftentimes came in sums "varying from \$500 to \$1,200 and \$1,500 each, and in September, 1853, a single shipment was sent by him to Louisiana amounting to \$2,230!

A copy of the *Liverpool Express* in January, 1854, states that "the great metropolitan show in London, just then closed, surpassed all its predecessors; and that the excitement in England, at that time, was at its height." The editor asserts that "it was not an easy thing to exhaust the merits of the three thousand specimens of the feathered tribe there shown. No one," continues the writer, "who is at all conversant with natural history, can fail to find abundance of material for an hour's instruction and amusement. The general character of the exhibition has been already indicated; but this is one of those cases in which no description, however elaborate, can supply the place of personal inspection."

The British correspondent of the *Boston Post*, but a short time previously, wrote that "the fowl fever, which has raged with so much violence in New England during the last three years, has extended to this country. There was a great crowing among the cocks at the late Smithfield cattle-show, and there seems to have been a still louder one at the Birmingham fair."

"The mania for the purchase of fine fowls," continues this writer, "was as furious there as if each of them had been the hen in the fable that found the jewel in the dunghill. Some pairs brought as high as £40, (\$200.) One very fine pair of Cochin Chinas sold for £50, (\$250.) In the catalogue some were marked at £100, the valuation prices of owners who did not wish to sell. With you, in America, the rage for fowl-raising is simply one of fancy and profit, but here it is the result—and a very beneficial one, too—of free trade. The price of eggs and poultry, owing to the great demand, does not fall; the price of grain, owing to free importation, does fall; and hence the great profit which is realized in keeping fowls."

This monster "bubble," like its illustrious predecessors, has at length exploded, however, if we may credit the author of the "*History of the Hen Fever*," (now just issued,) and from whose readable book we have, in this article, made our present "statistical" extracts. Large sums of money have evidently been expended in this transitory delusion, and many persons—with the best of good intentions—have found themselves vastly in error in regard to the prospective profits arising from the traffic in this very uncertain species of property!

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LIABILITY OF CARRIERS AND OTHERS FOR NON-PERFORMANCE OF CONTRACTS WHERE PREVENTED BY INEVITABLE CASUALTY—VOLUNTARY PAYMENTS.

In Court of Appeals, December, 1854. Before the late Judge Edwards, Manuel X. Harmony, respondent, *vs.* Thomas Bingham and others, appellants.

This was an action of covenant upon a sealed agreement between Harmony & Bingham's Transportation Line, commenced in the Superior Court of New York in October, 1846. The action was referred to Hon. Joseph L. Bosworth, as sole referee, who reported in favor of the plaintiff, \$1,560 52, May 8th, A. D., 1851. Motion was made to set aside this report at a general term of that court, and denied, October, 1852, and judgment entered for plaintiff.

A full report of the facts of the case is found in volume i., Duer's Reports, page 209.

Appeal was taken by Bingham to the Court of Appeals, where it was argued by Albert Matthews for appellants, and Benjamin W. Bonney for defendants.

OPINION OF THE COURT—HENRY P. EDWARDS, J.

This suit was brought upon a covenant made by the defendants, that they would carry and transport from the city of New York to Independence in Missouri, and would safely deliver there, within twenty-six days from the first day of April then next, any and all goods which the plaintiff might send by their transportation line, on or before the said first day of April, at certain prices, which were particularly mentioned. This covenant is absolute and unqualified. It is a well-settled rule that where the law creates a duty or charge, and the party is disabled to perform it, without any default in himself, and has no remedy, even, then the law will excuse him; but when the party, by his own contract, creates a duty or charge upon himself, he is bound to make it good, notwithstanding any accident or delay by inevitable necessity, because he might have provided against it by contract. *Paradine vs. Jane*, Aley, 26; *Shubrick vs. Salmond*, 3 Burr, 1,637; *Hadley vs. Clark*, 8 T. R., 259; *Hand vs. Burges*, 4 Wheat., 204; *Beebe vs. Johnson*, 19 Wend., 500; *Angel's Law of Common Carriers*, p. 294; *Chitty on Contracts*, 737.)

This rule has been uniformly followed, and that, too, even in cases in which its application has been considered by the court as attended with great hardship. The only exception which has ever been acknowledged is, where a party has contracted to do a thing which the law considers impossible. (*Co. Litt.*, 206, *vide Shep. Touch.* 164; *Beebe vs. Johnson*, *supra*.)

In this case, the referee has not found that the thing covenanted to be done could not by any means be accomplished, and there is no fact from which we can draw any such inference. It is said, however, that the carrier's receipt, which was given by the defendants to the plaintiffs qualifies the covenant. Whether the covenant could, under any circumstances, be thus qualified, it is not necessary to inquire. It is sufficient for the present purpose, that the receipt is in no respect inconsistent with the covenant. The part relied upon merely excepts damage to the goods by unavoidable accident, and it makes no exception in case of delay in their delivery.

The covenant further provides, that in case of failure to deliver the property at the time and place agreed upon, the defendants shall deduct ten cents per hundred pounds from the freight bill for every day the goods are delayed. It appears from the case that the goods were not delivered until some days after the 26th of April, and that the agents of the defendants refused to make any deduction from the freight by reason of such delay. It further appears that the plaintiff insisted upon a deduction, and that finally, in order to obtain possession of his goods, he paid the amount of freight demanded. The defendants now

contend that this payment was voluntary, and that the plaintiff is not entitled to recover for the non-performance of the covenant. Before examining the question whether the payment made by the plaintiff was voluntary or not, it is proper to refer to the cases upon this subject, as there is an apparent, although, I think, no real discrepancy in their decisions.

In the case of *Astley vs. Reynolds*, (2 Strange. R., 915,) the plaintiff had pawned plate with the defendant to secure the payment of £20, and at the end of three years came to redeem it. The defendant insisted on the payment of £10 for interest, which the plaintiff refused to pay, but finding it impossible to obtain his property upon any other terms, he paid the sum demanded, and brought this action for the surplus beyond legal interest. The court, in giving their opinion, say:—"The cases of payment by mistake or deceit are not to be disputed, but this case is neither, for the plaintiff knew what he did, and in that lies the strength of the objection; but we think that this was a payment by compulsion. The plaintiff might have such an immediate want of his goods that the action of trover would not do his business. When the rule, *volenti non fit injuria*, is applied, it must be when the party had his freedom of exercising his will, which this man had not; we must take it he paid the money, relying upon his legal remedy to get it back again." This decision is referred to with approbation by Lord Mansfield, in the case of *Smith vs. Bromly*, (Doug R., 695, n. 3,) and I have not found any English case in which it has been doubted. In the case of *Hill vs. Shutly*, (4 Johns., 240,) the defendant had agreed to buy the land of the plaintiff, which was to be sold under execution, and reconvey it to him on payment of the money advanced, and reasonable compensation for his trouble. The defendant, having bought the land, refused to reconvey it unless he was paid three hundred dollars, in addition to the principal and interest of the sum advanced; and the plaintiff, in order to obtain his land, paid the sum demanded, and then brought his action to recover back the sum paid. The learned justice who delivered the opinion of the majority, in reviewing the authorities, referred to *Astley vs. Reynolds*, and said that the principle of that case had been subsequently overruled by Lord Kenyon, in the case of *Knibbs vs. Hall*, (1 Esp., 84.) In the last case a tenant had paid a larger sum of money for rent than he admitted to be due, upon a threat made by his landlord to distrain, and, the report says, Lord Kenyon was of opinion that this could not be deemed a payment by compulsion, as the defendant might have, by a replevin, defended himself against a distress.

I should rather say that Lord Kenyon, instead of intending to overrule the principles laid down in *Astley vs. Reynolds*, placed his decision upon the ground of the peculiar efficiency and appropriateness of the action of replevin in a case of illegal distress. In the subsequent case of *Cartwright vs. Bowley*, (2 Esp. R., 722,) Lord Kenyon says that money may be recovered back in an action of *assumpsit*, where it has been paid in consequence of coercion; and, by way of illustration, he says:—"I recollect a case of ——— *vs. Piggott*, where this action was brought to recover back money paid to the steward of a manor for producing at a trial some deeds and court-rolls, for which he had charged extravagantly. The objection was taken that the money had been paid voluntarily, and so could not be recovered back again, but it appearing that the party could not do without the deeds, so that the money was paid through necessity and the urgency of the case, it was held to be reasonable."

In the case of *Smith vs. Bromley*, (*sup.*) money had been advanced by a sister of the bankrupt, to induce a creditor to sign a certificate, which he refused to do without such advance. An action to recover back the money was sustained. In the opinion which was delivered in the case of *Hall vs. Shutley*, above referred to, it is said that the action was sustained as coming within the letter and reason of the statute which prohibited such inducements being taken. I think that an examination of the report will show that the action was not sustained solely upon that ground irrespective of other considerations; for Lord Mansfield says:—"It is argued that, as the plaintiff finds her claim upon an illegal act, she shall not have relief in a court of justice. If the act is in itself immoral,

or a violation of the general rules of public policy, then the party paying shall not have this action; for when both parties are equally criminal against such general laws, the rule is *potior est conditio defendentio*, but there are other laws which are calculated for the protection of the subject against oppression, extortion, deceit, &c. If such laws are violated, and the defendant takes advantage of the plaintiff's condition or situation, then the plaintiff shall recover." And he adds:—"This does not depend upon general reasoning only, but there are analogous cases, as that of *Astley vs. Reynolds*." But notwithstanding some of the views which were expressed by the court in the case of *Hall vs. Shutly*, the decision itself is not inconsistent with any of the cases which were made the subject of comment; for the opinion of the court concludes:—"On the ground that there existed no legal right on the part of the plaintiff to demand or enforce a conveyance, that he must be considered in the light of any other purchaser, and that the defendants might make their own terms, and that the plaintiff has voluntary, and with his eyes open, fixed the compensation claimed by the defendants, and paid them the money, he can have no claim to call on the court to aid him in getting rid of what he conceives an unconscientious advantage. But if there did exist a legal remedy to enforce a reconveyance, as the measure of the defendants claim to compensation rested in arbitrary discretion, the plaintiff, by voluntarily acceding to the terms proposed by the defendants, has lost any right to call on a jury to relieve him from any allowance deliberately fixed by himself." To this opinion Thompson dissented. In the case of *Shaw vs. Wodeneock*, (7 Barnw. & Cr., 73,) the general rule is laid down that a payment made in order to obtain possession of goods or property to which a party is entitled, and of which he cannot otherwise obtain possession at the time, is a compulsory and not a voluntary payment, and may be recovered back. In that case the property consisted of certain policies of insurance belonging to the plaintiff, and upon which the assignees of a bankrupt claimed a lien. In the case of *Allen and Backhouse*, (3 Mees. & W., 633, 649,) the same principle was recognized; and Baron Parke, in giving his opinion, says that there is no doubt of the proposition that if goods are wrongfully taken, and a sum of money is paid simply for the purpose of obtaining possession of the goods again without any agreement at all, especially if it be paid under protest, that money can be recovered back. In the case of *Chase vs. Dwival*, (7 Greenl. 134,) money was paid to liberate a raft of timber, detained in order to exact illegal toll, and it was held that the money could be recovered back on the ground that it was a payment by compulsion. And in the case of *Fleetwood vs. The City of New York*, (2 Sand., 475,) Sandford, J., says that the principle that money paid where there is no mistake or fraud may be recovered back, has been extended occasionally to cases where bailees or others, who come into possession of goods lawfully, have exacted more than was due before they would relinquish that possession. (See *Clinton vs. Strong*, 9 John., 370; *Ripley vs. Gustin*, *ib.*, 201.) In the case before us, according to the provisions of the agreements which had been entered into between the parties, the plaintiff was clearly entitled to a deduction from the freight. The property consisted of merchandise of great value, which had been transported to a remote part of the country, in reference to a commercial adventure in Mexico. Every precaution had been taken by the plaintiff to procure its transportation in the shortest practicable period, and it was essential to his interest that he should obtain possession of it immediately on its arrival. The defendants refused to deliver the property without the payment of a greater sum for freight than they could legally claim. The plaintiff protested against the payment of what he considered an illegal and extortionate charge, and finally, from the necessity of the case, and for the purpose of obtaining possession of his property, he paid the illegal demand. I think that a payment under such circumstances should not be considered as voluntary.

The other questions in the case arise upon the demurrer to the defendants' second plea.

The plea avers that if the plaintiff has been damaged by reason of anything in the articles of agreement mentioned, the plaintiff has been so damaged of

his own wrong and through his own act; and concludes with a verification. This is taken from a form which is found in the books of precedents, and which is applicable only to a bond of indemnity, and it is not a proper defense to the covenant for the performance of a particular act, such as the transportation of property. (1 Saund., 116, a 1, *Holmes vs. Rhodes*, 1 Bos. & P., 638, 640, and note.)

But it is contended that the covenant of the defendants is in the alternative, and that, as it has not been so counted upon, the declaration is defective. The covenant is, that the defendant will transport the plaintiff's goods to a particular place, within a particular time, for a price or sum agreed upon; and that, in case of failure, there shall be a deduction from such price or sum. It will be observed that it is not a covenant to do a specific act, or pay a sum of money. The act which is to be performed by the defendants is the transportation of the property, and the consequence of non-performance is, that the amount which the defendants will be entitled to receive will be reduced, or in a certain event they will be entitled to receive nothing. The receipt of a less sum is not strictly an alternative act to be done. It is rather in the nature of liquidated damages for the non-performance of the act which the defendants had covenanted to perform.

I think that the judgment should be affirmed.

CHARTER-PARTY DEPOSITED WITH BANKERS, BY WAY OF SECURITY, IS LIABLE TO THE TERMS OF AGREEMENT WHICH THE DEPOSITOR MAY HAVE MADE WITH A THIRD PARTY.

A, a merchant, and B, a shipowner, agreed to share the profits of a voyage of a particular ship that belonged to B. This agreement was contained in three instruments: first, a charter-party, by which about one-half of the freight was to be paid by A to B, by monthly instalments, during the voyage, and the rest on the return of the ship; second, a memorandum, by which the parties agreed that they should be liable to expenses and share profits in equal moieties; third, a guaranty. After the ship had sailed, B deposited the charter-party with his bankers, as security for a balance then due on his account, and indorsed the charter-party with instructions to A to pay to the bankers the amount which would become due upon it. Notice of the deposit and indorsement was afterwards given to A, who accordingly paid to the bankers the instalments as they fell due, but did not inform them of the agreement. B became bankrupt; the ship returned, having made a losing voyage, and then A refused to make any further payment, alleging that, by virtue of the agreement, he was liable only for half the freight made payable by the charter-party. The bankers, however, claimed the full benefit of the charter-party deposited with them, and that it should be unaffected by the agreement, of which they had no notice. But the House of Lords, reversing the judgment of Lord Chancellor Cottenham, has decided that they could not do so, and that they were entitled to no larger benefit from the charter-party than the assignor; thus confirming the general rule that an assignee of a chose in action, takes it, subject to all the then subsisting equities against it, in the hands of the assignor. *Mangles vs. Dixon*, 19, *Law Times Rep.* 260.

RIGHTS OF CORPORATIONS TO SUE—PROMISSORY NOTES.

In the Superior Court, New York, 1855. *The Iron Marble Works vs. Adam Smith*.

This was an action on a promissory note, indorsed to the plaintiffs.

The defense sets up that the plaintiffs have no right to sue, on the ground that they are not now a corporation, but have ceased to be one. It is also insisted that the note was made for a special purpose, from which it was diverted, and that the plaintiffs are not *bona fide* holders for value received.

The plaintiffs were incorporated under the laws of 1848, and are therefore a

body corporate, with the right to sue. They acquired their corporate rights by filing the usual certificate, and there seems to be no doubt that the action was properly brought by them in their corporate name.

But the defendant says, that assuming that to be so, the plaintiffs are nevertheless debarred from suing, because the body corporate having dissolved, the suit brought by them necessarily abates. The act of 1848 provides for this case, and on the dissolution of a corporation, an action commenced by it may be continued under the corporate name or in the name of the trustees.

As to the diversion of the note, the facts are simply these: the note-book was given for the purpose of making purchases of certain shipping. Smith, however, being indebted to the plaintiffs in former transactions, offered them this note in payment, which being larger than the debt, the plaintiffs paid him the balance.

We have some doubt as to the misapplication of the note in this case, as Smith merely substituted it for the money in paying the plaintiffs; but supposing there was such a misapplication, there is no evidence that the plaintiffs had any knowledge thereof, and they are, therefore, to be considered as *bona fide* holders of the note.

When such a note is taken *bona fide*, it is taken on a good consideration, and this is now the result of the decisions on this point, although the law relating thereto was for a long time unsettled. The defense, therefore, fails on the main ground, and judgment must be entered on the verdict.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

BUSINESS AND COLLECTIONS IN THE INTERIOR—EFFECT UPON COMMERCE OF THE TROUBLES WITH CUBA—RIGHT OF SEARCH—BANK MOVEMENT IN NEW YORK AND MASSACHUSETTS—SUPPLY OF GOLD FROM CALIFORNIA—DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT NEW YORK ASSAY OFFICE, PHILADELPHIA, AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS—DATE OF OPENING THE ERIE CANAL—FOREIGN IMPORTS—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR MARCH, AND SINCE JANUARY 1ST—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS—RECEIPTS FOR CASH DUTIES AT NEW YORK, PHILADELPHIA, AND BOSTON—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR MARCH, AND SINCE JANUARY 1ST—HARVEST PROSPECTS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY, ETC., ETC.

THERE has been far less business done since our last review than usual at this season, the engagements of all kinds having been diminished early in the season, and the continued cold weather and backwardness of spring having kept the country buyers from visiting the seaboard. There have been, however, larger movements of grain at a number of the depots throughout the interior, and everything presages an active opening to trade on the commencement of internal navigation. The far Western States, which were greatly troubled for want of a currency, have been better supplied of late, and have responded to their obligations in a manner entirely unexpected. More difficulty has been experienced in Ohio, but the trouble there is nearly over, and collections are now made with less difficulty. At the South money has been comparatively easy throughout the year. The grain crop was affected by the drouth, and the cotton crop was kept back to some extent by the low stage of water in the rivers; but the prices realized for such as reached market have partially, if not wholly, made up for the loss, while the planters and merchants were previously in a better condition than usual from the successes of past years.

There has been some uneasiness in the public mind in regard to the troubles between the United States and the Spanish government, and many have felt

quite fearful of an actual collision between the two powers. It cannot be denied but what there is some cause for anxiety. We are reaping in this country the natural fruit of the seed which Young America has been sowing so foolishly in the past. Our people have been unjust toward Spain in the matter of Cuba, and have given her reason to suspect the honesty of our intentions. Thus she has come to regard with suspicion every sail which bears down toward the fair Island from our coast, and hence the offensive detention and search of vessels under our flag.

The right of search can never be tolerated on the high seas between equals. When England claimed to be mistress of the seas, she assumed the right to question every sail crossing the main, and it was her action under this assumption which more than anything else brought about the last war between us and the mother country. The claim to this right is defended by many upon the ground that only such detention or examination of vessels can enable those under a true flag to detect pirates and illicit traders. The same argument would allow every man, or, to say the least, every officer of police, to detain, question, or search all travelers upon the highway. This is sometimes done both on land and sea by the strong arm of authority, but always at its own peril. If the traveler prove a true man, such questioning is always offensive, and sometimes a dangerous stretch of power, as heavy damages granted to suitors in such cases fully prove.

In the matter under consideration, a little jealousy on the part of the Spanish men-of-war cruising on the coasts of the Island might be overlooked, and sharp questionings of even our most peaceful traders, when seen in suspicious circumstances hovering near the shore, might be excused. But the assumption of the right to search all American vessels passing the Island, beyond the usual police distance from the coast, ought never to be tolerated, and we are confident will not be by our government. It is not, however, from any formal avowal of such odious intentions on the part of the Spanish government that we look for trouble. If it come, it will be from unauthorized assumptions on the part of Spanish officials, resisted by the force under our flag sent to those seas to protect our Commerce. We believe that the Spanish government will openly sanction nothing offensive to our sense of justice; but the squadrons of both countries may assume a belligerent attitude, and provoke or actually commence hostilities without any intention on the part of either country to engage in the horrors of war. We have strong faith, notwithstanding the sneers of many, in the caution and prudence of our government, and that all will be done that can be consistently with national honor, to avoid such a catastrophe. Still, Commerce has been disturbed by the signs of danger throughout the past month, and the public mind will be much relieved when the question is settled.

The bank expansion at New York continued up to the close of the first week in April, since which there has been a slight contraction of no great moment. The banks continue strong in specie, although the amount in vaults is of course not so large as in February, when they were uncomfortably crowded with coin. The following will show the weekly averages since the opening of the year:—

WEEKLY AVERAGES NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Date.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Jan. 6, 1855	48,000,000	82,244,706	13,596,963	7,049,982	64,982,158
Jan. 13.....	48,000,000	83,976,081	15,488,525	6,686,461	67,303,398
Jan. 20.....	48,000,000	85,447,998	16,372,127	6,681,355	69,647,618
Jan. 27.....	48,000,000	86,654,657	16,697,260	6,739,823	20,136,618
Feb. 3.....	48,000,000	88,145,697	17,439,196	7,000,766	72,923,317
Feb. 10.....	48,000,000	89,862,170	17,124,391	6,969,111	73,794,342
Feb. 17.....	48,000,000	90,850,031	17,339,085	6,941,606	75,193,636
Feb. 24.....	48,000,000	91,590,504	16,370,875	6,963,562	74,544,721
March 3.....	48,000,000	92,386,125	16,531,279	7,106,710	75,955,344
March 10 ...	48,000,000	92,331,789	16,870,669	7,131,998	76,259,484
March 17 ...	48,000,000	92,447,345	16,933,932	7,061,018	76,524,227
March 24 ...	48,000,000	93,050,773	16,602,729	7,452,231	76,289,923
March 31 ...	47,683,415	93,634,041	16,018,105	7,337,633	75,600,186
April 7 ..	47,683,415	94,499,394	14,968,004	7,771,534	77,313,908
April 14 ...	47,683,415	94,140,399	14,890,979	7,523,528	77,282,242

If we turn back to the date when the weekly statement was first required, we shall find that it has worked a great change in the movements of the banks. It has dried up some institutions of small caliber, and has compelled daily settlements and the holding of a larger comparative amount of specie. This has already been illustrated by the weekly averages which we have published. In order to keep it fresh in mind, we annex a comparison of some of the principal changes since August 6, 1853, the date the statements were commenced. During the remainder of the year 1853 the discounts rapidly declined, but the specie never ran so low as at the commencement. The following will show the figures at the beginning, and the highest and lowest fund of specie during the year :—

	Loans & discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
August 6, 1853.....	\$97,899,499	\$9,746,441	\$9,513,053	\$60,579,797
October 8, 1853.....	89,128,998	10,266,602	9,673,458	57,985,760
November 19, 1853.....	83,717,622	13,691,324	9,151,443	57,446,424

The year 1854 opened with \$11,506,124 in specie, and never fell below \$10,000,000 during the year, except in four instances, and then only continued so for a day or two, and in each of these cases the loans and discounts were far below the amount at the date given above.

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

	March 19.	March 26.	April 3.	April 9.	April 16.
Capital.....	\$32,355,275	\$32,355,275	\$32,360,575	\$32,392,775	\$32,570,550
Loans and discounts..	52,622,210	52,555,305	52,242,260	52,390,455	52,606,474
Specie.....	3,253,208	3,344,351	3,283,218	3,362,213	3,215,380
Due from other banks	7,903,190	7,833,838	7,686,365	9,644,347	8,642,326
Due to other banks .	6,922,187	6,677,321	6,460,530	7,368,676	7,007,261
Deposits.....	13,985,403	14,229,834	14,241,383	15,159,314	15,093,605
Circulation.....	6,943,899	6,937,090	6,844,331	7,948,597	7,512,973

The following is a comparative statement of all the banks in Massachusetts on the 2d of April, compared with the total of each on January 1st :—

LIABILITIES.

	37 City.	132 Country.	Total.	Total Jan. 1st.
Capital	\$32,360,575	\$25,405,453	\$57,766,028	\$57,314,603
Net circulation	5,618,496	10,801,834	16,420,330	16,319,568
Deposits	14,241,383	5,798,738	20,040,121	16,601,631
Profit on hand	3,958,990	2,768,918	6,727,908	5,267,991
Total	\$56,179,444	\$44,774,943	\$100,954,387	\$95,603,798

RESOURCES.

Notes, bills of exchange, &c.	\$52,242,260	\$43,156,189	\$95,398,449	\$90,689,771
Specie	3,283,318	1,086,110	4,369,428	3,727,512
Real estate	658,866	532,644	1,186,510	1,186,510
Total	\$56,179,444	\$44,774,943	\$100,954,387	\$95,603,793

The above statement exhibits, upon comparison, an increase since the 1st day of January last, in the item of capital, of \$451,425; of net circulation, \$100,762; of deposits, \$3,438,490; of loans, \$4,708,678; of specie, \$641,916; and of profit, \$1,359,917.

The supplies of gold from California have been interrupted by the failure of the banking houses there, as already noticed; but the yield has been very large, and the current will soon begin to run again toward the Atlantic. A considerable portion of the receipts at New York in March were in California mint bars, and being wanted for immediate export, has not appeared in the statement of deposits either at New York or Philadelphia. It is, of course, better that the specie which is to be exported should not be coined, as all the labor thus expended upon it is lost. It goes into the melting-pot abroad, and is of no more value than the same weight of uncoined gold. The following will show the deposits at the United States Assay Office at New York in the month of March:—

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Foreign coins.....	\$8,300	\$2,700	\$11,000
Foreign bullion	11,340	1,700	13,040
Domestic bullion.....	1,121,200	8,914	1,130,114
Total deposits	\$1,140,840	\$13,314	\$1,154,154

Included in the deposits of gold were \$150,000 in California mint bars. Of the deposits, \$1,062,000 were returned to the depositors in fine bars, \$92,154 in coins. The amount sent to the Philadelphia mint was \$4,580 57.

We also annex our usual statement of the deposits and coinage at the Philadelphia and New Orleans mints:—

DEPOSITS AND COINAGE AT PHILADELPHIA AND NEW ORLEANS MINTS.

DEPOSITS FOR MARCH.

	Gold from California.	Total gold.	Silver.	Total deposits.
Philadelphia mint	\$123,000	\$128,000	\$136,300	\$264,300
New Orleans mint	46,103	46,952	141,066	188,018
Total deposits.....	\$169,103	\$174,952	\$277,366	\$452,318

COINAGE FOR MARCH.

GOLD COINAGE.

	NEW ORLEANS.		PHILADELPHIA.	
	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
Double eagles	4,500	\$45,000	15,142	\$302,840
Eagles	18,142	181,420
Half eagles	31,015	155,075
Three-dollar pieces
Quarter eagles
Gold dollars	203,756	203,756
Total gold coinage.....	4,500	\$45,000	268,055	\$843,091

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars	644,000	\$322,000
Quarter dollars	64,000	\$16,000
Dimes	140,000	14,000
Half dimes	220,000	11,000
Total silver coinage.....	644,000	\$322,000	424,000	\$41,000

COPPER COINAGE.

Cents	517,585	\$5,175
Total coinage ..	648,500	\$367,000	1,209,640	\$889,266

The Erie Canal is to be opened for navigation on the 1st of May; this is the same date as that fixed last year, but is later than the average since the completion of the canal, as will appear from the following comparative table:—

DATE OF OPENING THE GRAND ERIE CANAL.

1824.....	April 30	1835.....	April 15	1846.....	April 16
1825.....	April 12	1836.....	April 25	1847.....	May 1
1826.....	April 20	1837.....	April 20	1848.....	May 1
1827.....	April 22	1838.....	April 12	1849.....	May 1
1828.....	Mar. 27	1839.....	April 20	1850.....	April 22
1829.....	May 2	1840.....	April 20	1851.....	April 15
1830.....	April 20	1841.....	April 24	1852.....	April 20
1831.....	April 16	1842.....	April 10	1853.....	April 20
1832.....	April 25	1843.....	May 1	1854.....	May 1
1833.....	April 19	1844.....	April 18	1855.....	May 1
1834.....	April 27	1845.....	April 15		

The imports at all the ports show a decline as compared with the same period of either of the previous three years. The total receipts of all descriptions of foreign merchandise at New York during the month of March were \$6,384,017 less than for March, 1854, \$9,240,771 less than for March, 1853, and \$2,414,845 less than for March, 1852, as will fully appear from the following comparison:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF MARCH.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Entered for consumption	\$9,302,024	\$15,099,249	\$12,911,744	\$6,765,687
Entered for warehousing	916,519	2,015,011	1,856,688	1,865,633
Free goods	1,843,938	2,051,846	1,344,627	1,458,578
Specie and bullion	525,421	247,722	444,015	83,159
Total entered at the port ...	\$12,587,902	\$19,413,828	\$16,557,074	\$10,173,057
Withdrawn from warehouse.	1,605,849	697,113	1,701,203	2,718,093

The goods withdrawn from warehouse have largely increased, while the entries remain about the same, showing that the imports have not been in excess of the wants of the trade. It will be seen that the total imports for the month are only about half as large as for the same month of 1853. The total imports

for the quarter ending March 31st are \$12,060,107 less than for the same time last year, \$15,136,352 less than for the same period of 1853, and only \$2,350,790 more than for the same quarter of 1852.

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

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Entered for consumption.....	\$24,911,287	\$41,240,672	\$37,989,365	\$23,451,214
Entered for warehousing.....	3,201,496	3,669,854	5,052,144	7,357,681
Free goods.....	3,996,343	5,021,992	3,206,196	4,150,673
Specie and bullion.....	740,450	404,200	1,012,768	240,798
Total entered at the port.....	\$32,849,576	\$50,336,718	\$47,260,473	\$35,200,366
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	4,979,498	3,064,000	6,544,729	7,339,298

This makes a total decline for the three quarters of the current fiscal year, (July 1st to March 31st,) at the port of New York, of \$21,700,000, as compared with the same period of the previous year. The imports of foreign dry goods at the port of New York for the month of March are but little more than half as large as for the same period of last year, and not half as large as for the corresponding period of the year before last. This falling off is most marked in woolens and cottons, but is also shown in silks and linens, proving that there has been a general decline in the receipts of nearly all descriptions of foreign fabrics. The total entered at the port for the five weeks amounts to but \$4,828,560, which is \$3,970,601 less than for the same time in 1854, \$4,956,751 less than for the same time in 1853. It is even less by \$757,258 than for the corresponding period of 1852, a year in which the total dry goods landed at the port amounted to only \$61,000,000. This decline is more rapid than was expected, and has done much to give stability to the dry goods market during the month. We annex a summary carefully compiled from the official entries at the custom-house:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK IN MARCH.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,132,921	\$2,065,217	\$1,743,565	\$788,338
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,002,385	1,696,977	2,093,792	585,058
Manufactures of silk.....	1,688,099	3,536,156	2,667,715	1,737,371
Manufactures of flax.....	701,572	1,052,245	826,485	390,839
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	519,964	699,879	653,556	559,462
Total entered for consumption .	\$5,044,941	\$9,050,474	\$7,985,113	\$4,061,068

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$143,427	\$93,278	\$280,999	\$316,914
Manufactures of cotton.....	229,213	115,078	344,386	533,451
Manufactures of silk.....	193,600	58,471	222,472	431,141
Manufactures of flax.....	140,042	24,261	101,847	258,724
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	50,674	39,025	55,765	158,034
Total.....	\$756,956	\$330,113	\$1,005,469	\$1,698,264
Add entered for consumption.....	5,044,941	9,050,474	7,985,113	4,061,068
Total thrown on the market ..	\$5,801,897	\$9,380,587	\$8,990,582	\$5,759,332

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Manufactures of wool	\$164,179	\$211,410	\$304,050	\$115,803
Manufactures of cotton	154,088	191,024	217,413	65,704
Manufactures of silk	132,333	254,792	194,159	357,728
Manufactures of flax	37,520	35,190	65,792	89,327
Miscellaneous dry goods	52,762	39,421	32,634	138,938
Total	\$540,877	\$734,837	\$814,048	\$767,492
Add entered for consumption	5,044,941	9,050,474	7,985,113	4,061,068
Total entered at the port	\$5,585,818	\$9,785,311	\$8,799,161	\$4,828,560

This makes the total receipts of foreign dry goods at that port since January 1st amount to \$16,356,715, which is \$10,729,905 less than for the same time last year, \$11,048,116 less than for the same period of 1853, and \$2,279,784 less than for the same period of 1852. The receipts entered directly for consumption show a falling off greater than this, but the warehousing business has largely increased. We annex a summary comparison for three months:—

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

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Manufactures of wool	\$3,429,534	\$6,046,760	\$4,906,014	\$3,037,222
Manufactures of cotton	3,249,014	5,417,172	6,110,686	2,906,035
Manufactures of silk	6,638,886	9,790,338	8,918,981	4,398,403
Manufactures of flax	1,775,283	2,832,162	2,410,232	1,384,582
Miscellaneous dry goods	1,320,693	1,775,660	1,942,213	1,482,401
Total	\$16,413,410	\$25,862,092	\$24,288,126	\$12,908,643

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Manufactures of wool	\$559,464	\$318,740	\$843,657	\$811,718
Manufactures of cotton	821,461	425,520	1,249,399	1,306,369
Manufactures of silk	869,684	491,808	1,060,073	1,159,408
Manufactures of flax	450,465	91,612	413,983	560,848
Miscellaneous dry goods	136,065	143,137	145,222	373,441
Total withdrawn	\$2,837,139	\$1,470,817	\$3,712,334	\$4,211,784
Add entered for consumption	16,413,410	25,862,092	24,288,126	12,908,643
Total thrown upon the market	\$19,250,549	\$27,332,909	\$28,000,460	\$17,120,427

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Manufactures of wool	\$451,782	\$374,342	\$665,882	\$624,484
Manufactures of cotton	415,570	421,121	949,065	820,750
Manufactures of silk	1,119,867	574,771	842,279	1,141,482
Manufactures of flax	113,021	55,234	270,259	477,532
Miscellaneous dry goods	122,849	117,271	71,009	383,824
Total	\$2,223,089	\$1,542,730	\$2,798,494	\$3,448,072
Add entered for consumption	16,413,419	25,862,092	24,288,126	12,908,643
Total entered at the port	\$18,636,499	\$27,404,831	\$27,086,620	\$16,356,715

The following will show the cash duties received at New York during the first three months of the current year, by which it will be seen that the revenue is rapidly decreasing:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
January.....	\$2,600,562 64	\$3,311,137 37	\$4,379,285 32	\$2,560,088 32
February.....	2,286,955 47	3,878,395 47	2,867,294 50	2,665,164 94
March.....	2,730,869 61	3,935,967 63	3,627,119 49	2,363,084 95

Total 3 months.. \$7,617,887 72 \$11,125,500 47 \$10,873,699 31 \$7,588,288 21

A corresponding decrease has taken place at other ports. The following table shows the receipts from customs at three principal seaports during the last quarter, compared with the same period last year:—

	1854.	1855.	Decrease.
New York	\$10,873,699	\$7,588,288	\$3,285,411
Boston.....	2,343,504	1,998,638	444,866
Philadelphia.....	1,380,724	958,711	322,013
Total.....	\$14,597,927	\$10,545,637	\$4,062,290

The exports from New York to foreign ports for the month of March, exclusive of specie, are \$304,666 greater than for the same month of last year, \$1,307,540 greater than for March, 1853, and \$1,570,903 greater than for March, 1852, as will appear from the following comparison:—

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

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Domestic produce.....	\$4,313,245	\$4,705,007	\$5,562,810	\$4,807,833
Foreign merchandise (free).....	100,557	29,732	98,191	941,212
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	357,230	299,656	376,268	592,890
Specie	611,994	592,479	1,466,127	2,298,697
Total exports	\$5,383,026	\$5,626,874	\$7,503,396	\$8,640,632
Total, exclusive of specie	4,771,032	5,034,395	6,037,269	6,341,935

The exports of specie, it will be seen, have also increased. The total exports, exclusive of specie, for the quarter ending March 31st, from New York to foreign ports, are \$1,037,618 less than the large amount reached in the same time last year, but \$4,909,893 greater than the total for the same time in 1853, and \$5,459,131 greater than the total for the same time in 1852. We annex a comparison for the period stated:—

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

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Domestic produce.....	\$10,085,484	\$11,020,636	\$16,267,937	\$12,958,884
Foreign merchandise (free).....	221,182	135,503	326,149	2,211,529
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)...	1,037,746	736,511	1,246,075	1,632,130
Specie.....	7,032,495	2,461,178	3,891,533	4,578,803
Total exports	\$18,376,907	\$14,353,828	\$21,731,694	\$21,381,346
Total, exclusive of specie	11,243,412	11,892,650	17,840,161	16,802,543

We also present a summary statement showing the comparative shipments of some of the leading articles of domestic produce from New York to foreign ports from January 1st to April 14th:—

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST TO APRIL 14TH:—

	1854.	1855.		1854.	1855.
Ashes—pots... bbls.	1,806	2,716	Naval stores... bbls.	169,086	204,444
pearls.....	241	766	Oils—whale... galls.	33,514	52,112
Beeswax..... lbs.	68,838	41,155	sperm.....	188,637	188,719
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard.....	7,255	7,376
Wheat flour... bbls.	441,568	141,714	linseed.....	956	2,537
Rye flour.....	4,605	9,517	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal.....	26,599	15,958	Pork..... bbls.	19,764	74,365
Wheat..... bush.	1,013,892	29,803	Beef.....	23,356	34,494
Rye.....	304,062	5,139	Cut meats... lbs.	5,425,746	10,747,627
Oats.....	5,753	12,111	Butter.....	653,944	185,229
Corn.....	1,569,004	1,254,658	Cheese.....	595,431	821,066
Candles—mold.. boxes	17,775	16,775	Lard.....	4,163,039	4,123,548
sperm....	1,873	4,232	Rice..... tacs	10,519	5,439
Coal..... tons	9,282	2,514	Tallow..... lbs.	761,229	1,028,068
Cotton..... bales	99,579	63,634	Tobacco, crude. . pkgs	11,692	15,129
Hay.....	1,538	2,337	Do., manufactured. lbs	732,914	1,126,188
Hops.....	117	3,620	Whalebone.....	318,731	194,270

The above shows some very remarkable changes. The great falling off in the shipments of breadstuffs is one of the most striking. The decline in the shipments of cereals, since January 1st, amounts to nearly \$5,000,000, and the falling off in cotton about \$2,000,000. This is not made up by the increase in meat provisions, although the shipments of the latter have increased in value fully \$2,000,000. The exports of grain and flour, it is now evident, cannot be increased until after the returns of another harvest. Notwithstanding the accumulations in the interior, it is the general opinion of those most conversant with such matters that a large portion of the supplies will be needed for home consumption. We have believed, and still think, that the actual stock in the country is greater than many suppose. The farmers have been alarmed by stories of famine, and many have hoarded their surplus instead of selling it. The drouth of last season, however, greatly reduced the yield of the harvest, while the stock of old grain left from the year preceding was far less than usual, owing to the great call for export throughout the whole of the last year.

NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR MONTH ENDING APRIL 20.

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

Since our last monthly report (March 23d) a large business has been transacted in cotton. Under a continuing widening deficiency in receipts as compared with last year, more confidence is felt in maintaining prices, both here and abroad; while a favorable termination to European difficulties is also anticipated, and has tended materially to advance rates beyond a shipping point. The consumption of cotton in England continues on a large scale, and is no doubt to be attributed to the peculiar wants of the government *at the present time*, and which a state of peace would not require. It needs but a glance at the condition of the state of manufacturing, at a time of peace, in this country, to warrant the above conclusion—if not, what element does England possess that gives her power to increase her manufacturing over that of the last two years, and that, too, at a time when she is carrying on a war with one of the most powerful nations of Europe—her own, as well as one of continental Europe's best customers. In this country our own spinners will consume less cotton this year

than for the last two or three years—there is no profit, beyond the exchange of an old dollar for a new one, if that be considered as such. The amount sold during the month has been mostly to exporters and speculators; large and extensive operations have likewise taken place *in transitu* cottons, of which some complaints have already been received in regard to classification, as this has been the favorite mode of purchasing cotton in this city during the past season. The experiment has proved very successful to some, while others are of opinion that for the future the inquiry for such will be much diminished. Our own manufacturers have bought sparingly during the month—prices have varied $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$ c. per lb., closing at about rates current at the close of our last report.

For the week ending March 30th, the confirmation of the death of the Emperor Nicholas was received, but owing to the small advance in the Liverpool market, where a rapid improvement was anticipated, a pause in operations here took place. The sales for the week were 7,000 bales, and the decline fully $\frac{3}{8}$ c. per lb. :—

PRICES ADOPTED MARCH 30TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{3}{4}$	8	8
Middling	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	9	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling fair	10	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$
Fair	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{1}{4}$

The sales for the week ending April 6th were 8,500 bales, mostly for export. Although the quantity offering was excessive, yet the favorable advices from abroad, and the advancing tendency at the South, gave holders the advantage in prices to the extent of $\frac{1}{4}$ a $\frac{3}{8}$ c. per lb. on the above sales—market closing firm at—

PRICES ADOPTED APRIL 6TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8	8	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
Middling	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{8}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{1}{4}$
Fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11	11 $\frac{3}{4}$

The operations in cotton for the week ending April 15th were the largest for the month, and estimated at 18,000 bales, of which 8,000 bales were sold *in transitu*. The buying was mainly for export, and at an advance for the week of $\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$ c. per lb. At the quotations annexed, it would require an improvement of one cent per lb. in Liverpool to cover the shipments from loss. Still, such was the feeling that peace would ensue from the Vienna conference, that holders were indifferent about selling. Our market closed firm at—

PRICES ADOPTED APRIL 13TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{8}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	10
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
Fair	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12

For the week closing at date the transactions did not exceed 7,500 bales, and at a decline of $\frac{1}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$ c. per lb. The absence of foreign advices, and increased doubts as regards the probable results of the Vienna conference, gave cause for a suspension of the inquiry for export. Our stock is now about 60,000 bales, of which a large portion is on sale. Market closes quiet at—

PRICES ADOPTED APRIL 20TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8	8	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{4}$
Middling	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{3}{8}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{3}{4}$
Middling fair	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{1}{4}$
Fair	10 $\frac{3}{8}$	10 $\frac{7}{8}$	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	11 $\frac{3}{4}$

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS INTO THE UNITED STATES IN 1854.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for April, 1855, volume xxxii., pages 469-479, we published tabular statements, showing—1. The total value of exports from the United States to each foreign country and to the dominions of each foreign power, distinguishing the value exported in American and in foreign vessels. 2. A summary statement of the value of the exports of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, during the year ending the 30th of June, 1854. 3. A general statement of foreign goods exported (or re-exported) from the United States to each foreign country, distinguishing merchandise that had been imported into the United States free of duty and paying duty, and also showing the value of the same exported in American and in foreign vessels.

The following table, derived from the same official source, shows the value of merchandise imported into the United States from each foreign country for the year ending the 30th of June, 1854, distinguishing the value of the same imported in foreign and in American vessels, and also the value free of duty and paying duty:—

Whence imported.	Free of duty.	Paying duties.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.
Russia	\$23,140	\$1,521,095	\$1,544,235	\$1,507,466	\$36,769
Prussia	47,773	47,773	47,773
Sweden and Norway	509	514,669	515,178	288,674	226,504
Swedish West Indies	13,227	9,363	22,590	7,170	15,420
Denmark	8,097	8,097	365	7,732
Danish West Indies.	31,441	254,603	286,044	183,423	102,621
Bremen	43,787	14,600,140	14,643,927	8,388,568	6,255,359
Hamburg	12,786	2,310,185	2,322,971	224,107	2,098,864
Holland	98,952	1,597,018	1,695,970	888,366	807,604
Dutch East Indies..	560,877	480,732	1,041,609	982,991	58,618
Dutch West Indies.	13,753	521,225	534,978	467,002	67,976
Dutch Guiana	19,683	84,553	104,236	104,236
Belgium	28,723	3,433,518	3,462,241	2,809,088	653,153
England	1,915,877	138,472,856	140,388,733	88,327,359	52,061,374
Scotland	8,567	5,811,902	5,820,469	1,683,032	4,137,437
Ireland	1,176	228,159	229,335	48,882	180,453
Gibraltar	565	59,108	59,673	16,051	43,622
Malta	2,336	81,359	83,695	83,695
British East Indies.	99,345	5,278,976	5,378,321	5,179,466	198,855
British West Indies.	259,184	867,233	1,126,417	705,629	420,788
British Honduras...	48,446	240,508	288,954	275,158	13,796
British Guiana.....	6,778	40,701	47,479	30,276	17,212
Cape of Good Hope.	8,255	440,648	448,903	397,633	51,270
British Am. Colonies	259,102	1,946,919	2,206,021	286,397	1,919,124
Other British Col'ns.	200	4,144	4,344	4,344
Canada	380,041	6,341,498	6,721,539	2,378,934	4,342,605
Australia	212,685	1,517	214,202	214,202
France on Atlantic.	158,313	32,733,708	32,892,021	29,440,696	3,451,325
Fr. on Mediterrane'n	8,762	2,880,610	2,889,372	1,915,581	973,791
French Guiana	29,618	29,618	29,618
French West Indies.	37,649	122,436	161,085	71,308	89,777
Spain on the Atlantic	24,518	513,986	538,504	472,842	65,662
Sp. on Mediterrane'n	15,030	1,564,044	1,579,074	1,073,021	506,053
Teneriffe, &c.	39,598	39,598	27,935	11,663
Manilla, &c.	103,684	2,861,598	2,965,282	2,798,863	166,419

Whence imported.	Free of duty.	Paying duties.	Total.	In American vessels.	In foreign vessels.
Cuba	\$509,087	\$16,615,252	\$17,124,339	\$16,419,729	\$704,610
Other Sp. W. Indies	148,832	2,701,521	2,850,353	2,502,623	347,730
Portugal	15,450	228,142	243,592	94,077	149,515
Madeira	30,007	30,007	13,641	16,366
Fayal & oth. Azores.	127	21,457	21,584	21,054	530
Cape de Verd Isla'ds	4,032	4,953	8,985	8,985
Italy.....	20,870	950,858	971,728	685,747	285,981
Sicily	5,960	953,340	959,300	495,049	464,251
Sardinia	169	85,507	85,676	74	85,602
Tuscany	32,816	1,119,901	1,152,717	985,919	166,798
Trieste, &c.....	160,858	581,061	741,919	491,142	250,777
Turkey, Levant, &c.	1,486	801,628	803,114	803,114
Hayti.....	1,811,990	545,262	2,357,252	2,233,858	123,394
Mexico	2,636,739	826,451	3,463,190	3,115,116	348,074
Central Rep. of Am.	2,235,957	124,465	2,360,422	2,334,957	25,465
New Grenada	960,050	518,470	1,478,520	1,474,427	4,093
Venezuela	1,099,651	1,972,998	3,072,649	2,616,612	456,037
Brazil	10,370,071	3,740,316	14,110,387	12,466,775	1,643,612
Orient. R. Uruguay	457,179	457,179	389,650	67,529
Argentine Republic.	1,000	2,143,971	2,144,971	1,883,201	261,770
Chili.....	475,664	2,856,503	3,332,167	2,264,974	1,067,193
Peru.	622,055	383,351	1,005,406	822,098	183,308
Ecuador.....	17,816	39,718	57,534	57,534
China.....	6,755,496	3,750,833	10,506,329	10,078,953	427,376
Asia generally.....	60,730	60,730	60,730
Africa generally....	175,504	1,211,056	1,386,560	1,356,119	29,441
South Amer. gen'aly.	17,663	218,030	235,693	224,373	11,320
S. Seas & Pacific O.	1,007	9,096	10,103	5,369	4,734
Sandwich Islands ..	41,283	77,847	119,130	108,662	10,468
Atlantic Ocean and uncertain places..	60	60	60
Total.....	32,519,034	268,975,060	301,494,094	215,376,273	86,117,821

SUMMARY STATEMENT OF THE QUANTITY AND VALUE OF GOODS, WARES, AND MERCHANDISE, IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, IN AMERICAN AND FOREIGN VESSELS, DURING THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1854:—

MERCHANDISE FREE OF DUTY.		Quantity.	Value.
Species of merchandise.			
Animals for breed			\$161,298
Bullion, gold			1,720,711
silver			89,633
Specie, gold			1,311,253
silver			3,636,990
copper.....			180,755
Cabinets of coins, medals, and other collections of anti- quities			2,257
Models of inventions and improvements in the arts			1,137
Teas.....pounds	24,306,906		6,715,726
Coffee.....	162,100,822		14,536,945
Copper, in plates suited to the sheathing of ships..... ore			851,434 558,628
Cotton, unmanufactured.....	545,210		31,318
Adhesive felt, for sheathing vessels			10,624
Paintings and statuary of American artists			72,354
Specimens of natural history, &c.....			3,562
Sheathing metal.....			748,201
Platina, unmanufactured			37,602
Plaster, unground.....			115,912
Wearing apparel and other personal effects of emigrants .			208,907
Personal and household effects of citizens dying abroad ..			15,982
Old junk			29,824

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Oakum		\$2,777
Garden seeds, trees, shrubs, plants, &c.		187,239
Articles the produce of the United States, brought back .		470,778
Guano.....tons	175,849	692,072
<i>Articles specially imported for societies, colleges, &c.—</i>		
Philosophical apparatus and instruments, &c.		4,738
Books, maps, and charts		16,181
Statues, statuary, busts, and casts of marble, &c.		5,361
Paintings, drawings, etchings, and engravings.....		6,849
Cabinets of coins, gems, medals, and collections of anti- quities		100
All other articles		91,886
Total		\$32,519,034

PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM.

<i>Manufactures of wool—</i>		
Cloths and cassimeres		\$13,150,583
Merino shawls, of wool		1,476,072
Blankets.....		1,790,590
Hosiery and articles on frames		1,272,857
Worsted stuff goods.....		10,375,879
Woolen and worsted yarn.....		359,341
Woolen and worsted articles, embroidered or tambored .		35,266
Manufactures not specified		1,388,064
Flannels.....yards	487,239	143,079
Baizes.....	380,973	113,048
<i>Carpeting—</i>		
Wilton, Saxony, and Aubusson	63,627	93,230
Brussels, Turkey, and treble-ingrained	2,236,268	1,313,107
Venetian and other ingrained	353,725	165,391
Not specified.....		697,087
<i>Manufactures of cotton—</i>		
Printed, stained, or colored.....		17,423,249
White or uncolored		2,191,217
Tambored or embroidered.....		4,045,476
Velvets, wholly of cotton		496,442
of cotton and silk		95,343
Cords, gimps, and galloons.....		189,639
Hosiery and articles made on frames.....		3,013,664
Twist, yarn, and thread.....		1,076,987
Hatters' plush, of silk and cotton.....		102,824
Manufactures not specified		5,314,662
<i>Silk, and manufactures of—</i>		
Piece goods.....		25,296,519
Hosiery and articles made on frames.....		1,001,299
Sewing silk.....		332,301
Articles tambored and embroidered		1,183,299
Hats and bonnets.....		106,139
Manufactures not specified		6,728,406
Floss.....		14,078
Raw.....		1,085,261
Bolting cloths.....		48,868
Silk and worsted goods.....		1,594,038
Camlets of goats' hair or mohair.....		700
<i>Manufactures of flax—</i>		
Linen, bleached or unbleached		9,437,846
Hosiery and articles made on frames.....		2,263
Articles tambored or embroidered		59,624
Manufactures not specified		1,363,803
<i>Manufactures of hemp—</i>		
Sheeting, brown and white		1,149
Ticklenburgs, Osnaburgs, and Burlaps.....		93,151

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Articles not specified.....	\$425,583
Sail duck, Russia.....pieces	4,609	30,354
Holland.....	1,154	4,991
Ravens.....	7,144	36,946
Cotton bagging.....running yards	43,072	6,077
Clothing, ready made.....	350,497
articles of wear.....	3,576,644
Laces, thread, and insertings.....	368,399
cotton insertings, trimmings, laces, braids, &c.....	853,552
Floor-cloth, patent, painted, &c.....running yards	38,416	24,125
Oil-cloth of all kinds.....	52,771	22,134
Hair cloth and hair seating.....	361,534
Lasting and mohair cloth, for shoes and buttons.....	110,398
Gunny cloth.....	497,359
Matting, Chinese and other, of flags, &c.....	199,971
<i>Hats, caps, and bonnets, flats, braids, &c.—</i>		
Of Leghorn, straw, chip, or grass, &c.....	1,914,522
Of palm-leaf, rattan, willow, &c.....	69,756
Of hair, whalebone, &c.....	87
<i>Manufactures of iron, and iron and steel—</i>		
Muskets and rifles.....	13,476	76,872
Fire-arms not specified.....	557,153
Side-arms.....	5,459
Drawing and cutting knives.....	8,881
Hatchets, axes, and adzes.....	1,967
Socket chisels.....	27,110
Steelyards and scale-beams.....	11,870
Vices.....	52,518
Sickles and reaping-hooks.....	681
Scythes.....	20,551
Wood-screws.....	8,817
Spades and shovels.....	5,275
Squares.....	2,489
Needles, darning, sewing, and other.....	254,657
Cast-iron butt-hinges.....	13,705
Cutlery not specified.....	2,410,059
Other manufactures of, not specified.....	4,607,078
Sadirons, hatters', and tailors' irons.....pounds	22,060	751
Bonnet wire.....	189,339	6,672
Iron and steel wire, not above No. 14.....	5,940,816	180,702
Iron and steel wire, above No. 14.....	109,565	4,862
Tacks, brads, and sprigs, not above 16 ounces per M.....	240
above 16 ounces per M.....	23,478	1,433
Nails.....	3,039,415	148,539
Spikes.....	340,529	10,383
Chain cables.....	13,667,573	429,958
Mill-saws, cross-cut, and pit-saws.....number	82,265	39,077
Anchors, and parts thereof.....pounds	1,467,341	59,120
Anvils, and parts thereof.....	1,197,943	73,383
Smiths' hammers and sledges.....	127,796	8,046
Castings, vessels of.....	402,339	17,528
Castings, all other.....	1,677,287	33,446
Round or square iron, as braziers' rods, from 3-16 to 10-16 inches diameter.....	1,975,072	47,515
Nail or spike rods, slit, rolled, or hammered.....	7,599,976	167,749
Band or scroll iron, as casement rods, slit, rolled, or hammered.....	1,522,457	43,415
Hoop iron.....	13,031,489	333,122
Sheet iron.....	37,145,117	1,153,662
<i>Iron—</i>		
Pig iron.....cwt.	3,209,673	2,893,483
Old and scrap.....	372,079	345,439

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Bar, manufactured by rolling..... cwt.	6,568,859	\$14,618,267
Bar, manufactured otherwise.....	272,400	659,941
<i>Steel—</i>		
Cast, shear, and German	200,856	1,838,337
All other	71,781	639,372
<i>Copper, and manufactures of—</i>		
In pigs and bars, and old		1,846,170
Wire		11
Braziers'		198
Copper bottoms.....		10,601
Manufactures of, not specified.....		162,263
Nails and spikes	19,498	1,318
<i>Brass, and manufactures of—</i>		
In pigs, bars, and old.....		43,340
Wire.....		203
Screws.....		140
Manufactures of, not specified.....		294,017
<i>Tin, and manufactures of—</i>		
In pigs and bars		1,124,379
In plates and sheets.....		3,619,987
Foil		26,583
Manufactures of, not specified.....		51,787
<i>Lead, and manufactures of—</i>		
Pig, bar, sheet, and old..... pounds	47,714 140	2,095,039
Shot	112,151	5,793
Pipes.....	16,096	996
Manufactures of, not specified.....		659
<i>Pewter, and manufactures of—</i>		
Old		7,685
Manufactures of		1,144
<i>Manufactures of gold and silver—</i>		
Lace, galloons, tresses, tassels, &c.....		31,574
Epaulets and wings		5,274
Gold and silver leaf		10,500
Jewelry, real or imitations of		690,765
<i>Gems, diamonds, pearls, and precious stones, &c.—</i>		
Set		7,119
Otherwise		99,623
Manufactures of, not specified.....		146,908
Glaziers' diamonds		1,097
Clocks.....		99,709
Chronometers		28,937
Watches and parts of.....		4,256,843
Metallic pens.....		132,867
Square wire for umbrella stretchers.....		16,672
Pins, in packs and otherwise.....		38,095
<i>Buttons—</i>		
Metal		29,203
All other buttons, and button molds.....		820,981
<i>Glass, and manufactures of—</i>		
Silvered and in frames.....		479,548
Paintings, on glass, porcelain, and colored.....		2,169
Polished plate.....		514,521
Manufactures of, not specified.....		122,752
Glassware, cut.....		95,137
Glassware, plain.....		160,403
Watch crystals..... gross	11,587	39,674
Glasses or pebbles, for spectacles	1,417	5,871
Apothecaries' vials, N \times A, 16 oz. each	460	1,841
Perfumery and fancy vials, N \times A, 16 oz. each.....	243	1,310
Bottles, not above two quarts..... gross	22,456	128,584
Demijohns..... number	105,491	22,866

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Window glass, not above 8 by 10 inches . . . square feet	3,732,030	\$107,034
Window glass, not above 10 by 12 inches	8,029,633	244,895
Window glass, above 10 by 12 inches	7,958,249	266,857
<i>Paper, and manufactures of paper—</i>		
Antiquarian, imperial, super-royal, royal, &c.		230
Medium, cap, demy, and other writing		218,837
Folio, and quarto post		61,743
Bank and bank-note paper		3,712
Binders' boards, box, pressing, and pasteboards		2,269
Copperplate, printing, and drawing		729
Playing cards packs	108,352	11,983
Papier-mache, articles and wares of		44,659
Paper hangings		218,283
Paper boxes and fancy boxes		23,923
Paper, and manufactures of paper, not specified		158,600
Blank books		12,861
<i>Printed books, magazines, &c.—</i>		
In Hebrew		155
In English		719,664
In other languages		170,365
Periodicals and illustrated newspapers		23,822
Periodicals and other works in the course of publication		3,038
<i>Leather, and manufactures of leather—</i>		
Tanned, bend, and sole pounds	135,183	50,147
Tanned and dressed upper leather	3,199,052	1,265,630
Skins, tanned and dressed dozen	80,740	518,636
Skins, tanned and not dressed	2,819	10,838
Skivers	10,099	50,433
Boots and bootees for men and women pair	27,284	67,571
Shoes and pumps for men and women	49,931	33,126
Boots, bootees, and shoes, for children	2,119	1,106
Gloves for men, women, and children dozen	295,973	1,326,335
Manufactures of leather not specified		337,382
<i>Wares—</i>		
China, porcelain, earthen, and stone		4,137,691
Plated or gilt		386,237
Japanned		53,964
Britannia		24,327
Silver plated metal		18,419
Silver or plated wire		12,245
<i>Saddlery—</i>		
Common, tinned, or japanned		125,731
Plated, brass, or polished steel		241,290
<i>Furs, and manufactures of—</i>		
Undressed on the skin		605,845
Hatters' furs, dressed or undressed, not on the skin		1,123,415
Dressed on the skin		103,221
Hats, caps, muffs, and tippets		17,326
Manufactures of furs not specified		12,415
<i>Wood, manufactures of—</i>		
Cabinet and household furniture		73,495
Cedar, mahogany, rose, and satin wood		73,831
Other manufactures of		682,664
<i>Wood, unmanufactured—</i>		
Cedar, grenadilla, mahogany, rose, and satin		687,624
Fire-wood, and other not specified		612,721
Dye-wood, in stick		518,857
<i>Bark of the cork tree—</i>		
Corks		208,485
Other manufactures of		2,397
Unmanufactured		22,032

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value:	
<i>Marble—</i>			
Manufactures of		\$88,978	
Unmanufactured		162,049	
Quicksilver.....		114	
Brushes and brooms.....		226,261	
Black lead pencils.....		79,275	
Slates of all kinds		83,742	
Raw hides and skins		7,620,272	
<i>Manufactured articles—</i>			
Boots and bootees, of silks or satin	570	609	
Boots and bootees, of prunella, lasting, &c.	489	1,203	
Shoes and slippers, of silk or satin.....	2,491	2,473	
Shoes and slippers, of prunella, lasting, &c.	5,846	5,529	
Shoes and slippers, India rubber.....	4,825	1,319	
Grass cloth.....		30,340	
Gunny bags		377,748	
<i>Umbrellas, parasols, and sun-shades—</i>			
Of silk		88,821	
All other.....		13,731	
<i>Unmanufactured articles—</i>			
Flaxseed or linseed	bush.	1,111,721	928,140
Angora, Thibet, and other goats' hair or mohair ...	lbs.	28,525	12,041
Wool		20,200,110	2,822,185
<i>Wines, in casks—</i>			
Burgundy	gallons	29,895	9,397
Madeira		120,391	54,270
Sherry and St. Lucar.....		415,298	244,028
Port		393,197	177,935
Claret.....		2,045,474	497,005
Teneriffe and other Canary		61,199	15,033
Fayal and other Azores.....		40,758	12,518
Sicily and other Mediterranean.....		68,870	23,191
Austria and other of Germany.....		26,957	9,962
Red wines not enumerated		1,854,885	450,195
White wines not enumerated.....		1,379,888	380,204
<i>Wines, in bottles—</i>			
Burgundy	dozen	4,697	16,674
Champagne		184,900	1,004,028
Madeira		67	540
Sherry		2,838	9,797
Port.....		2,222	9,940
Claret.....		153,949	213,513
All other.....		106,878	242,572
<i>Spirits, foreign distilled—</i>			
Brandy.....	gallons	2,152,441	2,255,397
From grain.....		1,197,234	564,569
From other materials.....		399,583	128,308
Cordials		39,129	41,998
<i>Beer, ale, and porter—</i>			
In casks		369,805	134,117
In bottles.....		759,676	432,892
Vinegar		47,072	10,944
Molasses.....		27,759,463	3,126,293
<i>Oil and bone of foreign fishing—</i>			
Spermaceti.....		44	52
Whale and other fish		243,290	116,518
Whalebone.....	pounds	550	22
<i>Oil—</i>			
Olive, in casks	gallons	55,065	48,013
Castor		28,514	14,095
Linseed.....		1,456,611	775,058
Rapeseed.....		50,979	18,926
Hempseed		40	22

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Neatsfoot and other animal.....gallons	21,067	\$1,953
Spirits of turpentine.....	1,412	921
<i>Tea and coffee from places other than that of their production, &c.—</i>		
Tea.....pounds	110,806	13,721
Coffee.....	155,171	12,773
Cocoa.....	3,131,071	180,061
Chocolate.....	31,001	4,696
<i>Sugars—</i>		
Sugar, brown.....	449,520,309	13,406,976
Sugar, white, clayed, or powdered.....	5,658,686	254,308
Sugar, loaf and other refined.....	698,858	39,505
Sugar, candy.....	35,867	3,721
Sirup of sugar-cane.....	50,732	1,992
<i>Fruits—</i>		
Almonds.....	2,187,934	190,259
Currants.....	174,513	15,325
Prunes and plums.....	1,891,103	82,056
Figs.....	2,389,126	118,823
Dates.....	717,935	9,301
Raisins.....	16,839,512	958,877
Nuts.....	4,488,029	149,880
<i>Spices—</i>		
Mace.....	22,241	9,959
Nutmegs.....	327,222	181,810
Cinnamon.....	27,611	4,074
Cloves.....	1,052,700	85,957
Pepper, black.....	6,066,865	363,146
Pepper, red.....	161,566	8,333
Pimento.....	2,523,875	154,123
Cassia.....	1,559,012	226,495
Ginger, ground.....	11,240	467
Ginger, in root.....	1,399,789	42,960
<i>Camphor—</i>		
Crude.....	233,496	39,337
Refined.....	2,350	529
<i>Candles—</i>		
Wax and spermaceti.....	172,841	33,359
Tallow.....	7,201	669
Stearine.....	58,443	11,756
Cheese.....	969,417	93,152
Soap, other than perfumed.....	1,980,366	117,607
Tallow.....	37,406	2,177
Starch.....	51,491	3,005
Pearl barley.....	26,198	954
Butter.....	1,377,765	164,589
Lard.....	150,868	19,728
Beef and pork.....	212,040	12,723
Hams and other bacon.....	68,691	8,419
Bristles.....	659,353	349,154
<i>Salt peter—</i>		
Crude.....	26,232,928	1,036,903
Refined or partly refined.....	10,386	727
Indigo.....	2,097,397	1,151,516
Wood or pastel.....	32,306	804
Ivory and bone black.....	4,863	973
Opium.....	108,178	270,627
Glue.....	211,918	17,295
Gunpowder.....	34,944	9,339
Alum.....	45,768	845
Copperas.....	458,654	2,988
Sulphate of quinine.....ounces	120,753	242,704

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
<i>Vitriol—</i>		
Blue or Roman	pounds 192,338	\$14,957
Oil of	25,092	2,256
Chloride of lime, or bleaching powder	9,088,035	231,755
Soda ash, or barilla	47,418,944	969,428
Sulphate of barytes	2,842,247	21,097
<i>Tobacco—</i>		
Unmanufactured	5,362,613	794,896
Snuff	10,914	2,780
Cigars	M. 353,518	3,384,036
Manufactured, other than snuff and cigars.....	pounds 81,945	11,236
<i>Paints—</i>		
Dry ochre.....	2,041,747	19,776
Red and white lead	1,865,893	102,811
Whiting and Paris white.....	7,929,366	32,848
Litharge.....	108,081	5,166
Sugar of lead	903,665	62,967
<i>Cordage—</i>		
Tarred and cables	2,467,973	179,325
Untarred	917,156	76,644
Twine.....	1,065,220	78,553
Seines.....	4,588	1,540
Hemp, unmanufactured	52,639	378,246
Manilla, sun, and other hemp of India.....	210,193	1,528,329
Jute, Sisal grass, coir, &c.....	87,357	281,940
Codilla, or tow of hemp or flax.....	3,178	21,258
Flax, unmanufactured	23,201	250,391
Rags of all kinds	pounds 32,615,753	1,010,443
Salt.....	bushels 10,158,376	1,310,935
Coal.....	tons 252,865	593,543
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>		
Wheat.....	bushels 2,196,650	2,164,091
Barley	73,700	57,727
Rye	1,232	939
Oats	167,990	48,888
Wheat flour	cwt. 777,728	2,443,586
Rye meal.....	3	7
Oatmeal.....	2,210	4,654
Potatoes.....	bushels 306,187	118,747
<i>Fish, dried, smoked, or pickled—</i>		
Dried or smoked.....	cwt. 76,074	181,469
Salmon.....	barrels 6,810	94,335
Mackerel	62,499	477,131
Herrings and shad.....	61,485	158,348
All other	41,652	149,824
<i>Merchandise not enumerated—</i>		
Paying duties at 5 per cent.....	3,470,315
Paying duties at 10 per cent.....	3,683,184
Paying duties at 15 per cent.....	778,852
Paying duties at 20 per cent.....	7,129,648
Paying duties at 25 per cent.....	826,903
Paying duties at 30 per cent.....	3,346,181
Paying duties at 40 per cent.....	440,449
Total value of merchandise paying duties <i>ad valorem</i>	\$268,975,060
Total value of merchandise free of duty.....	32,519,034
Total value of exports.....	\$301,494,094
To which add value imported into San Francisco, and not received in time to be included in this statement.....	3,068,287
Total.....	\$304,562,381

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

CLIPPING AND SWEATING GOLD COIN.

The crime of "clipping" and "sweating" the coin of Commerce is as old as the days of the Crusades, but we were not aware it had become general in this country, until we recently saw a statement that it is a common trick played with our gold coin. A month or two since, Mr. Birdsall, of the New York Sub-Treasury, probably the best judge of coin in the United States, detected a new device for abstracting a portion of the gold from the twenty-dollar pieces. The edges had been filed down until a dollar and a half had been removed from each double-eagle, and then the pieces had been remilled, so that to the ordinary observer the coin was perfect. This had been discovered in smaller pieces before, but never in the case of these larger ones. Mr. Birdsall has a most acute eye and finger; he recently detected some counterfeit silver coins, which had been skillfully executed, and which, like these gold ones, had passed through the hands of another government official, without suspicion.

SAVINGS BANKS IN NEW YORK AND BROOKLYN.

We have received a correct copy of the report of the Committee on Banks in relation to Savings Banks in the counties of New York and Kings. This report, which we give below, was made in the Senate on the 19th of March, 1855, in pursuance of a resolution of that body of the 3d of January, 1855.

The committee in their report state that returns have been received from all the savings institutions in those two counties, that one bank has failed during the past year to meet its engagements, and has passed into the hands of receivers. The committee therefore exclude the Knickerbocker Savings Bank from their report, but have attached thereto the report sent them by the receiver, which will show the state of that institution on the 7th of February, 1855, which shows there will probably be a loss to the depositors of \$55,091 14.

From all the other institutions, 16 in New York and 3 in Kings County, the reports are made in strict compliance with the resolution calling for them, and from which the committee have made the statement annexed. This statement shows the deposits in New York alone to be over twenty-six millions, and in the two counties \$28,598,726 41 on the first day of January, and the number of depositors to be 133,801. To meet this large indebtedness these institutions hold in bonds and mortgages \$14,459,840 75; in stocks believed to be convertible into money at short notice, \$11,886,868; in real estate, \$756,942 44; and in cash on hand and in deposit, \$2,029,305 15—making together, \$29,130,956 34, and showing a surplus of assets above their liabilities of \$532,229 93. During the last year alone, \$13,411,538 93 have been received, and \$15,734,061 68 have been paid out, a decrease of \$2,322,523, and showing clearly that on the first day of January, 1854, the deposits were \$30,921,249. This difference, it is believed, does not proceed from any want of confidence in these institutions, but is to be accounted for by the pressing demand for money during the past year, and to the necessities arising from the pressure of the times upon that class who make up the large list of depositors.

The committee were unable to give a complete statement of the deposits in the savings institutions in the whole State, but from such returns as they have received, a

statement of which we give below, they are satisfied the banks in the other parts of the State hold at least \$4,000,000—making together, \$32,598,726 41.

It will be seen that this sum compared with the deposits held by similar institutions in older countries, with reference to population, speaks favorably for that class of our people who avail themselves of our savings institutions, showing the deposits to be larger in proportion to our population than they are either in England or France. Our minister in England in 1852, ascertained from official sources, that the deposits in the savings banks in the United Kingdom was £30,184,604 11s., or \$144,886,101 96, and in France it was represented to be about \$150,000,000. It is believed that large as the deposits are now found to be in our savings institutions, a steady increase may be confidently expected, an increase equal at least to that of the general wealth and growth of the State, thus bringing together through them, sums individually small, but in the aggregate immense, which otherwise would have been hoarded in unproductiveness, or wasted in extravagance, and all leading to habits of forethought, providence, and economy, diminishing pauperism and all its attendant evils, while they elevate the social position and promote the happiness of the classes which practice them. So high is the value placed upon these institutions in England, that after years of trial government has, by a recent act of Parliament, made itself responsible for all moneys paid into the savings banks of the kingdom.

The committee, believing that the policy of the State requires that these institutions should be so guarded and protected as to inspire confidence in their safety, and leave them as far as may be undisturbed by frequent legislation hereafter, recommend to the Senate to place them under the supervision of the Bank Department, requiring from them quarterly reports, and giving the Superintendent the same power, in respect to examination, he now has over banks of issue. This plan will inspire and increase confidence, save much legislation, and the reports will afford highly valuable information.

ABSTRACT OF REPORTS OF SAVINGS BANKS IN THE COUNTIES OF NEW YORK AND KINGS.

	Received on deposit in 1854.	Paid to depositors in 1854.	No. of depositors in 1854.	Interest received on stocks in 1854.	Interest received on bonds & mortg's.
Bank for Savings	\$2,348,658	\$3,323,140	33,831	\$224,561	\$109,279
Seamen's	3,056,033	3,254,251	27,273	204,307	156,374
Greenwich	1,031,447	1,422,210	13,182	6,645	67,756
Bowery	2,875,210	3,155,472	41,366	120,781	144,035
Sixpenny	137,513	93,955	2,785	1,071
Manhattan	675,277	654,198	7,529	24,840	38,629
Broadway	408,173	329,708	3,983	17,356	18,053
Mechanics & Traders'	201,823	181,988	2,610	6,623	12,321
Emigrants'	623,312	652,855	3,471	24,274	24,709
Merchants' Clerks'	433,787	460,557	5,418	17,711	33,000
Bloomington	3,823	2,301	36
Mariners'	150,668	71,538	1,475
Rose Hill	13,948	5,872	244	166
Irving	355,378	243,380	3,384	5,580	15,111
East River	319,013	374,103	4,532	5,606	15,412
Dry Dock	468,658	451,395	5,789	1,500
Sixteen banks	13,102,731	14,507,932	125,769	\$660,055	\$637,105
South Brooklyn	132,296	121,921	2,383	4,259	6,232
Brooklyn	772,674	811,336	11,197	27,447	67,599
Williamsburg	393,836	292,871	3,786	12,163	6,066
Three banks	\$1,308,907	\$1,226,129	22,868	\$43,875	\$79,898
Total, 19 banks	13,411,538	15,734,061	148,637	\$703,931	\$717,003

	Interest paid in 1854.	Expenses in 1854.	Accounts opened in 1854.	Accounts closed.	Open accounts, Jan. 1, 1855.	Amount of deposits, January 1, 1855.
Bank for Savings	\$308,677	\$17,621	\$8,651	\$11,510	\$44,158	\$7,236,003
Seamen's	296,829	17,153	5,658	5,144	19,567	6,433,176
Greenwich	117,689	9,867	3,651	3,109	10,501	2,430,220
Bowery	238,862	15,209	10,674	11,221	22,936	4,865,836
Sixpenny	2,437	1,235	2,275	1,591	3,120	85,076
Manhattan	54,450	4,019	2,007	1,602	4,372	1,068,569
Broadway	26,567	3,398	1,166	659	2,196	543,542
Mechanics & Traders'	13,715	2,787	678	448	1,461	261,251
Emigrants'	40,431	3,566	2,182	2,157	3,686	842,400
Merchants' Clerks'	39,450	6,630	1,265	561	3,608	824,145
Bloomington	700	86	8	28	1,527
Mariners'	2,047	2,500	760	281	738	117,076
Rose Hill	143	946	143	56	87	13,948
Irving	15,125	3,294	1,159	610	1,818	407,237
East River	14,114	4,700	1,274	1,222	2,024	351,560
Dry Dock	27,796	2,727	1,546	1,397	2,621	630,147
Sixteen banks	1,198,288	\$96,373	42,125	\$41,576	122,601	26,311,719
South Brooklyn	6,368	2,295	687	592	1,067	167,842
Brooklyn	74,452	11,962	2,685	2,477	7,343	1,743,202
Williamsburg	12,314	3,334	2,203	1,176	2,891	375,962
Three banks	\$93,135	\$17,592	\$5,575	\$4,245	\$11,201	\$2,287,007
Total, 19 banks	1,291,424	113,966	47,700	\$45,821	133,801	28,598,726

	Bonds and mortgages, 1st January, 1855.	Stocks.	Cash on hand, 1st Jan., 1855.	Rate of interest paid, p. ct.	No. of drafts paid in 1854.	Real estate.
Bank for Savings	\$2,882,433	\$4,576,806	\$287,846	4 & 5	\$40,592	\$99,700
Seamen's	3,377,350	2,783,433	275,028	5 & 6	24,749	151,157
Greenwich	1,173,369	1,120,452	151,542	5 & 6	10,369	79,258
Bowery	2,551,200	1,746,431	731,433	4 & 5	33,107	128,431
Sixpenny	58,100	28,614	5 & 6	3,398
Manhattan	737,229	129,495	86,888	4,5 & 6	6,323
Broadway	282,500	175,271	85,027	5 & 6	3,983
Mechanics & Traders'	194,850	44,750	46,955	5 & 6	1,781
Emigrants'	453,344	327,682	32,015	5 & 6	8,127	45,000
Merchants' Clerks'	410,750	352,541	19,438	5 & 6	4,335	65,000
Bloomington	500	1,035	5 & 6	50
Mariners'	66,200	38,374	10,705	5 & 6	736
Rose Hill	3,500	3,629	5 & 6	106
Irving	223,569	74,400	80,886	4,5 & 6	2,139	23,918
East River	253,010	29,000	39,733	4 & 5	4,440	40,000
Dry Dock	601,100	22,750	23,403	5 & 6	4,514	54,002
Sixteen banks	13,065,505	11,224,905	1,903,993	154,249	686,934
South Brooklyn	97,225	54,151	11,981	5	1,946
Brooklyn	1,124,944	434,900	103,633	5	9,163	44,207
Williamsburg	170,166	174,712	10,796	6	4,682	25,800
Three banks	\$1,392,335	\$663,763	\$125,311	\$15,791	\$70,008
Total, 19 banks	14,457,840	11,886,868	2,029,305	160,040	756,942

NOTE.—In the above tables the cent columns, for the sake of convenience, are omitted, which will make a slight difference.

REPORTS OF EIGHTEEN COUNTRY SAVINGS BANKS, 1ST JANUARY, 1855.

Due depositors.		Due depositors.	
Westchester County.....	\$36,927 24	Auburn.....	\$28,679 93
Sixpenny, Albany.....	5,538 50	Monroe County.....	192,958 25
Eric County.....	132,291 73	Buffalo.....	685,142 74
Newburg.....	38,921 80	Yonkers.....	9,204 84
Sixpenny, Rochester.....	22,997 57	Syracuse.....	62,053 39
Ulster County.....	40,364 74	Hudson City.....	28,162 64
Western, Buffalo.....	69,498 34	Utica.....	327,455 35
Brockport.....	7,447 46	Cohoes.....	12,270 17
Rome.....	26,612 87	Central City.....	70,405 14
Total.....			\$1,796,932 80

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF TURKEY.

As the financial condition of Turkey is at the present moment a subject of interest, we subjoin a statement both of its revenue and expenditure:—

RECEIPTS.	Piastres.
The principal are the dimes, or tithes.....	220,000,000
Income tax.....	200,000,000
Poll-tax on non-Mussulmans.....	40,000,000
Customs.....	86,000,000
Egyptian tribute.....	32,000,000
Wallachian tribute.....	2,000,000
Moldavian tribute.....	1,000,000
Servian tribute.....	2,000,000
From various other sources.....	150,000,000
Total receipts.....piastres	733,000,000

EXPENDITURE.	Piastres.
Civil list of the sultan.....	75,000,000
Sultana, mother of the sultan, &c.....	8,400,000
Army.....	300,000,000
Marine.....	37,500,000
Salaries of employes of all grades, in the administration.....	195,000,000
Subventions to all religious establishments and mosques.....	12,500,000
Life annuities, as compensation to ancient fiefs dispossessed.....	40,000,000
Foreign affairs, ambassadors, &c.....	10,000,000
Public roads, paving, &c, by dotation from the treasury.....	10,000,000
Life annuities, interest on six per cent treasury bonds issued.....	12,500,000
Without any fixed period for payment.....	9,000,000
Total expenditures.....piastres	733,400,000

OF GRACE ON SIGHT BILLS.

[FROM THE NEW YORK COURIER AND ENQUIRER.]

There is still an uncertainty in the State of New York as to the right of a drawee to grace on a bill of exchange drawn at sight. The courts have left the matter open, and the banks, through which large amounts of bills of this character necessarily pass, are left in doubt as to the right of the parties to such paper, including the drawers, drawees, indorsers, &c. By usage only, grace is allowed on bills at sight, by the banks in the States of Alabama, Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, and Texas. In all such cases, however, there is a risk involved on the part of the holder. If the party drawn upon, fail between the day of presentation and the third day of grace, the *bona fide* owner or holder may have a claim upon the bank or correspondent for *laches*.

On the other hand, grace is refused on such paper by the banks and bankers in Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Illinois, and California. In some cases, acceptance on sight bills has been offered and

refused; and should the courts decide such paper to be entitled to grace, the risk is considerable on the part of the bank or banker.

In a few States there is an express statute which permits grace on sight bills, viz.: New Hampshire, Massachusetts, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Wisconsin. The statute in these cases is sufficient, and all parties act advisedly in the premises.

In the following States there are statutes providing that grace shall not be allowed on bills payable at sight, viz.: Michigan, Tennessee, and Georgia.

In New York, Louisiana, and Ohio, the practice is not uniform, and the usual mode is to protest a bill for non-acceptance, if not paid on presentation; and then to protest for non-payment on the third day, if not paid.

There is a statute of Georgia, passed 8th of February, 1850, on the subject of sight bills. The law is in these words: "SECTION 2. Three days, commonly called the 'three days of grace,' shall not be allowed upon any sight drafts, or bills of exchange, drawn payable at sight, after the passage of this act; but the same shall be payable on presentation thereof, subject to the provisions of the first section of this act."

The importance of this subject to the commercial community cannot be overstated. There are large amounts at risk daily in all commercial cities, where there is no express statute to meet the difficulty. All that bankers require is, that a statute shall be passed which shall authorize grace on sight bills, or refuse it.

We recommend the following statute of Massachusetts to the attention of our legislature, as worthy of imitation:—

"SECTION 5. In all bills of exchange payable at sight, or at a future day certain, within this State, and on all promissory negotiable notes, orders, and drafts, payable at a future day certain, within this State, in which there is not an express stipulation to the contrary, *grace shall be allowed*, except as provided in the following section, in a like manner as it is allowed by the custom of merchants on foreign bills of exchange payable at the expiration of a certain period after date or sight.

"SEC. 6. The provisions of the preceding section shall not extend to any bill of exchange, note, or draft, payable *on demand*."

THE INDIANA FREE BANK LAW AMENDED.

The Indiana Legislature has passed the bills amending the Free Bank law, and the bill chartering the State Bank and branches, notwithstanding the governor's veto, and both bills are now laws.

The Free Bank bill increases the amount of security to be deposited, to one dollar and ten cents to every dollar issued. The State Bank bill creates a new State Bank, with branches. The charter of the old one expires in two years. The new bank will be organized in July and the branches in September; but they will be merely organized and a small installment paid on the stock, when the machine will remain *in statu quo* until the charter of the old bank expires. The *Indianapolis Journal* speaks as follows of the law:—

We have now a free bank system as tightly tied up, we think as one can be made, and give the bankers room to breathe. If properly enforced, we do not think it possible for the bill-holder to be injured to any considerable extent by a bank suspension. The State Bank bill was amended in the House by striking out all that transferred the new organization to the State's interest in the old bank, so that those acting under it will not get the benefit of the State's funds even by way of a loan. Whether the want of that provision will interfere with the organization under the bill is a matter about which there appears to be different opinions. At all events, we have now banks enough provided for, and as much time and labor were spent upon these measures in the committee before they went to the two Houses, and as both were thoroughly discussed before their passage, we have some assurance that they will lack nothing that attention and industry can bestow.

In addition to the increased deposits of securities required from the free banks, they are also required, within six months, to establish a clearing house in Indianapolis, and to redeem the bills of all the banks at a discount of not over one per cent, and receive each other's notes, whether they have failed or not, in payment of debts.

THE BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES—1834 TO 1855.

THE FIGURES INDICATE THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS ON OR JUST PRECEDING THE FIRST JANUARY IN EACH YEAR.

	No. of banks, including branches.	LIABILITIES.					RESOURCES.				Ratio of circulation to specie.
		Capital.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Profits.	Total.	Notes, bills of exchange, &c.	Specie.	Real estate.	Total.	
1834.....	506	\$200,005,944	\$71,957,299	\$75,666,986	\$21,817,855	\$369,448,084	\$331,641,753	\$26,641,753	\$10,850,090	\$369,448,084	\$2 70
1835.....	704	231,250,337	100,815,269	83,081,365	22,009,237	437,156,148	382,078,356	43,937,625	11,140,167	437,156,148	2 29
1836.....	713	251,875,292	132,710,548	115,104,440	38,514,390	538,204,670	483,960,701	40,019,594	14,194,375	538,204,670	3 32
1837.....	788	290,772,091	151,969,860	127,397,185	40,153,599	610,292,735	553,312,944	37,915,340	19,064,451	610,292,735	4 03
1838.....	829	317,636,778	153,990,871	84,691,134	57,412,297	613,731,130	544,638,414	35,184,112	33,908,604	613,731,130	4 38
1839.....	840	327,132,512	170,881,428	90,240,146	33,757,713	622,111,799	560,371,294	45,132,673	16,607,832	622,111,799	3 79
1840.....	907	358,442,692	132,405,294	75,797,857	29,206,958	595,811,801	533,524,727	33,165,155	29,181,919	595,811,801	4 00
1841.....	784	313,608,959	114,631,651	69,786,327	36,505,579	534,622,516	465,487,662	34,813,958	34,320,896	534,622,516	3 30
1842.....	692	260,171,797	72,187,704	62,408,870	26,808,793	421,577,164	359,794,753	28,440,423	33,341,988	421,577,164	2 54
1843.....	691	228,861,948	53,404,283	56,168,628	20,754,715	359,189,574	302,846,961	33,515,806	22,826,807	359,189,574	1 59
1844.....	696	210,872,056	65,474,277	84,550,785	18,170,071	379,067,189	306,648,057	49,898,269	22,520,863	379,067,189	1 33
1845.....	707	206,145,969	80,140,021	88,029,646	18,034,569	392,250,205	325,831,693	44,241,242	22,177,270	392,250,205	1 81
1846.....	707	196,894,309	94,493,168	96,913,070	22,706,855	411,012,402	349,901,307	42,012,095	19,039,000	411,012,402	2 25
1847.....	715	203,070,622	93,864,623	91,702,533	19,061,891	407,780,669	351,437,188	35,132,516	21,219,865	407,780,669	2 07
1848.....	751	204,838,175	118,089,622	103,226,177	30,440,886	456,594,860	389,094,140	46,369,765	20,580,955	456,594,860	2 55
1849.....	782	207,309,361	106,003,715	91,178,623	34,634,960	439,731,659	372,540,716	43,619,368	23,571,575	439,731,659	2 44
1850.....	824	217,317,211	118,984,142	109,586,595	28,437,193	474,325,141	408,363,630	45,379,345	20,582,166	474,325,141	2 62
1851.....	879	227,807,553	140,106,408	128,957,712	32,442,055	529,313,728	460,422,956	48,671,048	20,219,724	529,313,728	2 88
1852.....	992	237,164,395	156,137,654	162,273,856	46,711,023	602,287,433	527,863,521	53,167,429	21,256,433	602,287,433	2 94
1853.....	1,098	249,725,316	172,885,924	178,807,535	78,837,755	630,257,530	604,129,867	54,411,288	21,716,275	630,257,530	3 18
1854.....	1,208	301,376,071	190,274,494	188,188,744	85,996,856	765,836,165	684,058,440	59,410,253	22,367,472	765,836,165	3 20
1855.....	1,182	326,123,287	165,056,394	207,945,736	39,398,333	737,623,800	657,346,195	57,611,868	22,165,737	737,623,800	2 86

BANKING ACTS OF NEW YORK PASSED IN 1854.

AN ACT FOR THE WITHDRAWAL OF THE CIRCULATING BILLS OF INCORPORATED BANKS WHOSE CHARTERS HAVE EXPIRED OR MAY HEREAFTER EXPIRE.

SEC. 1. The circulating notes issued by any incorporated bank, whose charter has expired or shall hereafter expire, shall be withdrawn from circulation by the trustees or legal representatives thereof, and returned to the Superintendent of the Banking Department, to be destroyed, as follows:—

The notes of banks whose charters have already expired, one-third part of its circulating notes in one year, one other third part within two years, and the remaining one-third part within three years from the time this act shall take effect.

And the circulating notes of all banks whose charters shall hereafter expire, as follows:—

One-third part in one year, one other third part thereof in two years, and the remaining one-third part in three years from the time their charters shall respectively expire. But this section shall not prevent any person, individual banker, or banking association, from presenting to the trustees or legal representatives of such expired incorporated bank, such circulating notes for payment at any time. And nothing contained in this act shall, in any manner, affect or impair the duties, liabilities, or obligations of the trustees, directors, or stockholders of such expired incorporated banks, or the rights or remedies of any of the holders of such circulating notes.

REISSUE PROHIBITED.

SEC. 2. Every banking association transformed from an incorporated bank, and the officers and agents of every such association, and the trustees and agents of all such expired incorporated banks, shall be prohibited from issuing, paying out, or in any way, directly or indirectly, circulating the notes of any incorporated bank whose charter has expired, or shall hereafter expire, after the time limited by the first section of this act for its withdrawal from circulation. And every such association, officer, agent, or trustee, that shall offend against any of the provisions of this act, shall be liable to the penalties prescribed by law for issuing bills or promissory notes for the purpose of putting them in circulation as money, without being authorized by law.

DEPOSIT REQUIRED.

SEC. 3. And in case of any failure to return such circulating notes to the Superintendent of the Bank Department, to be destroyed as provided for in the first section of this act, the said trustees or legal representatives of such expired incorporated bank shall deposit with such Superintendent an amount, in cash, which shall be equal to the circulating notes required to be returned as aforesaid, to be held as security until the said circulating notes are returned to said Superintendent to be destroyed; except as to the last one-third part of said circulating notes, for which no deposit of money shall be required. But this last one-third part of said circulating notes shall be withdrawn from circulation and destroyed, as far as practicable, as provided for in the first section of this act.

And if any trustee or legal representative of such expired bank shall neglect or refuse to comply with the provisions of this act, it shall be the duty of such Superintendent to proceed to wind up the affairs of such expired bank in the same manner as if it were an insolvent corporation.

SEC. 4. This act shall take effect on the first day of May, 1854.

AN ACT DIRECTING THE COPIES AND CERTIFICATES OF ASSOCIATION OF BANKS TO BE TRANSFERRED FROM THE SECRETARY'S OFFICE TO THE BANKING DEPARTMENT.

SEC. 1. All copies of certificates of association, under and by virtue of the General Free Banking Law and the acts amendatory thereof, filed in the office of the Secretary of State, shall be transferred to the Banking Department; and hereafter all copies of certificates of association, formed pursuant to such laws, shall be filed in the office of the Superintendent of the Banking Department, who shall furnish, on payment of the same fees now chargeable in the Secretary's office, all certificates in relation thereto, as if the same had been originally filed in his office. All the powers conferred upon, or duties required by any law of this State to be performed by, the Secretary of State, in relation to banking associations, shall hereafter be performed by the Superintendent of the Banking Department.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect immediately.

AN ACT AMENDATORY OF THE ACT ENTITLED "AN ACT AUTHORIZING THE BUSINESS OF BANKING," PASSED APRIL 18, 1838, AND THE ACTS AMENDING THE SAME.

SPECIAL AGENT TO TAKE OATH.

SEC. 1. The person designated by the Superintendent of the Bank Department, under the existing laws, to examine the books, papers, and affairs of any bank, banking association, or individual banker, shall take and file in the office of the clerk of the county where he resides, the oath of office prescribed in the constitution, and he shall have authority to examine, on oath, any individual banker, and the officers, agents, partners, and clerks of such banker, and of any bank or banking association, touching the matters which he shall be directed to inquire into; and any wilful false swearing in any such examination shall be perjury. And when directed by the said Superintendent, such person shall inquire whether any banker transacts the business of banking at the city, town, or village, where the circulating notes of such individual banker purport to have been issued and dated; and whether any bank or banking association transacts the business of banking at the place designated in its charter or certificate of association; and whether such banking business is conducted in the manner prescribed by law.

POWERS OF SPECIAL AGENT.

SEC. 2. Such person shall have power to summon, in writing under his hand, any inhabitant of the county in which he may be conducting the inquiry, to appear before him and testify in relation to the same. If the party so summoned shall refuse or neglect to appear at the time and place specified in such summons, or having appeared, shall refuse to be sworn, or shall refuse to answer any pertinent or legal question, he shall forfeit the sum of one hundred dollars, to be sued for and recovered, with costs, by the Superintendent of the Bank Department, in his name and office, and to be paid into the Treasury, to defray the general expenses of the Bank Department; and upon such neglect or refusal being duly proved, by the person conducting the inquiry, before any Justice of the Supreme Court, if such Justice be satisfied that the party so neglecting or refusing ought to be examined touching the matters of such inquiry, he shall, by warrant, commit such party to the jail of the county, there to remain in close custody until he shall submit to appear, to testify, or answer, as the case may be.

SUPERINTENDENT TO REFUSE CIRCULATING NOTES.

SEC. 3. If it shall appear, from such examination and report, that any bank, banking association, or individual banker, is in an unsound or unsafe condition to do banking business, or that the business of banking is not transacted by such bank, association, or banker, at the place where said circulating notes are dated and purport to be issued, or is not transacted in the manner prescribed by law, it shall be the duty of the Superintendent to withhold and refuse to issue or deliver any registered notes to such bank, association, or banker, and to retain the interest on all securities held in trust for such bank, association, or banker, until such time as he shall be satisfied that such bank, association, or banker, is in a sound and safe condition to do a banking business, and that the business of banking is transacted by such bank, association, or banker, at the place where their circulating notes are dated and purport to be issued.

SPECIAL REPORT TO BE PUBLISHED.

SEC. 4. Whenever the Superintendent shall deem it proper, a copy of any such report shall be published in the State paper, and in at least two daily newspapers in the city of New York. The reasonable cost and expenses of every such examination and publication shall be paid by the bank, association, or banker, whose affairs are examined, in the manner provided in the "Act to Organize a Bank Department."

CHANGE OF RESIDENCE TO BE REPORTED.

SEC. 5. The second and third sections of chapter two hundred and eighty-one* of

* SEC. 2. Each and every individual banker now doing business under the General Banking Law of this State, or who shall, before this law takes effect, have received circulating notes under the said act, shall state in his quarterly reports whether any person or persons, and who, are interested with such individual banker, directly or indirectly, in the securities deposited with the Controller for the circulating notes obtained by such individual banker, or in the business of circulating said notes, or the benefits or advantages thereof; and if it shall appear from such report that any other person is so interested with said banker, and in case two successive reports of said banker shall

the laws of eighteen hundred and forty-four are hereby extended and declared to be applicable to every individual banker who is now doing business, or shall hereafter do business under the General Banking Laws of this State, or who has received, or hereafter shall receive, circulating notes under the said laws; and the certificate required by the third section of the said act, shall be filed by every individual banker now doing business as aforesaid, and who has not already filed the same, within sixty days after this act shall take effect; and by every individual banker who shall hereafter desire to obtain circulating notes under the General Banking Laws of this State, previous to the delivery of any such notes to him. In case of a notice being filed with the Superintendent of the Bank Department of any change of residence of any individual banker, and of the place of doing his business, the Superintendent shall publish a notice thereof in the State paper, and in such other newspapers as he shall direct, at the expense of such banker.

Names of all parties interested to be reported.

SEC. 6. When it shall appear by the return of any individual banker, or by the report of any person designated by the Superintendent of the Bank Department, that any person is interested with such individual banker, directly or indirectly, in the securities deposited by him for the purpose of obtaining circulating notes, or in the business of circulating such notes, or in the benefits or advantages thereof, the said Superintendent shall withhold all interest and dividends on the securities deposited with him by such banker, and all circulating notes from him, until such banker shall have filed in the Bank Department a certificate signed by every person so returned or reported as interested as aforesaid, and acknowledged by him in the manner prescribed by law to entitle deeds of land to be recorded, stating that such person is interested with such individual banker in the circulating notes obtained, or to be obtained by him, and in the benefits and advantages of circulating the same; which certificate shall be evidence in all courts and places that the person so signing and acknowledging the same is a general partner with the said original banker, in the business of banking, and as such is liable with him individually for all the debts and obligations created or made by such individual banker in the said business.

SEC. 7. In the publication of the abstracts of the quarterly returns of individual bankers, the Superintendent of the Bank Department shall arrange them in a separate class, and shall specify the name and place of business of each, and the names and residence of the general partners.

Notes not to be signed by agents.

SEC. 8. The circulating notes delivered to individual bankers shall express only the individual liability of the banker issuing them, and shall be signed by him only, and not by any attorney or agent; and any banker or person acting as his attorney or agent, who shall violate any provision of this section, shall be liable to a penalty of one hundred dollars for each offense, to be recovered in the name of the people of this State, with costs, and to be paid into the treasury to defray the general expenses of the Bank Department.

Transfer of business prohibited.

SEC. 9. It shall not be lawful for any individual banker, having circulating notes obtained under the General Banking Laws of this State, to sell or transfer the business of banking upon the securities deposited by him, to any person or persons; and until such business shall be closed by the return of the circulating notes issued, and the delivery of the securities deposited, the same shall be conducted only in the name of the individual banker by whom the said securities were deposited, and he shall continue individually liable for the payment of all circulating notes delivered to him.

not contain such statement, or if he omits twice in succession to make such quarterly reports, such banker shall forfeit one thousand dollars for each and every omission to make such statement, or to file such reports as aforesaid, to be sued for and recovered by the Attorney-General, in the name and for the benefit of the people of this State.

SEC. 3. Every individual banker who shall heretofore have obtained circulating notes of the Controller, under said act, shall within ninety days after this act takes effect, file in the Controller's office a certificate, stating the town, city, or village in which he resides; and thereafter it shall not be lawful for such individual banker to transact business under said act in any other place than in which he resides, and in case of any change of residence of such individual banker, he shall forthwith file a notice thereof in the Controller's office as aforesaid. Any person neglecting to comply with the requirements of this section, or either of them, shall for each neglect forfeit one thousand dollars, to be sued for and recovered by the Attorney-General in the name and for the benefit of the people of this State.

BOSTON BANK STOCKS AND DIVIDENDS.

The following table showing the capital, and last three semi-annual dividends, with the market value of stock, dividend off, April, 1854, October, 1854, and March 27, 1855, is derived from a statement made up by Joseph G. Martin, Stock and Exchange Broker, Boston, and originally published in HALE'S *Daily Advertiser* :—

	Capital.	DIVIDENDS			VALUE OF STOCKS		
		April, 1854...	October, 1854...	April, 1855...	April, 1854...	October, 1854...	March 27, 1855
Freeman's.....	\$400,000	5	5	5	112	113	110
Market, (par 70).....	560,000	5	5	5	85½	83½	85
Suffolk.....	1,000,000	5	5	5	130	127	128
Boylston.....	400,000	5	5	4½	115	115	108
Atlantic.....	500,000	4	4	4	108	106	106
Blackstone.....	750,000	4	4	4	105½	103	101
Boston, (par 50).....	900,000	4	4	4	57	56	57
Commerce.....	2,000,000	4	4	4	104	98	100
Eagle.....	700,000	4	4	4	104½	102½	104
Exchange.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	108	108	109
Faneuil Hall.....	500,000	4	4	4	104	104	104
Globe.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	110	110	111
Grocers'.....	650,000	4	4	4	103½	98	99
Hamilton.....	500,000	4	4	4	110	110	111
Howard.....	500,000	4	4	4	100	99	98
Mechanics'.....	250,000	4	4	4	108	100	104
Merchants'.....	4,000,000	4	4	4	109	105½	106½
National.....	650,000	4	4	4	101	100	100
New England.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	109	106	108½
North.....	750,000	4	4	4	103	101	100
Shawmut.....	750,000	4	4	4	109	104	104
Shoe and Leather.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	109	106	108½
Traders'.....	600,000	4	4	4	103½	102	103
Tremont.....	1,250,000	4	4	4	109	107	109
Union.....	1,000,000	4	4	4	110	108	109
Washington.....	750,500	4	4	3½	101	102	99½
North America.....	750,000	4	4	3½	103½	102	101
Granite.....	900,000	4	3½	3½	102½	99½	100
Atlas.....	500,000	3½	4	4	103½	102½	103
Eliot.....	468,000	3	4	4	100	99	100
City.....	1,000,000	3½	3½	3½	103	101	103
Columbian.....	750,000	3½	3½	3½	103	101	103
State, (par 60).....	1,800,000	3½	3½	3½	63½	63	64½
Webster.....	1,500,000	3½	3½	3½	104	102	103
Massachusetts, (par 250)...	800,000	8	8	8	255	250	250
Broadway.....	127,000	.	5	4	102	101	100
Maverick.....	400,000	(new)		3	97
Amount of dividends, April, 1854.....							\$1,238,600
Amount of dividends, October, 1854.....							1,237,600
Amount of dividends, April, 1855.....							1,268,150

The Atlantic Bank made an extra cash dividend of 10 per cent, April, 1854; Shawmut, 8 per cent, July, 1854; and the Mechanics', 12½ per cent, October, 1854. The dividend of the Broadway Bank (South Boston) in October, 1854, was for the first nine months of its operation.

The dividend of the Maverick (3 per cent) is for the first six months of its operation.

As compared with October, 1854, the Boylston, North America, and Washington, each pay ½ per cent less.

The capital authorized by the Legislature in 1854 has not yet been all paid up. The Broadway has authority to increase to \$150,000; Eliot, \$750,000; Grocers', \$750,000; and National, \$750,000, all of which is being paid in. The Howard Banking Co. were allowed an increase of \$250,000, but none of it has yet been called for.

OF INVESTING MONEY IN THE BONDS OF TENNESSEE.

The following "act to authorize the investing of certain moneys in State bonds," passed the General Assembly of Tennessee, February 27th, 1854:—

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee: That after paying the interest on the bonds of the State issued for stock in the Union Bank, the balance of dividends and bonus shall be paid on the order of the Governor and Controller, for 6 per cent bonds of the State.

SEC. 2. And the dividends arising from the school-fund stock in the Union and Planters' Banks, shall be paid over on the order of the Governor and Controller for 6 per cent bonds of the State.

SEC. 3. It shall be the duty of the said Governor and Controller to cause the bonds purchased with the proceeds of the dividends on State stock and bonus of the Union Bank, until the amount shall equal the sum paid out of the Treasury for the redemption of Union Bank bonds.

SEC. 4. It shall be the duty of said Governor and Controller to deposit the bonds purchased with the dividends arising from school-fund stock in the Union and Planter's Banks, in the Bank of Tennessee, and take the receipt of the president of the bank for the same. And the Treasurer of the State is hereby directed to draw the interest of said bonds, and distribute annually as other school funds.

THE USURY LAWS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

HENRY J. GARDNER, the present Governor of Massachusetts, a gentleman of liberal education and large experience as a merchant, recommends, in his first annual address to the Legislature of that State, the repeal of the Usury Laws. He says to the Legislature: "The repeal of the Usury Laws is believed to be desired by the business community. The notorious violation of any law serves only to create disrespect for all. Honorable men are deterred from lending money at its real value, on personal security, when contrary to law; and a portion of the funds of the community being thus diverted from this channel, men less scrupulous obtain a higher rate from the borrower. There is little doubt but that the repeal of these laws would reduce the price of money. Then, too, the borrower can meet the lender face to face, and make an open bargain, without resorting to the agency and cost of a third party, to avoid infringement of the letter of the law. The usury laws have recently been repealed in Great Britain, and the question will probably soon be favorably considered in various States of the Union. In my judgment, the change here should be made in such a way as not to affect loans on mortgage. With that view I recommend the repeal of the usury laws now in force, so far as they apply to negotiable paper having not exceeding eight months to mature."

THE RICH MEN OF SAN FRANCISCO.

The San Francisco *Chronicle* has a list containing two hundred and forty-five names of persons and firms who pay taxes in that county on property valued at \$15,000 and over. We give a list of those who pay upon \$100,000 and over:—

J. L. Folsom	\$875,506	Abel Guy.....	\$126,200
Samuel Brannan.....	494,300	James Cunningham.....	125,300
California Steam Navigation Company	350,000	M. Codsroy.....	186,500
Halleck, Peachy & Billings..	307,000	Rotton, Barron & Co.....	133,900
Nicaragua Steamship Co.....	340,000	North Point Co.....	120,900
Davidson & Co.....	332,100	Page, Bacon & Co.....	160,000
Palmer, Cook & Co.....	204,400	M. Throckmorton	120,000
W. D. M. Howard.....	219,800	Samuel Moss, Jr.....	100,000
Crogan & Lent	202,000	John Cowell	106,000
John Parrott.....	186,000	Moore, Folger & Co.....	105,000
James Lick.....	172,000	J. L. Riddle.....	100,500
Flint, Peabody & Co.....	168,500	T. O. Larkin.....	104,100
		Lucas, Turner & Co.....	114,000

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

RECIPROCIITY TREATY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN.

We publish below the proclamation of the President of the United States in regard to the reciprocity treaty between the United States and Great Britain, together with the Circular of Regulations relating to the same issued by the Secretary of the Treasury on the 17th of March, 1855. The treaty and the several laws referred to, have been published in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

The Proclamation of the President of the United States of America is in the words following:—

Whereas, by act of the Congress of the United States, approved the 5th day of August, 1854, entitled "An act to carry into effect a treaty between the United States and Great Britain, signed on the 5th day of June, 1854," it is provided that whenever the President of the United States shall receive satisfactory evidence that the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and the Provincial Parliaments of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward's Island have passed laws on their part to give full effect to the provisions of the said treaty, he is authorized to issue his proclamation declaring that he has such evidence;

And whereas satisfactory information has been received by me that the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and the Provincial Parliaments of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward's Island have passed laws on their part to give full effect to the provisions of the treaty aforesaid:

Now, therefore, I, Franklin Pierce, President of the United States of America, do hereby declare and proclaim that from this date the following articles, being the growth and produce of the said provinces of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward's Island, to wit: 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 in its crude or unwrought state; 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; dyestuffs; flax, hemp, and tow, unmanufactured; unmanufactured tobacco; rugs—shall be introduced into the United States free of duty, so long as the said treaty shall remain in force; subject, however, to be suspended in relation to the trade with Canada, on the condition mentioned in the fourth article of the said treaty; and that all the other provisions of the said treaty shall go into effect and be observed on the part of the United States.

Given under my hand at the city of Washington, the sixteenth day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifty-five, and of the Independence of the United States the seventy-ninth.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

W. L. MARCY, Secretary of State.

General Instructions. No. 44. Under Reciprocity Treaty between the United States and Great Britain, of June 5th, 1854.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, March 17, 1855.

TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS.

The President of the United States has, by proclamation bearing date the 16th day of March, 1855, issued in pursuance of authority vested in him by the act of Congress approved the 5th of August, 1854, entitled "An act to carry into effect a treaty between the United States and Great Britain," signed on the 5th day of June, 1854, declared that satisfactory information having been received by him that the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and the Provincial Parliaments of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward's Island have passed laws on their part to give full effect to the provisions of said treaty, the articles being the growth and produce of the above-named provinces, enumerated in the schedule annexed to the third arti-

cle of the treaty aforesaid, shall, from the date of said proclamation, be introduced into the United States free of duty, so long as said treaty shall remain in force; subject, however, to be suspended in relation to the trade with Canada on the condition mentioned in the fourth article of said treaty. It therefore becomes the duty of this Department, in order to carry into effect the provisions of the act approved March 2, 1855, entitled "An act to amend an act to carry into effect a treaty between the United States and Great Britain, signed on the 5th of June, 1854, and approved August 5, 1854," to issue the following instructions:—

Collectors and other officers of the customs will immediately on receipt of this circular transmit to the Department a statement of all the receipts issued at their respective offices, on entries for consumption, of the articles specified in the schedule before referred to, in pursuance of the directions contained in Instructions to Collectors, dated the 16th October, 1854, and General Regulations No. 36, dated 10th November, 1854, which statement will show the names of the parties to whom issued, the amount of the duties for which the respective receipts were given, the quantity and description of the article or articles on which levied, the date of the entries, the name and nation of the vessel or other vehicle, and the places whence arriving. They will also transmit a statement of all bonds given upon entries for warehousing of the articles referred to, giving such particulars of the transaction as will show the true object of said bonds.

It will be perceived that agreeably to the stipulations of this treaty, from and after the 16th instant, the date of the President's proclamation, the articles enumerated in the third article thereof, when of the growth or production of either of the provinces named in said proclamation, are to be admitted to free entry, when imported into the United States from such province, but due entry thereof must be made in conformity with the 7th section of the act of Congress "to provide for obtaining accurate statements of the foreign Commerce of the United States," approved the 10th of February, 1820.

In the enumeration above referred to, the several articles to be admitted without the payment of duty, are in most instances specified with sufficient clearness. It is conceived, however, that to obviate difficulty or misconception, it becomes proper to state that in regard to the class of woods as given in said enumeration under the title of "timber and lumber of all kinds, round, hewed, and sawed, unmanufactured in whole or in part," the following specified articles, decisions in respect to all of which, with the exception of the article laths, have been heretofore made by this Department under the existing tariff act, are to be considered as *manufactures of wood*, and therefore not admissible to free entry, namely:—

Beams, boards, planks, joists, laths, lasts, staves, hoops, headings, masts, spars, knees, canes, palings, pickets, posts, rails, rail-ties, or any other article of wood entered under the designation of timber or lumber, or otherwise, if fully manufactured and fit for use as imported, or manufactured in whole or in part by planing, turning, or any process of manufacture other than hewing or sawing.

Application for the return of duties under this circular, and the cancelation of bonds for merchandise warehoused in bond, must be made to the Secretary of the Treasury, accompanied by proper proof.

You will find the President's proclamation and the several laws referred to, annexed, together with the reciprocity treaty.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

COMPACT BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND LOO-CHOO.

The following compact between the United States of America and the Royal Governor of Loo-Choo was entered into at Napa by the respective plenipotentiaries of the two governments, (Commodore Matthew C. Perry on the part of the United States, and Sho Fir-fing and Ba Rio-si for the government of Loo Choo,) on the 11th day of July, 1854, which compact is word for word as follows:—

Hereafter, whenever the citizens of the United States come to Loo-Choo, they shall be treated with great courtesy and friendship. Whatever articles these people ask for, whether from officers or people, which the country can furnish, shall be sold to them; nor shall the authorities interpose any prohibitory regulations to the people selling, and whatever either party may wish to buy, shall be exchanged at reasonable prices.

Whenever ships of the United States shall come into any harbor in Loo-Choo they shall be supplied with wood and water at reasonable prices; but if they wish to get other articles they shall be purchasable only at Napa.

If ships of the United States are wrecked on Great Loo-Choo, or on islands under the jurisdiction of the Royal Governor of Loo-Choo, the local authorities shall dispatch persons to assist in saving life and property, and preserve what can be brought ashore till the ships of that nation shall come to take away all that may have been saved; and the expenses incurred in rescuing these unfortunate persons shall be refunded by the nation they belong to.

Whenever persons from ships of the United States come ashore in Loo-Choo they shall be at liberty to ramble where they please without hindrance or having officials sent to follow them or to spy what they do; but if they violently go into houses, or trifle with women, or force people to sell them things, or do other such like illegal acts, they shall be arrested by the local officers, but not maltreated, and shall be reported to the captain of the ship to which they belong for punishment by him.

At Tumai is a burial ground for the citizens of the United States, where their graves and tombs shall not be molested.

The government of Loo-choo shall appoint skillful pilots, who shall be on the lookout for ships appearing off the island, and if one is seen coming towards Napa they shall go out in good boats beyond the reefs to conduct her in to a secure anchorage, for which service the captain shall pay the pilot five dollars, and the same for going out of the harbor beyond the reefs.

Whenever ships anchor at Napa the officers shall furnish them with wood at the rate of three thousand six hundred copper cash per thousand catties; and with water at the rate of six hundred copper cash (43 cents) for one thousand catties, or six barrels full, each containing 30 American gallons.

On the 9th day of March, 1855, Franklin Pierce, President of the United States, caused the above compact to be made public, to the end that the same and every clause and article thereof may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof.

LAW OF NEW JERSEY ON THE SALE OF CANDLES.

The following act regulating the sale of candles, was passed at the last session of the legislature of New Jersey, and approved by the Governor on the 26th of February, 1855. It takes effect on the 4th of July, 1855.

AN ACT TO REGULATE THE SALE OF CANDLES.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and General Assembly of the State of New Jersey*, That, from and after the 4th day of July next, it shall not be lawful for any person or persons, in the State of New Jersey, to sell any description of candles in a box or boxes, or other package or packages, unless the actual weight of the candles therein contained, be plainly and conspicuously marked or branded on the end of said box or package, with the initial letter or letters of the Christian name, and the surname, at full length, of the manufacturer, together with the name of the place where said candles were made; and each and every box or package of candles shall be numbered, according to its contents, as follows: No. 4, No. 6, No. 8, No. 10, and four candles of No. 4, six candles of No. 6, eight candles of No. 8, and ten candles of No. 10, shall be made, respectively, to weigh not less than fifteen and three-quarters ounces; but it shall be lawful for any person or persons, to sell candles in a box or boxes, or other package, of other numbers: *provided*, the actual weight of the candles sold, shall bear the same relative proportion to their number as in the cases above specified.

SECT. 2. *And be it enacted*, That it shall not be lawful for any person or persons to sell candles by the pound or otherwise, which shall not bear the same weight in proportion to the number, as is described in the foregoing section.

SECT. 8. *And be it enacted*, that any person or persons, who shall sell candles within the State of New Jersey, in violation of any of the provisions of this act, shall forfeit and pay for every such offense, a sum not less than ten dollars, and not exceeding one hundred dollars, one half to go to the prosecutor, and the other half to the poor of the city or township in which such offense may be committed, to be recovered by action of debt, in any court having cognizance of the same.

SECT. 5. *And be it enacted*, That the provisions of this act shall not apply to the sale of candles manufactured previous to the 4th day of July next.

LEGAL WEIGHTS AND MEASURES IN ILLINOIS.

At the last session of the Legislature of Illinois an act was passed regulating weights and measures in that State, where no special contract shall be made to the contrary. The following table exhibits the rates established:—

	Pounds per bush.		Pounds per bush.
Shelled corn	56	Blue grass-seed	14
Ear corn	70	Buckwheat	42
Wheat	60	Dried peaches	32
Rye	56	Dried apples	24
Oats	32	Onions	57
Barley	48	Salt	50
Irish potatoes	60	Stone coal	80
Sweet potatoes	55	Malt	38
White beans	60	Bran	20
Castor beans	46	Turnips	55
Clover-seed	60	Plastering hair	8
Timothy-seed	45	Unslacked lime	80
Flax-seed	56	Corn meal	48
Hemp-seed	44	Fine salt	55

All laws or parts of laws inconsistent with the above, are repealed.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

LAKE INSURANCE ON STEAM AND SAIL VESSELS.

A large delegation from the various insurance companies connected with the trade of the Western Lakes recently met at Buffalo; J. L. Weatherly, of Cleveland, President, and D. P. Dobbins, of Buffalo, Secretary. Delegates were in attendance from Chicago, Toledo, Cleveland, Buffalo, Oswego, Ogdensburg, New York, Toronto, and Montreal.

The convention materially raised the rates of lake insurance; on most freights from 20 to 50 per cent, and on hulls as follows:—

RATES ON HULLS IN 1854.

First-class sail vessels	season	5½ per cent.
First-class sail vessels	year	6 per cent.
First-class steamers and propellers	season	6 per cent.
First-class steamers and propellers	year	7 per cent.

RATES ON HULLS IN 1855.

First-class sail vessels, 200 tons	season	6½ per cent.
First-class sail vessels, 300 tons		7½ per cent.
First-class sail vessels, 400 tons		8½ per cent.
First-class sail vessels, over 400 tons		9 per cent.
First-class sail vessels, 200 tons	year	7 per cent.
First-class sail vessels, 300 tons		8 per cent.
First-class sail vessels, 400 tons		9 per cent.
First-class sail vessels, over 400 tons		9½ per cent.
First-class steam vessels, 400 tons	season	8 per cent.
First-class steam vessels, 600 tons		9 per cent.
First-class steam vessels, over 600 tons		10 per cent.
First-class steam vessels, 400 tons	year	9 per cent.
First-class steam vessels, 600 tons		10 per cent.
First-class steam vessels, over 600 tons		11 per cent.

Lumber vessels loading on shore of Huron and Michigan, 2 per cent additional to above. Particular average not less than 5 per cent. Policies not to extend beyond the 1st of December.

INSURANCE COMPANIES AND INSURANCE AGENCIES IN MICHIGAN.

We publish below an act recently passed in Michigan, in relation to insurance companies and their agents. This act is now in force:—

AN ACT IN RELATION TO INSURANCE COMPANIES AND INSURANCE AGENTS.

SECTION 1. *The people of Michigan enact,* That it shall not be lawful for any person or persons to act within this State as agents or otherwise, in procuring or receiving applications for insurance, or in any manner to aid in transacting the business of fire, marine, life, or health insurance for any company or association, incorporated by or organized under the laws of any other State or country, or for any company or association located out of the jurisdiction of this State, unless such company or association shall, previous to its issuing any policy of insurance business, appoint an agent or attorney in this State, on whom process of law can be served; and such agent or attorney shall file with the county clerk of the county where he resides, a certified copy of the charter of any and all companies for which he shall have been appointed agent or attorney, and also a certified copy of the vote or resolution of the trustees or directors of such company or companies appointing him such agent or attorney, which appointment shall be in writing, under the official seal of the company, and signed by the president and secretary, which appointment shall be filed with said county clerk, and shall continue until another agent or attorney shall be substituted, and shall authorize process of law to be served on said agent or attorney, for all liabilities of every nature incurred in this State by said company or companies, and that such service may be made on such agent or attorney, in the same manner as now required by the laws of this State, in the service of civil process, and shall be deemed legal and binding on the company or companies in all cases whatsoever.

Sec. 2. Every county clerk may demand and receive for every paper filed in his office, under this act, the sum of ten cents, and shall, when required to give certified copies of all such papers so filed in his office, receive such fees as are allowed by the statutes in similar cases.

Sec. 3. Every violation of this act shall subject the party violating to a penalty of one hundred dollars for each and every violation, which shall be sued for and recovered in the name of the people, by the prosecuting or district attorney of the county in which such agent or agents, attorney or attorneys so violating shall be or reside, and one-half of such penalty, when recovered, shall be paid into the treasury of such county, and the other half to the informer of such violation; and in case of the non-payment of such penalty, the parties so offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be liable to imprisonment in the county jail for a period not exceeding six months, in the discretion of any court having jurisdiction thereof.

LONDON RAILWAY PASSENGERS' ASSURANCE COMPANY.

The annexed abstract of the eleventh half-yearly report of the Railway Passenger's Assurance Company, will be read with interest. This business has never yet been established in this country, although the attempt, we believe, has been made:—

The amount of premiums for the half-year to 31st December, received and due, is £4,334 3 6, making, with that for previous six months, a total income of £9,488 17 3, for the year just closed.

The amount actually received, as will be seen by the printed statement of accounts in the hands of the proprietors, is £3,516 14 10, which, with the balance from last half-year, and the interest on investments, makes the sum of £7,294 6 0, to credit of revenue account. The disbursements include, besides the ordinary expenses, the large sum of £2,246 2 11 for compensation, and a charge of £150 towards the liquidation of preliminary expenses, in all £5,424 9 9, and this leaves a balance of £2,747 4 11 invested, in hand, and due from agents, from which sum your directors recommend the payment of interest on the paid-up capital, at the rate of 4 per cent per annum, free from income tax, reserving the balance to meet the customary charges for government duty and commission, and risks on existing insurances.

The amount of compensation paid during the half-year is £2,246 2 1—making the amount for the year, £4,048 13 11, and forming a considerable proportion of the income received. In this sum is comprised the payment of two fatal cases—one of £500 to the widow of a mail guard, killed on the 19th of June last, and falling due in

the past half-year, and another of £200 to the daughter of a poor woman, who on returning from visiting her daughter by railway, met with an accident which caused her death, and having paid one penny for an insurance ticket, thus secured the amount to her family. In the collision at Croydon, on the 21st of August, where three persons were killed, seven of those injured held insurance tickets, to whom the sum of £421 was paid. In the accidents caused by the falling in of the Bramhope Tunnel, on the 19th of September, six persons were injured, to whom the sum of £449 was paid. The total compensation paid from the formation of the company to the present time, amounts to £16,211 5 which is a very large sum, considering the comparatively small number of those who travel that have insured, and as every person receiving assistance from the company is enabled to testify in his circle to its utility, such a fact ought to exercise a great and permanent influence in favor of railway insurance.

STATISTICS OF INSURANCE COMPANIES IN BOSTON.

The following table is compiled from the official abstract of EPHRAIM M. WRIGHT, Secretary of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. It exhibits the amount of risk, both fire and marine, the losses of each the past year, and the estimated losses, including losses ascertained and unpaid. 1st. The insurance companies in Boston with specific capital. 2d. The mutual marine and mutual fire and marine companies; and 3d. The mutual fire insurance companies, on the 1st day of December, 1855.

Of the amount of \$769,107 65 in the first table, only \$325,330 67 had been ascertained and unpaid, of which, the Metropolitan, since gone into chancery, had \$185,725. Of the amount of \$692,791 14 in the second table, only \$186,922 14 had been ascertained and unpaid. There was at risk in Boston over \$125,000,000 against marine loss, and \$150,000,000 against fire. The marine losses paid the last year exceeded \$5,300,000, and fire losses over \$300,000.

MUTUAL MARINE AND MUTUAL FIRE AND MARINE COMPANIES.

	At risk, marine.	At risk, fire.	Fire losses past year.	Marine losses past year.	Estimated losses and losses as- certained & unpaid.
Alliance.....	\$8,534,582	\$3,519,870	\$481,880	\$119,000
China Mutual.....	9,068,117	257,885	58,000
Commercial Mutual .	2,029,124	170,848	29,972
Equitable Safety ...	10,739,438	2,540,333	\$12,500	503,349	40,690
New England Mutual	16,942,613	3,720,330	32,829	771,553	220,000
Tremont Mutual.....	9,677,769	2,896,094	2	482,508	101,479
Triton.....	6,482,528	6,051,822	44,360	123,650
Total.....	\$63,474,171	\$18,728,449	\$45,332	\$3,112,386	\$692,791

MUTUAL FIRE COMPANIES.

	At risk.	Losses paid past year.	Ascertained and unpaid.
Appleton.....	\$927,319 64	\$3,221 75	\$1,500 00
Boston Manufacturers'.....	6,326,026 00	1,812 75	100 00
Boston.....	245,512 00
Eagle.....	778,868 00	689 62
Massachusetts.....	13,893,710 00	4,936 67	58 00
Mechanics.....	15,477 430 00	21,826 81	40 00
Shawmut.....	198,302 00	925 00
State.....	3,390,771 00	4,001 80	4,520 00
Traders'.....	1,058,861 00
Union.....	5,398,171 00	9,163 15	546 50
Total.....	\$47,694,970 64	\$45,712 55	\$7,689 50

	At risk, marine.	At risk, fire.	Fire losses past year.	Marine losses past year.	Estimated losses and losses as- certained & unpaid.
American	\$4,744,682	\$3,518,399	\$1,677	\$70,452	\$26,000
Boston	2,875,934	176,700	45,651
Boylston	5,747,319	5,195,277	3,691	190,504	69,000
Cochituate	2,852,770	10,046
Eliot	4,678,361	16,296
Fireman's	11,391,181	32,344	1,081
Franklin	801,483	3,116,355	4,119	32,983	5,950
Hope	3,160,959	226,918	79,000
Manufacturers'	4,076,960	11,332,757	56,179	38,622	55,500
Mercantile Marine	2,304,095	88,760	7,983
Merchants'	10,236,679	12,618,021	51,272	141,596	9,000
Metropolitan	1,818,737	11,283,895	36,907	237,134	209,800
National	11,420,635	6,949,681	4,687	92,529	35,000
Neptune	9,082,802	6,634,113	21,928	533,036	118,500
North American	3,477,230	2,929
Suffolk	1,325,307	716,819	30	59,286	14,000
United States	821,358	486,450	51,694	8,400
Warren	1,206,592	718,292	131,251	43,490
Washington	2,552,734	682,300	83	159,755	40,750
Total	\$62,176,276	\$85,651,901	\$242,196	\$2,231,318	\$769,107

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

SOUTH COAST OF IRELAND—OLD HEAD OF KINSALE.

The Port of Dublin Corporation have given notice, that, on and after the evening of the 16th day of April, 1855, the light exhibited from the lighthouse on the Old Head of Kinsale, will be shown farther northerly within Courtmacherry Bay.

The light will continue to be shown seaward and towards Kinsale Harbor as a fixed bright light. On the additional are to be lighted, it will be colored red from a line across the entrance of Courtmacherry Bay, to the line of the Horse Rock; and further within the bay, northward of that line, it will appear of the natural color, a fixed bright light.

Kinsale Old Head Light bears, from the Horse Rock, in Courtmacherry Bay, S. E. by E., distant five miles; from the Black Tom Rock, S. E. $\frac{3}{4}$ E., distant four miles; from the Inner Barrels, east end, S. E. 1 S., distant 3.1 miles.

Vessels, unless trading to Courtmacherry Harbor, should not pass into the bay within the limits of the red color of the light.

The above bearings are magnetic—var. 28° W.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Office of the }
Lighthouse Board, April 3, 1855. }

LIGHT-HOUSE ON MOUNT IGUELDO, PROVINCE OF GUIPUSCOA.

MADRID, January 26, 1855.

A new light will be exhibited every night from sunset to sunrise on Mount Igueldo, Port of San Sebastian, on and after the 15th day of March next. This new light-house will substitute the light kindled during the winter from the Castle of La Mota.

The new light-house is situated to the west of San Sebastian, in lat. 43° 19' 28" N., lon. 4° 11' 50" E., of the meridian of the Observatory of San Francisco.

The apparatus is catadioptric, grand model of the third order, producing a fixed light of natural color, variegated by brilliant flashes every two minutes, and may be seen at a distance of fifteen miles and less, according to the state of the atmosphere.

The luminous focus is elevated 468 Castillian feet above the level of the sea.

STATISTICS OF WRECKS AT KEY WEST, FLORIDA.

We have received from a correspondent at Key West a detailed statement showing the number of vessels, value of vessels and cargoes, salvage decreed and awarded, and total expenses incurred on said vessels and cargoes putting into Key West in a disabled condition, for the last fourteen years to December, 1854:—

Years.	No. of vessels.	Amount of salvage decreed and awarded.	Total amount of expenses incurred.	Estimated value of vessels and cargoes.
1841.....	..	\$71,173
1842.....	..	38,103
1843.....	..	83,811
1844.....	29	92,712	\$169,065	\$725,000
1845.....	26	69,592	105,709	737,000
1846.....	56	123,892	231,423	1,597,600
1847.....	37	109,000	200,600	1,624,000
1848.....	42	125,800	206,500	1,282,000
1849.....	47	127,870	219,160	1,305,000
1850.....	30	122,831	200,860	929,800
1851.....	34	75,852	165,085	941,500
1852.....	23	80,112	163,000	675,000
1853.....	57	174,350	230,100	1,973,000
1854.....	58	82,340	166,365	2,314,000

CORAL REEF IN THE STRAITS OF LOMBOCK.

We find the following report in the Hong Kong Government Gazette of December 9, 1854, and publish the same for the benefit of our navigators, &c.:—

GOVERNMENT NOTIFICATION.

The following particulars connected with the discovery of a coral reef in the Straits of Lombok, have been received through the harbor-master, from the master of the ship Argonaut, and are now published for general information.

"Tuesday, October 1st, at 2h. 30m. P. M., entered the Straits of Lombok, between Banditti Island and Lombok. Finding that Horsburgh's chart was very incorrect, endeavored to keep in mid-channel, which at the entrance is not more than a mile wide.

"At 7 P. M., very moderate, ship going three-quarters of a knot, grounded on a reef of coral and stuck fast. When we struck we were heading N. E. by N., north point of Lombok, N. E. half E., south point S. S. W., Banditti Island west, and Peak of Bally N. by W.

"In approaching the reef the water shoals from no bottom in 72 fathoms to next cast 23, and then to 7, and before we could get another cast the ship was ashore."

By order, W. T. MERCER, Colonial Secretary.

COLONIAL SECRETARY'S OFFICE, VICTORIA, HONG KONG, December 4, 1854.

LIGHT ON MOUNT IGUELDO, PORT OF SAN SEBASTIAN.

The Spanish government has given notice that on and after the 15th day of March, 1855, a new light will be exhibited on Mount Igueldo, Port of San Sebastian, on the north coast of Spain.

This light will be instead of the light that has been shown during the winter, on the Castle of La Mota, and which will then be extinguished. The new lighthouse stands on the west side of the Bay of San Sebastian, in lat. 43° 19' 28" north, lon. 2° west of the meridian of Greenwich. The lighting apparatus is catadioptric or refracting, of the third order. It exhibits a fixed light of the natural color, varied by brilliant flashes every two minutes; the center of the light is in an elevation of 434 feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen from the deck of a ship at a distance of fifteen miles in clear weather.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Office of Lighthouse Board, Feb. 15, 1855.

BUOYAGE OF THE QUEEN'S CHANNEL, RIVER THAMES, ENGLAND.

The following official information has been received through the Department of State, and is communicated for the benefit of mariners. The changes and removals will be carried into effect on the 1st May, 1855:—

REMOVALS. The West Pan Sand Buoy will be removed a short distance S. S. E. from its present position, and the Pan Sand Knoll Buoy taken away, being then no longer necessary.

CHANGE OF COLORS. The West Pan Sand Buoy, the Pan Sand Spit Buoy, the Pan Patch Buoy, and the West Tongue Buoy, from their present colors to black and white checkered. The Wedge Buoy from red to black.

By the above alterations the buoys on the northern side of the Queen's Channel will be all black and white checkered, and those on its southern side black. At the same time, the N. E. Margate Spit Buoy, which is now checkered black and white, will be painted these colors in vertical stripes.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Office of Lighthouse Board, April 3, 1855.

MARTIN'S INDUSTRY LIGHT SHIP.

This vessel is now moored in seven fathoms water, and will show her light from March 15, 1855, off the end of the above-named shoal. Her hull is painted red; has two masts; will show one bright light elevated about 38 feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen in clear weather from the deck of an ordinary sized vessel $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles. She rides at a single mushroom anchor, with 90 fathoms of chain.

The following are the approximate bearings and distance by compass of remarkable points from the ship, viz.: Bay Point, N. N. W., distance 10 miles; Hilton Head, N. W. by N., $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Tybee Light-house, S. W. by W., nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ W., distance 15 miles; Outer Buoy of Savannah Bar, S. W. by W., about $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles distant.

N. L. COSTE, Captain Revenue Cutter Jackson.

HENDRICK'S HEAD LIGHT CHANGED.

Notice is hereby given that on account of the danger of mistaking, in thick weather, the light on Hendrick's Head, entrance at Sheepscot River, Me., for Burnt Island Light, in Townsend Harbor, Me., the fixed light at Hendrick's Head will, in the month of July next, be altered to a revolving light.

Due public notice of the date of the change and character of the altered light, will be given.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

W. B. FRANKLIN, Lighthouse Inspector, First District.

PORTLAND, March 7, 1855.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.**STATISTICS OF THE RAILROADS IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.**

We compile from the annual report of the State Engineer and Surveyor, a summary statistical view of the railroads in the State of New York. The report covers five hundred and twenty-eight pages, and besides general statements, embraces the reports of all but some sixteen of the roads, which made no returns. The following is a summary view of the engineer's report:—

The total length of road known to be in operation is miles	2,723 $\frac{1}{2}$
In addition to which there is of second track in operation	803
Making a total length of track in operation	3,526 $\frac{1}{2}$
The whole length of completed and projected roads.	4,436

The capital stock, as by charters of 64 roads, (4,436 miles.) is	\$114,102,200 00
The amount of the above subscribed	84,972,597 00
The amount of capital stock paid in on 63 roads (4,406 miles)	69,473,458 52
Amount of funded debt of 63 roads	68,230,397 42
Amount of floating debt do.	8,804,818 43

The expenditures on the roads which are completed are as follows:—

For grading and masonry, 19 roads, 1,623½ miles	\$20,742,690 21
For bridging 19 roads do.	1,902,424 87
For superstructure, 21 roads, 2,106½ miles	26,737,876 64
For grading, bridging, and superstructure, 21 roads, 2,106½ miles . .	63,822,911 21
For station-buildings, engine-houses, and shops, 22 roads, 2,127½ m.	5,042,750 87
For land damages and fences, 22 roads, 2,127½ miles	9,127,330 92
For locomotives, 17 roads, 2,058¾ miles	5,748,722 83
For cars of all kinds, 19 roads, 2,110¾ miles	6,726,243 12
For engineering and agencies, 23 roads, 2,188½ miles	3,395,962 56
Total expenditure for construction and equipment, 2,340¾ miles . . .	115,537,193 73
The expenditure for the construction and equipment of 28 roads, 1,600 miles, which are in progress and partly completed, including those which reported last year, but not this year	18,112,451 29

The number of locomotives in use is	668
“ passenger and emigrant cars	1,008
“ freight and baggage cars	7,808

	Miles run.	Miles of road.
The miles run by the passenger trains for the year was	7,024,190	2,437
Miles run by freight trains for the year	4,368,677	2,411
Total miles run by trains	11,392,867	2,437
Number of passengers carried in the cars	*12,369,449	2,437
“ miles traveled by all the passengers	479,025,821	2,437
“ tons of freight carried in the cars	*2,959,362	2,437
“ miles, or total movement of freight 1 mile	301,707,951	2,376

Expense of maintaining the road on 21 roads, 2,229 miles	\$2,504,041 96
Viz: chargeable to passenger business, 1,923 miles	1,144,260 96
“ freight 1,915	953,991 08
Expense of repairs of machinery on 19 roads, 2,189 miles	1,901,412 74
Viz: chargeable to passenger business, 2,056 miles	893,277 53
“ freight 2,043	901,451 48
Cost of operating the road on 20 roads, 2,191 miles	5,802,563 88
Viz: chargeable to passenger business, 16 roads, 2,074 miles . . .	2,685,179 74
“ freight “ 15 roads, 2,066	2,515,265 45
Receipts from passengers on 19 roads, 2,189 miles	8,922,419 53
“ freight	8,271,012 85
“ other sources, 18 roads, 2,171 miles	985,765 10
Total receipts on 19 roads, 2,189 miles	\$18,129,197 48

Payments for transportation expenses, 18 roads, 2,171 miles	10,314,414 44
“ interest on debts 21 2,205	3,940,360 23
“ dividends 6 1,388	2,237,416 06
Total payments	\$16,492,990 73

* These numbers are obtained by adding together the numbers returned by each of the railroad companies, but they do not show correctly the number of passengers or tons of freight carried, because the same passengers and freight are frequently carried over two or more connecting roads, and are then included in each report, and thus the aggregate is swelled beyond the true amount. As near as can be ascertained, there were about ten millions of passengers, and two-and-a-quarter million tons of freight carried on all the roads the last year.

The average cost of construction and equipment per mile of railroad on those railroads which have reported these items, has been as follows:—

	Roads.	Miles.	Av. cost.
Grading and masonry on	19	1,623 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$12,778 49
Bridging	19	1,623 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,171 98
Superstructure	21	2,106 $\frac{1}{2}$	12,699 00
Grading, bridging, and superstructure	21	2,106 $\frac{1}{2}$	30,453 49
Station buildings, engine houses, and shops	22	2,127 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,370 27
Land damages and fences	22	2,127 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,290 17
Locomotives	17	2,058 $\frac{3}{4}$	2,792 38
Cars of all kinds	19	2,110 $\frac{3}{4}$	3,186 66
Engineering and agencies	23	2,188 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,094 79
The total average expenditure for construction and equipment on 25 roads, 2,340 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, was	49,359 04

THE AVERAGE COST PER MILE OF SINGLE TRACK IS AS FOLLOWS:—

	Roads.	Miles.	Av. Cost.
Grading, masonry, and bridges on	19	2,340 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$9,676 37
Superstructures	21	2,823 $\frac{1}{2}$	9,469 48
Grading, bridges, and superstructure	21	2,823 $\frac{1}{2}$	22,604 18
Station, engine houses, and shops	22	2,844 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,772 80
Land and fencing	22	2,844 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,208 41
Engineering and agencies	23	2,963 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,145 94
The total average expenditure for construction and equipment on 25 roads, 3,142 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles of track, was.	36,769 45

There is 1 locomotive for every 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles of road in use.

There is 1 passenger or emigrant car for every 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

There is 1 freight or baggage car for every 32-100th mile.

The average mileage of the passengers for each mile run by the trains is 69.

The distance traveled by each passenger is 39 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles, or, if we exclude the Harlem Road, the travel on which is principally in the city of New York, 51 miles.

The speed of the express trains, when in motion, per hour, is 36 miles.

The number of tons of freight for each mile run by the trains is 71.

The distance each ton of freight was moved, 107 miles.

The speed of the freight trains when in motion, per hour, is 16 miles.

The weight of the freight trains, exclusive of the freight, is 175 tons.

The proportions of the tonnage of each description of freight carried on 19 roads, 2,228 miles, are as follows:—

Of the product of the forest	14	per cent of the whole tonnage.
“ “ animals	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	“ “
Vegetable food	22	“ “
Other agricultural products	4	“ “
Manufactures	12	“ “
Merchandise	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	“ “
Unclassified articles	20	“ “

THE AVERAGE COST OF THE MAINTENANCE OF WAY PER MILE OF ROAD, IS AS FOLLOWS:—*

	Total.	Charged to the business of	
		Passengers.	Freight.
For repairs of road-bed	\$816 43	\$453 43	\$351 64
Iron used for do.	277 54	88 22	140 00
Repairs of buildings	55 62	27 43	22 15
Repairs of fences and gates	19 01	11 72	7 72
Taxes	114 36	64 51	54 37
Total	\$1,123 40	\$595 04	\$496 09

* Many of the roads do not give complete returns of the various items of cost of maintenance of way, repairs of machinery, and operating. The average cost of each item is made up from those roads only which have reported that item, which will account for the apparent discrepancies between the averages of the total cost and the sum of the averages of the cost of each item.

THE AVERAGE COST OF REPAIRS OF MACHINERY PER MILE OF ROAD IS AS FOLLOWS:—

	Total.	Charged to the business of	
		Passengers.	Freight.
For repairs of engines.....	\$427 53	\$237 84	\$191 07
For repairs of cars.....	359 58	145 20	206 66
Tools.....	36 42	18 59	16 48
Oil and waste.....	65 55	37 72	28 38
Total.....	\$923 41	\$434 52	\$438 01

THE AVERAGE COST OF OPERATING PER MILE OF ROAD IS AS FOLLOWS:—

For office expenses and stationery.....	\$50 28	\$25 93	\$25 08
Agents and clerks.....	248 40	116 31	122 07
Labor, loading and unloading.....	313 49	187 45
Porters, watchmen, and switchmen.....	165 71	100 49	61 88
Wood and water station attendance.....	41 59	25 51	16 34
Conductors, baggage and brakemen.....	271 72	146 39	122 34
Enginemen and firemen.....	263 09	140 73	122 61
Fuel, cost and labor of preparing.....	732 60	395 23	202 12
Oil and waste for engines.....	89 27	49 58	30 63
“ cars.....	65 02	33 65	31 49
Loss and damage to goods and baggage.....	46 40	5 74	40 33
Damages for injuries to persons.....	36 06	30 94	13 65
Damages for injuries to property and cattle.....	12 36	5 71	8 22
General superintendence.....	65 38	28 97	30 64
Contingencies.....	408 15	242 18	199 01
Total.....	\$2,648 66	\$1,294 84	\$1,212 90

THE AVERAGE COST OF MAINTENANCE OF WAY PER MILE RUN BY THE TRAINS:—

	Total.	Charged to the business of	
		Passengers.	Freight.
For repairs of road-bed.....	16.75	15.86	18.23
Iron for do.....	4.87	3.50	6.40
Repairs of buildings.....	1.15	0.96	1.15
Fences.....	0.39	0.41	0.40
Taxes.....	2.31	2.25	2.81
Total.....	22.63	20.82	25.70

THE AVERAGE COST OF REPAIRS OF MACHINERY PER MILE RUN BY THE TRAINS:—

For repairs of engines.....	8.71	7.84	9.92
Cars.....	7.10	4.89	10.92
Tools.....	0.65	0.54	0.75
Oil and waste.....	1.18	0.97	1.31
Total.....	17.52	13.44	22.25

THE AVERAGE COST OF MAINTENANCE OF WAY PER PASSENGER AND PER TON FREIGHT CARRIED ONE MILE:—

For repairs of road-bed.....	Mills.	Mills.	Mills.
Iron for do.....	0.82	0.59	0.71
Repairs of buildings.....	0.16	0.13	0.15
Fences.....	0.05	0.05	0.05
Taxes.....	0.34	0.31	0.37
Total.....	3.37	2.88	3.41

THE AVERAGE COST OF OPERATING PER MILE RUN BY THE TRAINS IS:—

	Charged to the business of		
	Total.	Passengers.	Freight.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
For office expenses and stationery	1.02	0.85	1.30
Agents and clerks	4.82	3.82	6.29
Labor, loading and unloading	3.72	2.52	9.48
Wood and water station attendance	1.27	1.39	1.06
Porters, watchmen and switchmen	3.37	3.04	2.94
Conductors, baggage and brakemen	5.44	4.82	6.32
Enginemen and firemen	5.45	4.64	6.33
Fuel, cost and labor of preparing	14.44	13.02	15.65
Oil and waste for engines	1.84	1.65	1.86
“ cars	1.37	1.16	1.65
Loss and damages to goods and baggage	0.92	0.18	2.08
Damages for injuries to persons	0.69	0.78	0.38
“ to property and cattle	0.25	0.13	0.43
General superintendence	1.30	0.90	1.48
Contingencies	8.17	7.47	6.64
Total	53.48	43.06	63.46

THE AVERAGE COST OF REPAIRS OF MACHINERY PER PASSENGER AND PER TON OF FREIGHT CARRIED ONE MILE:—

	Mills.	Mills.	Mills*
For repairs of engines	1.27	1.17	1.33
Cars	1.02	0.73	1.46
Tools	0.09	0.08	0.10
Oil and waste	0.16	0.14	0.18
Total	2.54	2.12	3.07

THE AVERAGE COST OF OPERATING EACH PASSENGER AND PER TON OF FREIGHT CARRIED ONE MILE:—

	Mills.	Mills.	Mills.
For office expenses and stationery	0.15	0.12	0.17
Agents and clerks	0.71	0.56	0.86
Labor, loading and unloading	0.57	0.02	1.29
Porters, watchmen, and switchmen	0.45	0.45	0.39
Wood and water station attendance	0.18	0.25	0.14
Conductors, baggage and brakemen	0.81	0.71	0.87
Enginemen and firemen	0.78	0.68	0.88
Fuel, cost and labor of preparing	2.08	1.92	2.13
Oil and waste for engines	0.25	0.24	0.25
“ cars	0.20	0.17	0.72
Loss and damage to goods and baggage	0.13	0.03	0.28
Damages for injuries to persons	0.09	0.11	0.05
“ to property and cattle	0.04	0.02	0.06
General superintendence	0.18	0.13	0.20
Contingencies	0.96	1.01	0.85
Total	7.64	6.36	8.64

THE AVERAGE RECEIPTS PER MILE OF ROAD WERE:—

Passengers	\$4,074 16	Other sources	\$427 28
Freight	3,776 72		
			<u>\$8,278 17</u>
And the expenses			\$4,710 14

The expenses of operating the road were 57 per cent of the whole receipts.

The average receipts per mile run by the trains:—From passengers, \$1 32; from freight, \$2 02; other sources, \$1 67; and of the expenses, \$0 97.

The average receipts per passenger per mile were	1.95 cents
Per ton of freight	2.79 "
Per passenger or per ton	2.38 "
Expenses	1.38 "

On 16 roads, 2,252½ miles long, the number of passengers carried, as reported, was	12,256,714
The actual number of travelers was probably about	10,000,000
The number of miles traveled on same roads was	477,611,422
The whole number of passengers injured was	30
Of whom were killed	12
The whole number of employees injured was	110
Of whom were killed	67
The whole number of others injured was	129
Of whom were killed	80
Making the total number injured	269
Of whom were killed	159

THE CLASSIFICATION OF THESE ACCIDENTS IS AS FOLLOWS:—

	Passengers.		Employees.		Others.		Total.	
	Killed.	Injured.	Kill.	Inj.	Kill.	Inj.	Kill.	Inj.
Jumping off or on trains while in motion	9	9	3	7	12	16
Fell or thrown from the train....	6	1	6	1
Collisions of trains	5	8	2	8	7
Trains thrown from the track....	..	4	11	8	11	12
Run over while walking or standing on the track	15	2	66	35	81	37
Collisions at road crossings	6	5	6	5
At work on or standing by trains.	5	6	5	6
Standing on platform	3	3	..
Defective machinery
Other accidents	19	17	8	9	27	26
Total	12	18	67	43	80	49	159	110

By comparing the foregoing abstract with that which was given in the report of the preceding year, it will be seen that during the last year there has been an increase of 291½ miles in length of road in operation; 139 miles in length of double track; \$5,815,483 58 of capital stock paid in; \$10,164,987 26 of funded and floating debt; \$15,300,586 10 expended for construction and equipment.

The discrepancy between the above amount of payments and expenditures arises in part from the incompleteness of the reports of the corporations, both this year and the last. There has been an increase on those roads which have reported the following items, both years, of 765,982 miles run by the passenger and freight trains; 15,933,320 miles in the mileage of the passengers; 71,352,393 miles in the mileage of the freight; \$939,742 66 in the passenger receipts; \$2,015,267 59 in the freight receipts; \$71,658 21 in the receipts from other sources; \$3,026,680 01 in the total receipts; \$2,515,463 82 in the payments for transportation expenses; \$1,098,006 60 in the payments for interests and debts; a decrease of \$242,355 98 in the payments for dividends.

The average cost per mile of road and per mile of single track has been increased by a small amount. There has been an increase of \$4,267 21 in the average cost of construction and equipment per mile of road, and of \$1,710 13 in the average cost per mile of single track; \$424 28 in the cost of maintenance of way per mile of road; 6.71 cents in the cost of maintenance of way per mile run by the trains; 1.03 mills in the cost of maintenance of way per passenger and per ton of freight carried 1 mile; 1.57 cents in the cost of repairs of machinery per mile run by the trains; 0.27 mills in the cost of repairs of machinery per passenger and per ton of freight carried 1 mile; 6.22 cents in the cost of operating per mile run by the trains; 0.90 mills in the cost of operating per passenger and ton carried 1 mile; \$423 85 in the receipts per mile of road from passengers; \$942 43 in the receipts per mile of road from freight; \$1,401 57 in the receipts per mile of road from all sources; \$1,110 32 in the expenses per mile of road.

A decrease of 1 cent in the receipts per mile run by trains, passengers; an increase of 27 cents in the receipts per mile run by the trains, freight; an increase of 12 cents in the receipts per mile run by the trains, all sources; an increase of 1.06 mills in the receipts per passenger per mile carried; 0.0 mills in the receipts per ton of freight per mile carried; 15 cents in the expenses per mile run by the trains; 1.09 mills in the expenses per passenger and ton of freight carried 1 mile.

The increase in the number of	travelers has been about	50,000
"	"	miles traveled by passengers, about 13,933,320
"	"	persons injured was 60
"	"	persons killed 22
"	"	passengers injured 11
"	"	passengers killed 1

The construction account has increased nearly 15 per cent during the year; the receipts per mile have increased beyond those of the preceding year 31 per cent, and the expenses 32 per cent per mile of railroad.

The average mileage of each of the passengers and of each ton of freight would appear to have been increased the last year; but the consolidation of the Central line has had the effect to increase the averages, so that no accurate comparison can be made in these items with those furnished in the last year's report.

The whole mileage of the freight has increased nearly 33 per cent; the proportion of the tonnage of the merchandise shipped has increased 13 per cent, while that of the product of animals has fallen off 22 per cent. The cost of maintenance of way per mile run by the trains has increased 41 per cent; the cost of repairs of machinery has increased 10 per cent; and the cost of operating per mile run by the trains has increased 13 per cent. The aggregate cost of maintenance of way, repairs of machinery, and of operating per mile run by the trains has increased 18 per cent; and per passenger and ton of freight carried 1 mile has increased nearly 17 per cent. The most remarkable increase in the expenditures is that for the maintenance of way, which is nearly 60 per cent more than that of the preceding year. The actual increase of this item on the same roads which reported it both years, is \$903,771 62. The repairs of machinery show an increase of 25 per cent. It will, however, be observed that the amount charged to construction for locomotives, passenger, baggage, and freight cars during the last year, on those roads which reported these items both years, was increased \$2,415,245 78, equal to 24 per cent per annum. This fact would indicate that the expense of new locomotives, cars, and machinery necessary to replace those worn out or destroyed by accident during the year, has been, in part at least, charged to construction.

From the table of accidents it will appear that there was one passenger killed out of every 833,000 who traveled, and one was injured out of every 333,000. The preceding year one passenger was killed out of about every 750,000 who traveled, and one was injured out of every 425,000. During the last year one passenger was killed for every 39,404,016 miles traveled, and one was injured for every 15,761,606 miles traveled. The proportion of passengers killed was less this year than the preceding one, while that of passengers injured was greater.

It is worthy of the most particular attention of railroad travelers, that not one passenger has lost his life during the last year from causes beyond his own control, although 10,000,000 of passengers have been carried in the cars an aggregate distance of 500,000,000 of miles. There were but two deaths from such causes during the preceding year.

The number of passengers injured from causes beyond their own control was nine, and the preceding year was six.

The tables, however, show that there has been a much greater number of accidents to the employees and others than during the preceding year, and also that the proportion of accidents to the employees, arising from causes beyond their own control, has greatly increased during the year. The most fearful destruction of life has been that of persons who have been run over while walking on the track; 112 persons have been killed in this way during the last two years, and the number has been frightfully increased the last year, being 66 killed besides 35 injured. If the reports of the number and cause of the accidents, as given by the officers of the railroad corporations, can be relied on, the safety of passengers has been much increased during the last year.

TOLLS ON THE NEW YORK CANALS FOR 1855.

RATES OF TOLL ESTABLISHED BY THE CANAL BOARD ON PERSONS AND PROPERTY TRANSPORTED ON THE NEW YORK CANALS, TO TAKE EFFECT ON THE OPENING OF NAVIGATION IN 1855.

	C.	M.	Fr.
PROVISIONS, ETC.			
On salted beef, butter, tallow, beer, cider, and vinegar . per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	3	0
On salted pork, bacon, lard, lard-oil, grease and cheese	0	1	5
On salted fish, and fish in brine	0	4	0
On bran and ship-stuffs, and oil-cake or oil-meal	0	2	0

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

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

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

STONE, SLATE, ETC.			
On tile for roofing and stoneware	0	4	0
On fire-proof cement and drain tile	0	2	0
On unwrought stone and slate	0	1	0
On all stone wrought and partly wrought	0	1	5

LUMBER, WOOD, ETC.			
On timber, squared and round, per 100 cubic feet per mile, if carried in boats	0	4	0
On the same, if carried in rafts, per 100 cubic feet per mile	1	0	0
On the same, if cleared after the 1st of June, and arriving at tide-water before the 15th of August, inclusive, per 100 cubic feet per mile	0	7	0
On lumber carried in boats, when weighed, per 1,000 lbs. per mile, viz. :—			
On white pine, white-wood, bass-wood, and cedar	0	1	8
On oak, hickory, beech, sycamore, black-walnut, and butternut	0	1	3
On spruce, maple, ash, elm, fir, tamarack, and yew	0	1	5
On cherry	0	1	8
On hemlock	0	0	6
On boards, plank, scantling, and sawed timber, reduced to inch measure, all kinds of red cedar, cedar posts, estimating that a cord, after deducting for openings, will contain one thousand feet, and all siding, lath, and other sawed stuff less than one inch thick, carried in boats, (except such as is enumerated,) per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed	0	5	0

	C.	M.	Fr.
On hemlock, per 1,000 feet per mile, when not weighed.....	0	2	5
On sub. 6 and 7, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 per mile.....	2	5	0
On saw-dust, per 1,000 lbs. per mile.....	0	0	5
On mahogany, (except veneering,) reduced to inch measure, per 1,000 feet per mile.....	1	5	0
On sawed lath, of less than ten feet in length, split lath, hoop-poles, hand-spikes, rowing oars, broom handles, spokes, hubbs, tree-nails, fellies, boat-knees, plane-stocks, pickets for fences, and stuff manufactured or partly manufactured for boxes, chairs, or bedsteads, hop poles, brush handles, brush-backs, looking-glass backs, gun-stocks, plow-beams, plow-handles, staves and heading, dressed or partly dressed.....	0	2	0
On staves and heading, undressed, empty barrels and casks, and ship-knees, transported in boats.....	0	1	0
On the same, if transported in rafts.....	0	5	0
On shingles, carried in boats.....	0	1	5
On the same, if conveyed in rafts..... per M. per mile	0	4	0
On split posts, not exceeding ten feet in length, and rails for fences, not exceeding fourteen feet in length, in boats.....	2	0	0
On the same, if conveyed in rafts.....	8	0	0
On wood for fuel, (except such as may be used in the manufacture of salt, which shall be exempt from toll,) and tan-bark..... per cord per mile	0	5	0
On the same, if transported in rafts.....	2	0	0
On sawed stuff for window-blinds, not exceeding one-fourth of an inch in thickness, and window sashes and blinds..... per 1,000 lbs. per mile	0	8	0

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS, ETC.

On domestic distilled spirits, going towards tide-water.....	0	3	0
On wool.....	0	4	0
On cotton.....	0	1	0
On live cattle, sheep, hogs, horns, hoofs, and bones.....	0	2	0
On horses, except those used exclusively for towing boats or other floats...	0	3	0
On horses used exclusively for towing boats and other floats.....	exempt.		
On rags and junk.....	0	3	0
On Manilla.....	0	4	0
On hemp and tobacco going towards tide-water ..	0	1	0
On tobacco going from tide-water.....	0	4	0
On pressed broom corn.....	0	2	0
On pressed hay and pressed straw.....	0	1	0
On corn, corn-meal, and oats.....	0	2	0
On wheat, flour, barley, rye, peas and beans.....	0	3	0
On flour starting and going from tide-water.....	0	1	0
On potatoes, apples, onions, turnips, all other esculent roots, and ice.....	0	1	0
On all other agricultural productions of the United States not specified....	0	4	0

MERCHANDISE.

On veneering.....	0	8	0
On sugar, molasses, coffee, iron in bars, bundles, and sheets, steel, nail-rods, boiler-iron, nails and spikes, horse-shoes, crockery and glassware, tin, rosin, tar, pitch, turpentine, oil, anchors, chain-cables, oakum, mineral water, oysters and clams, dye-woods, and all other merchandise not enumerated	0	4	0
On railroad iron and railroad chairs.....	0	1	5
On thrashing, mowing, and reaping machines, fanning-mills, plows, harrows, and drill-barrows.....	0	4	0

ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED.

On all articles not enumerated or excepted.....	0	4	0
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BOATS AND PASSENGERS.

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

ALARM GAUGE FOR STEAM BOILERS.

J. Hopkinson Smith, of the city of Baltimore, has taken measures to secure a patent for an improved alarm water gauge for steam boilers. The nature of the invention consists in attaching to a float a metal tube, which works directly through a stuffing-box on the top of the boiler, and has an opening on one side, which is at such a height that while the water is at a safe level, it is either within or above the stuffing-box, but when the water falls to a dangerous level, it enters the steam space in the boiler, and allows the steam to pass through it into the tube and up to the whistle at its top, thus alarming the engineer, and informing him of the low state of water in the boiler. To the bottom of the float there is attached a horizontal blade, which tends to keep it (the float) steady in the water, and prevents it from being much affected with the foaming and boiling of the water.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

SUGAR.

Sugar, so extensively used in every country of the habitable globe, and forming, as it does, one of our chief staples, supplies its commercial demand mainly from the juice of the cane, which contains it in greater quantity and purity than any other plant, and offers greater facilities for its extraction. Although sugar, identical in its character, exists in the maple, the cocoa-nut, and the beet-root, and is economically obtained to a considerable extent, yet it is not often sufficiently pure to admit of ready separation from the foreign matter combined with it, at least by the means the producers usually have at hand.

The early history of cane-sugar, like that of many other necessities of life, is involved in great obscurity. It appears to have been imperfectly known to the Greeks and Romans, as Theophrastus, who lived 320 years before Christ, describes it as a sort of "honey extracted from canes of reeds;" and Strabo, who states on the authority of Nearchus, the commander of the fleet in the expedition of Alexander the Great, says that "reeds in India yield honey without bees."

Although India and Cochin China are the countries usually cited as the native homes of the sugar cane, where this plant grows wild, nevertheless, Roxburgh, in his "Flora Indica," declares that its indigenous habitat in the East Indies is unknown. It occurs in a wild state on many of the South Sea islands, especially in Tahiti, but in no part of the American continent, notwithstanding contrary statements have been made. It is true, a species of cane is found in Central America, apparently indigenous, which is rich in saccharine juice, and is very readily crushed by rollers; but it is not known with certainty when it was discovered, nor whether or not it is the result of self-sown seeds of some variety of the Eastern cane. The cultivated sugar-cane, let it be understood, very rarely produces seeds, although it sometimes occurs even in our Southern States.

The culture and manufacture of sugar, it is stated, were introduced into Europe from the East by the Saracens, soon after their conquest, in the ninth century; and it is known that the Arabs caused the extension of the cultivation of this plant to Rhodes, Crete, and Sicily—nay, even to Calabria and Spain. It is also stated by the Venetian and Amalfian historians that their countrymen imported sugar from Sicily in the twelfth century, at a cheaper rate than they could obtain it from Egypt, where it was then extensively made. The first sugar plantations established in Spain were

at Valencia, but they were soon after extended to Granada and Murcia. Prince Henry, the navigator, carried sugar-cane from Sicily to Madeira. Toward the end of the fifteenth and the commencement of the sixteenth centuries, it was conveyed to the Canary Islands, where plantations were formed, especially on Gomera and Grand Canary. From Gomera it was introduced into the West Indies by Columbus, in his second voyage to America, in 1493, and soon after became diffused over Mexico, Guiana, and Brazil. It was cultivated to a considerable extent in St. Domingo, in 1506, where it succeeded better than in any of the other islands. In 1518, there were twenty-eight plantations in that colony, established by the Spaniards, where an abundance of sugar was made, which, for a long period, formed the principal part of the European supplies. Barbadoes, the oldest English settlement in the West Indies, began to export sugar in 1646; and in the year 1676, the trade of that island required four hundred vessels, averaging 150 tons burden.

The common sugar cane is very sensitive to cold, and is therefore restricted in its cultivation to regions either situated within or bordering on the tropics, where there is little or no frost. In intertropical America it occurs at the height of 4,000 feet above the sea; and in particular places, under favorable circumstances, even over 6,000, especially on the elevated plateaux of Mexico. In Nepal, in Asia, it extends up the Himalayas 4,500 feet. It thrives best in a mean annual temperature of 77° to 84° Fahrenheit, but it succeeds even at 66° to 68°.

In the existing distribution of sugar-cane, as a field crop, in the United States, it is found as far north as 32°, east of the Rocky Mountains, although, from its flexibility or disposition to acclimatize itself, it is highly probable that it is gradually becoming more hardy, and eventually will endure an exposure and yield a profitable return much further north, along the borders of the Mississippi and some of its tributaries, than it has hitherto been produced. In most parts of Louisiana the cane yields three crops from one planting. The first season it is denominated "plant-cane," and each of the subsequent growths "rattoons." But sometimes, as on the prairies of Attakapas and Opelousas, and the higher northern range of its culture, it requires to be replanted every year. Within the tropics, as on the island of Cuba, and elsewhere, the rattoons frequently continue to yield abundantly for twelve, fifteen, and even twenty-four years, from the same roots.

As before remarked, sugar, identical in its character, is obtained from other plants besides cane. But there are only two of sufficient importance to deserve mention here, namely, the beet-root and the maple. When Napoleon formed the gigantic, but neither practicable nor liberal, idea of intercepting all intercourse between the continent of Europe and Great Britain, in order to destroy the Commerce of that country, it became necessary to look for a substitute for this important product, only to be obtained on the continent by the aid of an open trade. The discovery that sugar might be manufactured from the juice of the beet-root was therefore, of course, very welcome to him. He made every effort to stimulate the agriculturists to grow this plant. He encouraged the chemist to contrive the best method of preparing the sugar, and of applying it to the refining process. In 1810, there existed in his dominions two hundred beet-root manufactories, which annually delivered 2,000,000 pounds of sugar; but still this was only one-fifty-eighth part of the consumption in France. After the colonial sugar could again be introduced, the sale of beet-root sugar decreased; but its production subsequently increased to an extraordinary degree, through improvements in manufactures and its combination with agricultural systems, and annually yielded about 24,000,000 pounds. It again decreased in France after a tax had been laid upon sugar of domestic growth. The amount cultivated in that country between

the 1st of September, 1852, and the 31st of August, 1853, was 75,275,235 kilogrammes, (165,680,790 pounds.) Its culture has been extended over Germany and Belgium, as well as some other European States.

The extraction of sugar from the maple is a valuable resource near every new settlement where that tree abounds; but it is obvious that this mode of obtaining sugar is only destined for certain stages of our national economy, and eventually gives way for the sugar of Commerce produced by cane. On the authority of Beverley, in his "History of Virginia," it was made by the Indians prior to the arrival of Europeans; other writers say it was unknown to them, at least to certain tribes. Some fifty or sixty years ago, Count Wingersky planted a large number of sugar-maples on his estate in Moravia, with the object of making sugar; from which he drew off the sap when the trees had arrived at the age of twenty-five years. He succeeded in obtaining a very fair article; but, in consequence of depriving the trees of their sap every year, they became sickly, and soon afterwards died.

The amount of maple-sugar made in 1811 in Ohio was 3,033,806 pounds; in Kentucky, 2,471,647 pounds; in East Tennessee, 162,240 pounds; in Vermont, 1,200,000 pounds; in the United States, in 1840, 35,105,705 pounds; in 1850, 34,253,436 pounds.

The amount of cane-sugar and molasses of domestic growth and manufacture, and their values, exported from the United States within the last thirty-three years, are denoted in the following table:—

Years.	Brown sugar.		Refined sugar,		Molasses. Value.
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	
1820-21.....	24,592	\$1,975	156,527	\$24,051
1821-22.....	8,593	805	177,065	26,320
1822-23.....	3,846	353	55,187	6,654
1823-24.....	5,960	434	57,908	7,195
1824-25.....	27,782	2,632	50,017	6,963
1825-26.....	57,025	4,964	168,991	27,043	\$621
1826-27.....	18,703	1,459	236,744	34,012	1,511
1827-28.....	54,035	4,095	269,291	38,207	601
1828-29.....	53,778	3,289	479,218	50,739	1,992
1829-30.....	37,646	2,975	1,586,220	193,084	3,968
1830-31.....	180,132	10,105	2,057,487	215,794	948
1831-32.....	154,160	11,232	701,862	74,673	2,493
1832-33.....	100,340	7,635	416,736	40,327	2,279
1833-34.....	108,087	6,461	2,355,754	219,153	5,934
1834-35.....	102,431	8,526	768,075	62,293	1,963
1835-36.....	128,119	12,342	1,442,989	165,648	851
1836-37.....	306,602	22,668	1,844,167	215,728	7,171
1837-38.....	408,802	30,487	2,610,649	249,671	6,620
1838-39.....	387,203	28,722	4,782,723	521,117	3,438
1839-40.....	769,908	45,940	10,741,648	1,214,658	9,775
1840-41.....	312,864	23,837	13,435,084	1,348,974	7,999
1841-42.....	166,533	8,890	3,430,346	291,499	19,040
1842-43.....	68,563	3,435	598,884	47,345	1,317
1843-44.....	187,118	12,363	1,671,107	128,594	3,922
1844-45.....	195,985	11,107	1,997,992	164,662	20,771
1845-46.....	109,295	7,235	4,128,512	392,312	1,581
1846-47.....	388,057	25,483	1,539,415	124,824	26,959
1847-48.....	135,006	8,891	3,378,773	253,900	5,563
1848-49.....	399,209	24,906	1,956,895	129,001	7,442
1849-50.....	453,839	23,037	2,786,022	285,056	14,137
1850-51.....	561,823	29,170	2,689,541	219,583	16,830
1851-52.....	401,620	24,057	2,096,770	149,921	13,163
1852-53.....	672,274	33,854	5,155,057	375,780	17,582

According to the census returns of 1840, the amount of cane-sugar made in the Union was 119,995,104 pounds; of 1850, 247,577,000 pounds; showing an increase

of 127,581,896 pounds, besides 12,700,896 gallons of molasses. It was estimated that in 1815 the cane-sugar made on the banks of the Mississippi alone amounted to 10,000,000 pounds; in 1850, it had reached the enormous quantity of 226,000,000 pounds, besides upwards of 12,000,000 gallons of molasses. The amount of cane and maple sugar made in the United States in 1853-54 may be estimated at 545,000,000 pounds, which, at 6 cents, would be worth \$32,700,000; besides 14,000,000 gallons of molasses and sirup, which, at 30 cents, would be worth \$4,200,000.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

CHICAGO AND TOLEDO.

These youngsters give promise of becoming the mastodon cities of the central plain. The growth and business of the former is attracting universal attention. The two commenced their career as commercial centers at the same time. Chicago, becoming the mart of an extensive prairie country easily brought under cultivation, got ten years the start of her woodland sister, Toledo, seated in the midst of the grandest old forest of the plain. This forest, the product of a soil of unsurpassed fertility, is gradually receding before the lumbermen and farmers. In many parts it has ceased to be an incumbrance, and has become a source of profit. Gradually but surely the soil is coming under cultivation for the benefit of Toledo Commerce. In 1850 Toledo had not quite attained the size of Chicago in 1840, although by means of her long canals, her export trade was much greater.

In 1840 Chicago numbered	4,479
In 1850 Toledo numbered	3,819
During the succeeding five years Chicago gained	7,609
During the succeeding four-and-a-half years Toledo gained	7,654
On the 1st of January, 1855, Toledo numbered	11,473
On the 1st of July, 1855, Toledo will number	12,088

Although this estimate is too low, it is adopted to place Toledo just ten years behind Chicago. It is assumed, that Toledo may without presumption adopt, as the measure of her own growth in numbers and business, for the period from 1855 to 1865—the growth of Chicago from 1845 to 1855.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE EXHIBITS THE GROWTH OF CHICAGO THE PAST TEN YEARS:—

	No. of inhabitants.	Assessed value of real estate.		No. of inhabitants.	Assessed value of real estate.
1845.....	12,088	\$2,273,171	1850....	28,269	\$5,685,965
1846.....	14,169	3,664,421	1852.....	38,933	7,751,023
1847.....	16,859	4,995,466	1853.....	60,652	13,130,677
1848.....	20,023	4,908,266	1854.....	*70,000	16,231,086
1849.....	23,049	5,181,637	1855.....	*80,000	18,000,000

Such an augmentation in numbers and wealth may be reasonably expected for Toledo the coming ten years.

In the gathering in and export of maize, that grain of all breadstuffs the most valuable, Chicago and Toledo stand before all other cities in the world, except New York. Last year Chicago received over eight millions bushels, and exported nearly all of it. Toledo received and exported nearly five millions bushels.

Within the next five years, both these cities will have easy railway communication

* Estimated.

with all the most important seats of Commerce of the central plain. This will suffice to insure them the future predominance which their commanding positions promise as their manifest destiny. It matters not what improvements in the railway, or to supersede the railway, shall be made, these natural gathering and distributing centers of Commerce will command their concentration in themselves. God's great highways will never be superseded.

On the crystal globules of the lakes, Commerce will ride with less of costly friction than on any wheel which man can construct. The great lakes, of whose Commerce these young cities hold the two master-keys, have a central position in respect to the productive powers of North America, which directs towards their borders a concentration of railways and other artificial modes of conveyance, the constant tendency of which will be to gather around them the densest population and the most successful industry of the continent.

J. W. S.

EMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES IN 1854.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, February 10, 1855.

In the letter which accompanied the last annual statement of passengers arriving from foreign countries, it was remarked, with a view to obviate the absence of uniformity in the returns from the collectors on which that statement is based, and to which was attributed a considerable degree of inaccuracy during a period of many years, a circular had been addressed to those officers, accompanied by a schedule for their general guidance. The effect of this measure has been favorable. Greater uniformity has characterized the returns; and the country of which the passengers intend to become inhabitants, and the number of passengers who have died on the voyage, have for the first time been furnished. A tabular statement has also been added of all passengers arriving in the United States during the last eleven years from September 30, 1843, the earliest period when any recapitulations were appended to the annual statement furnishing the necessary data, to December 31, 1854.

The information conveyed under the heads of "occupation" and "country" still continues, to some extent, vague and indefinite; and it is expected that the collectors will hereafter cause their returns to conform, in this regard, to the recapitulation of the statement now transmitted, a copy of which will be sent to each of them with that view. It is, moreover, desirable, as was suggested in my last letter on this subject, that the attention of collectors at frontier custom-houses, especially on the northern border, should be directed to immigrants entering the country by land. The act of 1819, by which immigration returns are now controlled, seems to contemplate only those passengers "arriving by sea." If this construction is deemed correct, an amendment of that act is demanded.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

W. L. MARCY.

STATEMENT OF THE NUMBER OF PASSENGERS ARRIVING IN THE UNITED STATES BY SEA FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES FROM SEPTEMBER 30, 1843, TO DECEMBER 31, 1854.

	Males.	Females.	Sex not stated.	Total.
From Sept. 30, 1843, to Sept. 30, 1844	48,897	35,867	84,764
" 1844 " 1845	69,188	49,290	1,400	119,804
" 1845 " 1846	90,973	66,778	897	158,648
" 1846 " 1847	134,750	96,747	1,057	232,554
" 1847 " 1848	136,128	92,883	472	229,843
" 1848 " 1849	179,253	119,915	442	309,610
" 1849, to Dec. 31, 1849	38,282	27,107	181	66,570
From Dec. 31, 1849 " 1850	200,903	113,392	1,038	315,333
" 1850 " 1851	245,017	163,745	66	408,828
" 1851 " 1852	398,470	398,470
" 1852 " 1853	236,596	164,181	...	400,777
" 1853 " 1854	284,887	175,587	460,474
Total.....	1,664,874	1,105,492	404,029	3,174,395

ARRIVAL OF PASSENGERS IN 1854.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Maine.....	4,625	1,484	6,109
New Hampshire.....	9	4	13
Massachusetts.....	15,298	12,467	27,765
Rhode Island.....	42	52	94
New York.....	201,580	126,396	327,976
Pennsylvania.....	8,384	6,648	15,032
Maryland.....	6,995	6,159	13,154
Virginia.....	30	14	44
North Carolina.....	4	3	7
South Carolina.....	812	321	1,133
Florida.....	145	97	242
Alabama.....	145	46	191
Louisiana.....	31,507	19,662	51,169
Texas.....	1,782	1,276	3,058
California.....	13,529	958	14,487
Total.....	284,887	175,587	460,474

COUNTRIES.

England.....	48,901	Sweden.....	3,296
Ireland.....	101,606	Sardinia.....	219
Scotland.....	4,605	Sicily.....	60
Wales.....	816	Greece.....	1
Great Britain.....	4,325	Turkey.....	7
British America.....	6,891	Poland.....	208
France.....	13,317	West Indies.....	1,036
Spain.....	1,433	Western Islands.....	254
Portugal.....	72	China.....	13,100
Italy.....	984	Mexico.....	416
Germany.....	206,054	Other countries.....	240
Switzerland.....	7,953	United States.....	32,641
Prussia.....	8,955	Not stated.....	328
Holland.....	1,534		
Belgium.....	266	Total.....	460,474
Denmark.....	691	Citizens of the United States.	32,641
Norway.....	235	Aliens.....	427,833

COUNTRY WHERE THEY MEAN TO RESIDE.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Intending to reside in the United States.....	281,056	174,341	455,397
Intending to reside in foreign countries.....	3,831	1,246	4,077
Total.....	284,887	175,187	460,474

OCCUPATION.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Merchants.....	15,173	15,173
Mechanics.....	31,470	31,170
Mariners.....	1,260	1,260
Miners.....	2,155	2,155
Farmers.....	87,188	87,188
Laborers.....	82,420	82,420
Lawyers.....	135	135
Physicians.....	237	237
Clergymen.....	139	139
Servants.....	3,310	3,310
Other occupations.....	2,342	249	3,591
Not stated.....	62,368	172,028	234,396
Total.....	284,887	175,587	460,474

DIED ON THE VOYAGE.

1st quarter.	2d quarter.	3d quarter.	4th quarter.	Total.
502	698	643	1,085	2,928

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

THE MANUFACTURE OF JEWELS IN PARIS.

The following graphic and interesting account of the method of making jewels in Paris, is from a late number of the *London Leader* :—

One of the most curious sights in Paris, or indeed in the whole world, is afforded by a visit to the vast atelier of M. Bourguignon, situated at the Barriere de Trone, where the whole process of transforming a few grains of dirty, heavy-looking sand into a diamond of the purest water, is daily going on, with the avowed purpose of deceiving everybody but the buyer. The sand employed, and upon which everything depends, is found in the forests of Fontainbleau, and enjoys so great a reputation in the trade that large quantities are exported. The coloring matter for imitating emeralds, rubies, and sapphires, is entirely mineral, and has been brought to high perfection by M. Bourguignon. He maintains in constant employment about a hundred workmen, besides a number of women and young girls, whose business it is to polish the colored stones, and line the false pearls with fish scales and wax. The scales of the roach and dace are chiefly employed for this purpose, and form a considerable source of profit to the fishermen of the Seine, in the environs of Corbeil, who bring them to Paris in large quantities during the season. They must be stripped from the fish while living, or the glistening hue which we admire so much in the real pearl cannot be imitated.

The Paris pearls have been of late years perfected to so great a degree, that the Roman pearl which delighted our grandmothers by its supposed skillful imitation of nature, has been entirely beaten out of the field. It is, however, to the cultivation of the diamond that M. Bourguignon has devoted the whole of his ingenuity; and were he to detail the mysteries of his craft, some of the most singular histories of "family diamonds" and "heir-looms" would be brought to light. The single fact of the sudden falling off in the pattern orders—that is, execution of orders according to pattern—on the decrease of the *furureur* of lansquenet, gives rise to many a sad conjecture, and M. Bourguignon could tell us the tale, no doubt, of the gradual conversion of the contents of many a fair lady's *ecrin*, which coming to her on her marriage from Fossard's splendid show-room, have been replaced in secret by Bourguignon, and worn in the face of him who gave them, without exciting the smallest suspicion. Often, on the other hand, has the artist's skill been called into requisition to deceive the trusting wife, who has confided her diamonds to the safe keeping of her husband or his confidential man of business.

Some curious coincidences worthy of dramatic record have occurred in that same retired, *distingue-looking* shop of Bourguignon's on the Boulevard. A few months ago, one of our fair compatriots entered it, looking rather flushed and excited, and, drawing from her muff a number of morocco cases of many shapes and sizes, opened them one after another and spread them out on the counter. "I wish to learn the price of a *parure* to be made in exact imitation of this—that is to say, if you can imitate the workmanship with sufficient precision for the distinction never to be observed."

Bourguignon examined the articles attentively, named his price, and gave the most unequivocal promise that the *parure* should be an exact counterpart of the one before him. The lady insisted again. She was urgent overmuch, as is the case with the fair sex in general. Was he sure the imitation would be perfect? Had he observed the beauty and purity of these stones? Could he imitate the beautiful manner in which they were cut, &c.

"Soyez tranquille, madame," replied Bourguignon; "the same workman shall have the job, and you may rely upon having an exact counterpart of his former work."

The lady opened her eyes in astonishment and trepidation, and M. Bourguignon, with unconscious serenity, added by way of reassuring her, "I will attend to the order myself, as I did when I received the commands of Milor—, who ordered this very *parure*, I think, last February;" and, with the greatest unconcern, he proceeded

to search his ledger to ascertain which of his workmen executed it, and what the date of its delivery.

Meanwhile the lady had sunk down in a complete fainting fit. Milor—, whom Bourguignon had named, was her own treacherous lord and master, who had forestalled her, by exchanging Rundell and Bridge's goodly work against Bourguignon's deceptive counterfeit—no doubt, to liquidate his obligation on the turf. "But, the worst of all," adds the worthy artist, who recounts the scene with infinite humor, "was the utter fury into which Miledi fell, when she recovered from her swoon, reproaching me for having aided her husband in deceiving her; for she herself had never discovered the difference between the false and real, although the diamonds made by Rundell and Bridge had been in her possession ever since her marriage, and had been worn by her upon every state occasion."

Not only, however, is domestic deception carried on by means of M. Bourguignon's artistic skill, but he has often been called upon to lend his aid to diplomatic craft likewise. Numberless are the snuffboxes, "adorned with valuable diamonds," which issue from his atelier in secret, as the reward of public service or skillful negotiation; innumerable the portraits, "set in brilliants," which have been mounted there, to gladden the hearts of charge d'affaires, attaches, and vice-consuls. The great Mehemet Ali, like all great men, who, when they commit little actions, always do so on a great scale, may be said to be the first who ever introduced the bright delusions of M. Bourguignon to the unconscious acquaintance of the children of that prophet, who suffered no deceivers to live.

The wily old Mussulman, who knew the world too well not to be conscious of the value of an appearance of profusion on certain occasions, had announced that every pacha who came to the seat of government to swear allegiance to his power, would return to his province laden with presents of jewels for his wives. It may readily be imagined, that under such conditions, the duty became a pleasure, and that there needed no second bidding. Meanwhile Mehemet, with characteristic caution, had dispatched an order to his envoy then sojourning in Paris to send him forthwith as many of the diabolical deceptions of the lying Franks, in the way of mock diamonds, as he could collect.

Bourguignon undertook to furnish the order, which was executed in due course, and duly appropriated, no doubt causing many a Mashallah of delight to fall from the lips of the harem beauties of Egypt, and many an Allah Hu of loyalty from those of their husbands at sight of so much generosity. It is thus that civilization will in time stride round the earth and enable us to deceive one another according to our peculiar means and resources—a result certainly never anticipated by any of the great civilizers of the world.

MANUFACTURE OF CLOCKS IN NEW HAVEN.

A correspondent of the *Journal of Commerce* furnishes the following interesting notes of the manufacture of clocks in New Haven:—

New Haven, as a city, has undergone great changes within a few years. Though still retaining her primitive characteristics—her genteel residences and shaded retreats—she has been engrafted with an enormous manufacturing interest, which is closely identified with her prosperity, and yet is of such recent growth that few comprehend its extent and importance. Almost the entire eastern part of the city, which, a comparatively short time since, was in "commons," is now thickly studded with the tall chimneys of establishments for the manufacture of Yankee notions in all their variety, and with the dwellings of the mechanics employed by them. One of the most conspicuous of these is Jerome's immense clock factory, in which upwards of four hundred and fifty persons are employed, and more than six hundred clocks are daily manufactured. Last September the unusually large number of seventeen thousand were turned out.

These measurers of time, multiplied like the leaves of the forest, regulate the movements of individuals in all parts of the world. A recent traveler encountered them in the mountains of Asia, and but a few days ago a parcel was shipped to "Jerusalem via Joppa." The universal Yankee clock may now be considered the fit representative of the Yankee nation, and an appropriate device for her escutcheon. Mr. Jerome's works consist of twelve buildings, in which all the processes necessary for the com-

mencement and completion of a clock (over two hundred) are carried on; and each one is facilitated by the use of machinery. The advantages thus afforded defy all competition. The old-fashioned Dutch clock has become an obsolete thing, and the Germans have been completely supplanted in the extensive trade in clocks which they transacted with England twelve years ago. Last year Mr. Jerome made not less than one hundred and fifty thousand clocks, and the number manufactured this year is expected to reach two hundred thousand, valued at about five hundred thousand dollars.

This is a number greater, probably, than the joint production of all other similar establishments in the United States. And, notwithstanding the enormous supply, during the present year it has been unequal to the demand. This is partly owing to the great change which has lately taken place in the manner of making clocks—the the spring having superseded the weights, and a more fanciful style the venerated cases. Dispensing with the weights has particularly affected the foreign demand.

In order to obtain an adequate idea of the extent of Mr. Jerome's operations, no display of statistics can be a substitute for a personal inspection of the works. Extended lines of men ranged beside work-tables are seen, with whom the several pieces required in the construction of a clock, (twelve to twenty,) are passing through from a rudimentary to a complete state. At one end of the series may be seen an immense quantity of detached parts, at the other a huge heap of several thousand movements ready for casing, and which might apparently be sold by the bushel or half-bushel as well as by any other method. More than twenty thousand of various styles are continually in process of construction. In the manufacture of cases the same systematic procedure is observed as is noticed above. The rough lumber, of which over two million five hundred thousand feet are consumed, is speedily cut into the desired lengths, split, beveled, and veneered, or, where cases are japanned or varnished, the several pieces are painted, baked, and decorated, with the greatest expedition. In the use of pearl, which is inlaid on some varieties of cases, a great improvement has been proposed. The pearl being a very expensive material, Professor Shepherd has suggested that it may be produced artificially, by a combination of lime and various chemical substances, obviating the necessity of exploring the depths of the ocean in order to procure this article. The experiment will doubtless soon be made.

Numerous ways have been devised from time to time by which the actual cost of the clock is reduced. By a newly invented machine a section of a tree may be converted into a continuous veneer, much after the fashion of removing the paring of an apple; and some of our common scrubby and apparently worthless trees are found to polish admirably. More than five hundred thousand feet of veneers are used per annum. In cutting the teeth of brass wheels and other parts, a machine acts on a large number of pieces simultaneously, and the whole are prepared with the same facility that one could be. As all parts are adjusted with mathematical accuracy, by the unerring action of machinery, it is as easy to make a good clock as a worthless one; and such as are very low-priced, selling for less than one dollar each, are guaranteed equal to the more costly variety in bronze, gilt, marble, &c., which sell at from five to twelve dollars.

As an incentive to aspiring young men, it may be mentioned that Mr. Jerome commenced with a capital of fifty dollars, and was strongly advised by friends not to venture upon so hazardous a business as clock making, inasmuch as a certain Mr. T—— was already making five hundred a year.

TANNING.

The ancient process of tanning requiring a long period of time to produce leather, numerous processes have latterly been set forth, and many of them tried on a working scale, for the purpose of shortening this lapse of time. Although the end has been attained in a variety of ways, yet the quality of the leather has proved so inferior, that the slower process is still preferred for the finer qualities. The deterioration has been nearly, but not, however, quite, in direct proportion of the reduction of time in tanning, so that we may hope that methods will be devised for shortening in time without losing in quality. It is true that we are not thoroughly acquainted with the exact nature and progress of the change which a hide undergoes in its transformation, but we believe, on sufficient grounds, that it consists in the simultaneous metamorphosis of the hide into a gelatinous material and its combination with tannin. In some kinds of tanning, alumina, or aluminous salts, seems to act the part of tannin. It has

been found that an elevated temperature hastens the transformation; that strong liquors, or the injection of liquors by force, hasten the combination of tannin. The same ends appear to be also attained by the free use of lime, whereby the hide is swelled and its pores opened. The precise action of acid is not well ascertained, except that the process is shortened. These are the main principles by which a shortened process of tanning has been accomplished. Where lime has been freely used, acid generally follows, and the hide is so puffed and porous, that tanning becomes expeditious; but the hide has been torn and rent asunder, and the organized structure must be necessarily impaired, and the strength and firmness of the leather consequently diminished. It will be observed that in the older processes the change was so slow that the organized structure of the skin was not impaired; that but little matter was removed from the hide, while a quantity was added to it. In accelerating the change, a portion of the matter is removed by solution while undergoing transformation, before it can unite with and become fixed by the tannin. Hence the greater looseness and levity of leather prepared by the more modern and rapid processes. It may, perhaps, be stated as an ascertained fact, that leaving the side in the vats during two years instead of one, the increase of weight and quality thereby, compensates for the loss of time, by paying a fair interest on the capital invested.

A patentee (*London Journal*, xxxvi. 310.) proposes a combination of the white leather (alum and salt) process, with the tanning process by means of catechu. Another (*London Journal*, xxxvi. 319) suggests the use of sulphuret of calcium instead of lime for unhairing.

Since liming tends to lengthen tanning, by preventing the more rapid union of tannin with gelatin, Turnbull treats the hides after liming with a concentrated solution of sugar, so that the access of air is prevented during the action of the bark liquors on the hides, and the formation of gallic acid thereby prevented. In this manner the same amount of leather is obtained in fourteen days from 100 pounds of oak bark, as has been heretofore obtained in eighteen months from 800 pounds of bark.

Kampfmeyer states as a result of his comparative experiments with oak bark, alder bark, catechu, divi divi, that sole leather tanned with divi divi is, in dry weather, about as good as the oak-tanned, but that in wet weather it is inferior. It may nevertheless, be used in conjunction with oak bark.

Elsner states that in Wallachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania, the root of the tormentil, or septfoil, is largely and successfully employed in tanning, and that its value is shown by chemical analysis, which gives 17 to 34 per cent tannin in it.

The best method of determining, practically, the amount of tannin in a substance is that proposed by Pelouze, which is to hang a strip of hide (freshly deprived of hair and ready for the tan-vat) in a tannic solution, and keep it there until it ceases to increase in weight. This increase is tannic acid, the gallic being left in the solution—*Professor J. C. Booth in the Scientific American.*

THE GREAT MINNESOTA COPPER MINE.

The Lake Superior *Mining News* furnishes the subjoined summary account of the monster mine, known as the Minnesota:—

The greatest depth attained in this mine is 380 feet. The main shaft or piston that works the pumps is here about three hundred feet long. The lowest depth attained at the south vein is one hundred and sixty-six feet. Silver is interspersed in all the copper of this mine, and in some others on this range. When any fine specimens of silver do make their appearance in *vugs*, or in any other collection, they are generally secured by the miners. The amount of copper shipped from this mine during the season of navigation, was 1,543,407 pounds net weight, being over 771 tons, worth over three hundred thousand dollars. The product for the month of December is over seventy-seven tons. Three hundred and ninety men are required to carry on this vast operation. It requires a supply of over twenty thousand pounds of candles for this mine during six months. There are about forty buildings clustered around this mine, and making a respectable village; for they have their Catholic and Protestant churches, their school house, warehouse, and doctor's office. It is one of the mines that give character to this country, for upon its success depends the confidence of all stockholders in copper mines; and it will maintain that place until some others shall show an equal success, and share that responsibility with the Minnesota and Cliff mines.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND ITS FRIENDS.

We took the liberty of publishing in the February number of our *Magazine* the resolutions of the Mercantile Library Association of San Francisco, and also a letter from THOMAS C. SMITH, Esq., the President of the Merchants' Insurance Company, of Boston. We have now the pleasure of acknowledging the receipt of a series of resolutions, passed by the Buffalo Board of Trade, and of returning that association of merchants and business men, our thanks, for the high commendation bestowed upon our labors. In publishing the resolutions, we may be permitted to add, that Mr. GEORGE S. HAZARD, the gentleman referred to in the letter of the Secretary, has since been elected President of the Board.

CORN EXCHANGE, BUFFALO, }
January 19th, 1855. }

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

DEAR SIR :—I take great pleasure in forwarding you the inclosed resolutions, which were adopted at a meeting of the Board of Trade, held this day.

Permit me to add, that Mr. George S. Hazard, in offering the resolutions, testified in very flattering terms to the great value and excellence of your magazine, remarking that he had been a constant and attentive reader of its contents for many years, and earnestly recommending it to all business men.

Yours, respectfully,
JOHN J. HENDERSON, Secretary.

At a meeting of the Board of Trade, of Buffalo, held at the Corn Exchange, January 19th, 1855, the following resolutions were adopted :—

Resolved, That the Board of Trade of Buffalo recognize in the monthly periodical known as "*Hunt's Merchants' Magazine and Commercial Review*," a work eminently well adapted to the purposes of the class to whom it is addressed, and fulfilling in a complete degree, the intentions and design indicated in its general plan. That, in recommending it to the favorable consideration of all business men, we are instigated by no other motives than those legitimate ones which induce us to commend a work, the like of which is not to be found in this or any other country, and the perfections of which render it intrinsically superior to any similar publication.

Resolved, That we also cordially commend to all our merchants and commercial men, the magazine mentioned; that we extend to its originator and most able conductor, our congratulations, upon the success which has rewarded his earnest exertions at establishing a high-toned periodical, devoted exclusively to the interests of the mercantile and business world.

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Board furnish Freeman Hunt with a copy of these resolutions duly certified.

JOHN J. HENDERSON, Secretary.

HIRAM NILES, President.

In this connection, we may as well give the business-like letter of SAMUEL LAWRENCE, Esq., the founder of the great manufacturing city which bears his name, and the President of the Boston Board of Trade :—

Boston, April 14, 1854.

FREEMAN HUNT, Esq. :—

MY DEAR SIR :—I have for many years been familiar with the character and contents of your invaluable work. Regarding the *Merchants' Magazine* as an almost indispensable appendage to the library of every merchant and business man, I avail myself of this opportunity of requesting you to forward to my address a complete set of the same, neatly and substantially bound, for which you will please draw on me at sight.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

SAMUEL LAWRENCE.

A GREAT PUBLISHING ESTABLISHMENT.

The publishing houses of Boston, from the amount of capital invested in their business, and the character of the works issued, have long since established a sterling reputation. Little, Brown & Co., Phillips, Sampson & Co., John P. Jewett & Co., Sanborn, Carter & Bazin, (late B. B. Mussey & Co.,) and many others that might be mentioned in this connection, are names that have a universal commercial and literary currency. The newspaper establishments of the city, also, are numerous and conducted on a heavy capital. We would instance particularly Mr. Ballou's establishment, at the corner of Bromfield and Tremont streets, which we have more than once visited. From this place are issued the "Flag of our Union," "Ballou's Pictorial," well-known weeklies, and Ballou's "Dollar Monthly Magazine." Some items respecting Mr. B.'s business will not be uninteresting to our readers. The offices occupy one of the largest buildings in Boston, in the basement of which eleven Adams power presses are kept constantly at work. About one hundred employes are directly engaged in the building, exclusive of some forty persons, contributors, designers, engravers, electrotypers, and others, who are constantly occupied in their various labors, expressly for Mr. Ballou's publications. More than \$200,000 worth of paper is consumed annually. The single item of printing-ink costs nearly \$8,000 dollars per annum. The sum of \$80,000 was sunk in the Pictorial before it became a paying concern, and a profit cannot be counted until sixty thousand have been sold weekly. The present weekly circulation is 107,000 copies. It owes this extraordinary success to the superior character and variety of the engravings—which are fine specimens of American art—to the elegance of its typography, its admirable descriptions of engravings, and general literary character—in which it far surpasses the London illustrated journals—and to the fact that nothing of a sectional, sectarian, or partisan character, nothing of questionable moral tendency is ever admitted into its columns. This, and the liberal patronage it affords to American literature and American art, have gained for it general good will and approbation.

The "Flag of our Union," a weekly literary paper, with the same proprietor and publication office, circulates 73,000 copies weekly. It was the pioneer of this class of journal, and is now in its tenth year. The staple of its contents are light, romantic novelettes, tales, and stories, agreeable essays on the current topics of the day, anecdotes, &c. The same rigid propriety which marks the conduct of the "Pictorial," is noticeable in the "Flag." Ballou's Dollar Monthly, containing one hundred pages of carefully prepared matter in each number—twelve numbers per annum, circulates 32,000 copies.

The circulation of the above works is not confined to this country, large numbers being sent to England and the European continent.

For eight years Mr. Ballou had the editorial and business charge of the "Flag of our Union," and he has been connected in a similar capacity with the "Pictorial," from its commencement. He is a ready and graceful writer, and has been almost from boyhood connected with the Boston press. Notwithstanding his editorial and business engagements, he has found time to write two works, which have had a very great sale, and established his literary reputation. One of these was a biography of his father, the late Reverend Hosea Ballou, the father of American Universalism, and the other, a "History of Cuba," is the most complete and satisfactory account of that island yet issued. His associate editor, Mr. Francis A. Durivage, is a favorite writer of prose and poetry for the press, with large experience in the editorial line, and ripe scholarship. His translation of Lamartine's History of the Revolution of 1848, is one of the best versions of that difficult author we have met with. As a light, playful essayist he has few equals. Mr. Ballou became the owner of the establishment we

have thus briefly noticed, by purchase in November last, the price paid being \$200,000, \$50,000 of which was cash. The "Flag" and "Pictorial," particularly the latter, immediately showed his control in liberal improvements, involving largely increased expenditure. The "Pictorial" is retailed for six cents, and such a work could not probably be published in any other country at the same rate and afford a living profit. That it pays well is only accomplished by an immense circulation.

WAS IT FOR THAT HE FAILED ?

In our last, says the *Philadelphia Merchant*, we took ground that nine-tenths of the failures in the commercial world are traceable to a want of the insolvent's acquaintance with the details of business. This may appear to many an unwarrantable conclusion, but to the intelligent business man no argument need be addressed to convince him of its obviousness.

Fast living and extravagant family establishments, are the causes alleged by the superficial reasoner, for the insolvent's downfall; but to the observant business man these are only the superinducing cause to a hasty disruption of the short-sighted insolvent's affairs. But few men start business and fast living at the same time; and most of that few have but a short-lived existence in the credit market, and consequently do but little either good or harm in a commercial point of view. Nor is the number great who, upon entering business, erect princely establishments for the expenditure of their own profits and their creditors' principal. Fast living and extravagant family outlays "creep on apace" with the free and easy habits of the merchant, who presumes that he is doing well when he is doing a large and extensive business. With large sales he counts on large profits, and pauses not to reflect upon his increasing expenditures and probable augmentation of bad debts. Did he consult his "trial balance" monthly, not merely to inform himself whether or not his book-keeper had got the credit side of the ledger to balance with the debit side to the very cent, but with a view of ascertaining the condition of every account, both representative and personal, he would then see not only the amount of his purchases and sales, but who had paid and who had not, what amount of notes had been taken up, and what amount was necessary to provide for those maturing—how his expenses had augmented and bad debts accumulated; and the consideration of these would suggest measures to be adopted for the securing of claims of a dubious or doubtful character. And what is more, they would suggest, besides many important details of a business character, whether or not his business will warrant the drain made upon it for family and other expenses. If it will not, he can explain his condition to his wife and family, who have an equal interest with him in sustaining his reputation and standing, as an honorable business man, and they will join with him in all those retrenchments necessary to enable him to maintain a proud position among his fellows, on the change or in the mart.

There are none so sensitive to the blameless standing of the merchant, as the "loved ones at home," and there is no sacrifice they would not make to sustain the high calling of the husband and father.

He who acquaints himself with the duties of his business, will guard its every interest, and, if need be, will apprise his wife and family with what it will allow for the necessaries and luxuries of life; and his family will be content therewith. He is not a good business man who keeps his wife and family in ignorance of his ability to indulge their fancied requirements.

HAVE MERCHANTS TOO MUCH BUSINESS TO READ ?

Unblushingly, some merchants will declare that they have so much business that they have no time to read—they cannot look into even a paper advocating their best interests—they cannot even promise themselves a single hour at home for acquaintance with the literature of mercantile life. This is haste that makes waste. No merchant can pursue his business so well without appropriate reading as by it; his faculties are quickened to better and more liberal activity by it; and he feels more the dignity that belongs to his position in the world.

It is really amusing to see some of these over-busy men in a circle of conversation-

ists, and note their utter unfitness to understand the discussions, or to contribute in the least to the common stock. They would not read, and now they cannot understand the discussions which take for granted that each one is a reader, and the questions asked by the "odd-stick" are simple indeed, revealing shameful ignorance of general matters.

To such persons we commend the following from Hon. George S. Hilliard, of Boston, Massachusetts:—

This is a world of inflexible Commerce; nothing is ever given away, but everything is bought and paid for. If, by exclusive and absolute surrender of ourselves to material pursuits, we materialize the mind, we lose that class of satisfactions of which the mind is the region and the source. A young man in business, for instance, begins to feel the exhilarating glow of success, and deliberately determines to abandon himself to its delicious whirl. He says to himself—"I will think of nothing but business till I have made so much money, and then I will begin a new life. I will gather round me books, and pictures, and friends. I will have knowledge, taste, and cultivation, the perfumes of scholarship, and winning speech, and graceful manners. I will see foreign countries, and converse with accomplished men. I will drink deep of the fountain of classic lore. Philosophy shall guide me, history shall instruct, and poetry shall charm me. Science shall open to me her world of wonders. I shall then remember my present life of drudgery as one recalls a pleasant dream when the morning has dawned." He keeps his self-registered vow. He bends his thoughts downwards, and nails them to the dust. Every power, every affection, every taste, except those which his particular occupation calls into play, is left to starve. Over the gates of his mind he writes, in letters which he who runs may read—"No admittance except on business." In time he reaches the goal of his hopes, but now insulted nature begins to claim her revenge. That which was once unnatural is now natural to him. The enforced constraint has become a rigid deformity. The spring of his mind is broken. He can no longer lift his thoughts from the ground. Books and knowledge, and wise discourse, and the amenities of art, and the cordial of friendship, are like words in a strange tongue. To the hard, smooth surface of his soul, nothing genial, graceful, or winning will cling. He cannot even purge his voice of its fawning tone, or pluck from his face the mean money-getting mask which the child does not look at without ceasing to smile. Amid the graces and ornaments of wealth, he is like a blind man in a picture-gallery. That which he has done he must continue to do; he must accumulate riches which he cannot enjoy, and contemplate the dreary prospect of growing old without anything to make age venerable or attractive, for age without wisdom and without knowledge is the winter's cold without the winter's fire.

A LIBEL ON AMERICAN MERCHANTS.

In a late number of *Blackwood's Magazine*, says the *Philadelphia Ledger*, there is an article assailing the American character in consequence of what Barnum says, in his Autobiography, respecting the storekeepers with whom he spent his youth. These Connecticut traders are represented by Barnum as continually endeavoring to trick each other, and Blackwood accordingly assumes them to be the representatives of the people at large. So far from this being the truth, however, rascality among merchants is the exception. The great body of American storekeepers, though close calculators, are honest in their dealings. Even the exceptions to which Barnum has referred are rare anywhere; and this is especially true of Philadelphia. Our commercial men, from the first settlement of the country, have had the reputation of being strictly honorable in their dealings. "The word of that man is as good as his bond," is a common saying in regard to a Philadelphia merchant. If knavery, under the name of sharpness, finds countenance with any set of dealers, it is not with the dealers of this city. We have heard very exaggerated descriptions of English mercantile life, if fraud is not quite as common there as in America; yet we should be sorry to characterize British merchants as a class of swindlers. Articles like that in *Blackwood* only engender ill-feeling between the people of the two nations.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*A History of Greece, from the Earliest Times to the Roman Conquest.* With Supplementary Chapters on the History of Literature and Art. By WILLIAM SMITH, LL. D., Editor of the Dictionaries of "Greek and Roman Antiquities," "Biography and Mythology," and "Geography." With Notes, and a Continuation to the Present Time. By C. C. FELTON, LL. D., Professor of Greek Literature in Harvard University. 8vo., pp. 670. Boston: Hickling, Swan & Co.

The name of Dr. William Smith, an English author of books on classical subjects, is extensively known in the United States, and the excellencies of his works have been duly appreciated by our schools and colleges. Many of his books, either as prepared by him, or after having passed through the hands of an Anthon, and receiving additional stores from his classic researches, and fresh polish from his touch, have been much used by classical students. Dr. Felton, of Harvard, the editor of the present republication, and whose learning and talents eminently fit him for the task, has carefully revised the text, and with the proper opinion that the interest which attaches itself to the Hellenic name does not cease at the Roman conquest, has brought the history down to the present time. Some apparently judicious alterations of Dr. Smith's work have been made by Professor Felton, such as a substitution of other translations of passages from the poets in a few cases, so that the form of the original is more exactly represented. The vignettes, maps, and wood-cut illustrations of the original works have been retained, and a number added, besides those prefixed to new chapters. The Gate of Lions, at Mycenæ, and the Acropolis, have been redrawn, and are presented precisely as they now appear. The book forms a valuable treatise for the study of Greek literature and institutions—so powerful an auxiliary of liberal education, and so instructive to the citizens of a free country.

- 2.—*Harpers' Statistical Gazetteer of the World.* Particularly describing the United States of America, Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. By J. CALVIN SMITH. Illustrated by seven maps. 8vo., pp. 1,952. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A most desirable book of reference is this elaborate and comprehensive gazetteer, useful to the general reader, the man of business, and the student. It contains, in an accessible form, a vast fund of information. In its compilation the late census of the United States of America, Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, and the returns of Mexico, the States of Central America, South America, Great Britain, and the countries of Continental Europe, besides other sources of statistical and geographical information have been consulted. The geological, meteorological, and mineralogical condition of countries and districts are not left unnoticed. The most insignificant town in the United States and the Canadas, Nova Scotia and the "hundreds" of Great Britain, may be readily found. The work can be highly commended for its general accuracy, its systematic arrangement, and the lateness of much of its information.

- 3.—*Poems of the Orient.* By BAYARD TAYLOR. 12m., pp. 203. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

The great American traveler, Bayard Taylor, whose published narrations have instructed and entertained so many readers, appears before us in this volume in another class of composition—poetry. The lovers of tender impassioned verse will be gratified with the perusal of this volume, most of which is illustrative of Eastern life and character. The sprightly piece, "Hassan to his Mare," makes us feel the devotion of the Arab for his faithful steed, and the reciprocal affection of the noble animal so proud of his master. Mr. Taylor possesses the genuine poetic temperament.

- 4.—*Men of Character.* By DOUGLAS JERROLD. 12mo. New York: Bunce & Brother.

This is an amusing and laughter-creating book, by the author of "Candle Lectures," "St. Giles and St. James," "Man Made of Money," &c. There are four humorous, piquant, and keenly satirical stories in this volume, which are entitled: Titus Trumps, the Man of Many Hopes; Jack Runnymede, the Man of Many Thanks; Job Pippins, the Man Who Couldn't Help It; Isaac Cheek, the Man of Wax. The pieces are appropriately illustrated with original designs by Coffin.

5.—*The Art-Journal*—January and February. London: George Virtue & Co. New York: Virtue, Emmons & Co.

The January number of this tasteful and elegant work is the first issue of a new series, and contains three elegant engravings from pictures in the collections of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert. They are—"The Duchess of Devonshire," from a painting by Sir Joshua Reynolds, in the royal collection at Windsor; "The Royal Yacht off Mount St. Michael," from the picture by C. Stanfield, R. A., in the same collection; "Sappho," from a statue by W. Theed, in possession of Her Majesty at Osborne. The sculptor could have no finer subject for a model to mold and fashion into an image of feminine grace and purity. This number also contains wood engravings illustrating a variety of subjects, among which are "British Artists: their Style and Character," and "Art Manufacture." The February issue sustains the high reputation of this periodical. "The Bridge of Toledo," from the picture by D. Roberts, R. A., is a beautiful and grand landscape view and fine line engraving. "Garrick and his Wife," from the picture by the great pencil moralist, Hogarth, in the collection at Windsor, is excellent. "The Lion in Love," from a sculptured group by W. Geefs, a Belgian artist, is very beautiful. The wood engravings of this and the January number are in the highest style of the art, and the literary matter is of an interesting and instructive nature.

6.—*The Life of Sam Houston*. (The only authentic Memoir of him ever published.) 12mo., pp. 402. New York: J. C. Derby.

The lives of the prominent statesmen and patriots of the republic should be familiar to every American citizen. The life of the "Hero of San Jacinto," the discreet statesman, the friend of the red man, is not the least interesting among these; and at this time when he is regarded as a fit and available candidate for the Presidency by large numbers of the American people, it is peculiarly interesting. This handsome volume gives a full account of his diversified life, which contains many scenes and incidents of an exciting, thrilling, and romantic character. The work is written in an enthusiastic eulogistic style, and does ample justice to his character. It cannot be doubted that General Houston possesses, from his present position and his past life, some of the strongest elements of popularity. The frontispiece of the volume is a picturesque representation of the subject of the memoir in Texan costume, with his broad-brimmed hat and gun. There are several other illustrations.

7.—*The Elements of Character*. By MARY G. CHANDLER. 12mo., pp. 234. Boston: Otis Clapp.

This work consists of several essays, all of which tend to the improvement and elevation of character. The author, in giving her views upon these important themes, has presented them so that they can practically benefit the reader. We like the deep religious conviction, earnest tone, and calm thought, which pervade its pages. All who seek to build up a permanent and useful character will be aided by perusing and meditating upon the thoughts suggested in this volume. The subjects treated upon are—Charity, the Human Trinity, Thought, Imagination, Affection, Life, Conversation, Manners, Companionship.

8.—*The Summer Land*. A Southern Story. By a Child of the Sun. 12mo., pp. 254. D. Appleton & Co.

The author of this tale seems to have carried out Gray's idea, that any man could write a useful and entertaining book, if he would only faithfully detail what he has seen and heard in a sphere which the rest of the world had never seen and was curious about. The author is a Southerner, and with the exception of a change of names and the coloring of a story, depicts an apparently true and faithful picture of life and scenery in the "sunny South," with occasional sketches of character, customs, &c., among the planters.

9.—*Clovernook Children*. By ALICE CAREY. 18mo., pp. 291. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

These stories for children by a popular authoress are written in a natural, talking sort of style, and will greatly delight children. But we cannot approve of the judgment that will use in talking to children an inelegant word, however popular its use may be, as the youthful mind will—strange as it may appear—quicker remember the inelegancies than the refinements of language. The moral tendency which pervades this book is high-toned, and to be commended.

- 10.—*Mammon: or the Hardships of an Heiress.* By MRS. GORE, author of "Abednego," "Banker's Wife," "Dean's Daughter," &c. 12mo., pp. 373. New York: Bunce & Brother.

This is the latest production of one of the most prolific of novelists and tale writers. Mrs. Gore has been writing for the public for some twenty-eight years. In 1827 she published anonymously some tales of the times of Louis XIV., and of the French Revolution, since when she has, from time to time, produced a large number of novels, besides a little work on the history of the rose, its propagation and culture, a drama, and contributions of tales to periodicals. She is probably unparalleled for fertility. Her fictions are all of the same class—all portraits of existing life and manners. She is a keen observer, and possesses a high power of graphic delineation. She shows in "Mammon," the impoverishing nature of the love of money. It is, perhaps, one of her best novels.

- 11.—*The True System of Religious Philosophy.* In Letters to a Man of the World Disposed to Believe. By J. E. LE BOYS DES GUAYS, Editor of La Nouvelle Jerusalem. Translated from the French by John Murdock. Third Edition, Revised and Corrected by George Bush, Professor of Hebrew in the University of New York. 12mo., pp. 259. Boston: Otis Clapp.

The first series of these letters on what the author styles the True Religious Philosophy—meaning thereby the Swedenborgian system—were published several years ago. A second series was afterwards written, relating mainly to the principles on which the sacred Scriptures are constructed. The first and second series have been published together; and we have now another edition of the two series, which has undergone the careful revision of Professor George Bush, whose scholastic attainments and vigorous intellect are not unknown or unappreciated. The letters are written in an attractive simplicity of style, and the argument is skillfully conducted.

- 12.—*Annual of Scientific Discovery; or Year Book of Facts in Science and Art for 1855.* Edited by DAVID A. WELLS, A. M. 12mo., pp. 386. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

This annual was commenced in 1850. Each volume exhibits the most important discoveries and improvements (that have been made during the preceding year) in mechanics, useful arts, natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, meteorology, zoology, botany, mineralogy, geology, geography, antiquities, &c. It resembles the English Year Book of Facts, but is much larger, more elaborate, and better arranged than that work. The present volume has for a frontispiece a fine engraving and correct likeness of Lieutenant Maury, of the National Observatory.

- 13.—*A Parisian Pastor's Glance at America.* By Rev. J. H. GRAND PIERRE, D. D., Pastor of the Reformed Church, and Director of the Missionary Institution, in Paris. 18mo., pp. 132. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

We have in this work a glance at the moral, religious, and ecclesiastical aspect of American society, as seen through the eyes of a French Protestant divine. The author does not think ill of our religious condition, but presents it as an example for his countrymen. Dr. Grand Pierre has lately become the editor of the Journal L'Espérance, which is considered a vigilant sentinel of the liberty of worship. The work has been translated by a young lady whose name is not mentioned in the book. She is a personal friend of the author.

- 14.—*Grace Lee.* By JULIA KAVANAGH. 12mo., 392. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Another interesting novel from the pen of the author of "Daisy Burns," "Madeline," "Nathalie," and "Women of Christianity." Grace Lee, the heroine, is finely drawn; the characters are consistently sustained, the plot of the book, nicely conceived, exhibiting much deep thought and moral reflection. The scenes are naturally and beautifully delineated; and we discover in the work much dramatic talent and correct views of every-day life. It will hold its rank with her other able productions.

- 15.—*Portraits of Eminent Living Men.*

We have received from the publisher lithographic portraits of the Hon. William H. Seward, Hon. Charles Sumner, United States Senators; and the Rev. Theodore Parker, the celebrated reformer and preacher of "absolute religion." They are the most life-like pictures we have ever seen; that of Mr. Parker is a perfect *fac-simile* of the great preacher's head. Mr. C. H. Brainard, of Boston, is the publisher.

- 16.—*General History of the Christian Religion and Church*. From the German of Dr. AUGUSTUS NEANDER. Translated from the last edition by JOSEPH TORREY, Professor of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy in the University of Vermont. Volume fifth, comprising the sixth volume of the original. Published from the posthumous papers by K. F. M. SCHNEIDER. 8vo., pp. 415. Boston: Crocker & Brewster.

As Neander takes the lead of all church historians for thoroughness, impartiality, and original research, no theological library can be considered complete without this volume. Able editing has done its best to reduce to order and proportion what this great man had gathered in his dock-yard to launch upon the world as the final trophy of his rare genius. Still, we miss Neander continually, though no one can fail to be grateful for this complete history of Wicliffe and Huss, from original documents, in that tone of elevated spirituality characteristic of the author, we feel that the Master is present only in the person of a disciple—that the style is singularly harsh—and that uninteresting documents intrude and break up a most instructive narrative. Professor Torrey's part of the work needs no praise; these five massive octavos are a monument of fidelity not to be gainsayed. They must gradually supplant all the one-sided, superficial narratives which have been called church history before.

- 17.—*The Third Gallery of Portraits*. By GEORGE GILFILLAN. 12mo., pp. 268. New York: Sheldon, Lamport & Blakeman.

Mr. Gilfillan is a contributor to some half-dozen British periodicals. The present volume contains for the most part contributions to different journals. The sketches here collected include notices of the most diverse varieties of character and mind—from an Æschylus to a Neale, from a Chalmers to a Marat. We have, among a file of French revolutionists, sketches of Mirabeau, Marat, Vergniaud, and Napoleon; among sacred authors, Isaac Taylor, Robert Hall, and Dr. Chalmers. In his cluster of poets, Mr. Gilfillan sketches with the hand of a master, Alexander Smith, J. Stanley Bigg, and Gerald Massey. Under modern critics, he gives us Hazlitt and Hallam, Jeffrey and Coleridge, Macaulay and Carlyle. Sterling, Neale, Burke, Edgar A. Poe, Bulwer, Willson, &c., make up his miscellaneous sketches. It is an interesting and very readable work.

- 18.—*Periscopus*; or Current Subjects Extemporaneously Treated. By WILLIAM ELDER. 12mo., pp. 408. New York: J. C. Derby.

The articles in this volume were written during a period of seven years, and were first published in Putnam's, Graham's, Sartain's monthlies, National Era, Philadelphia Republic, Liberty Herald, Philadelphia Register, etc. Dr. Elder is anti-slavery, anti-war, anti almost everything, and generally radical. The pieces are arranged under the four divisions of "Characters and tales," "Slavery," "Funny," and "Politico-economical." The conservative would style him a fanatic. He is not, however, as might be thought that he would consistently be, one of the new lights in spiritualism—spirit-rapping he terms necromancy. The articles are written in an off-hand, vigorous, though sometimes careless, style.

- 19.—*English Past and Present*. By RICHARD CHENEVIX, B. D. 12mo., pp. 213. New York: Redfield.

This brief volume constitutes an interesting little work concerning the structure of the English language. The author appears to have entered into an intelligent review of the radices of the language, and the additions which it has derived from the Latin and other languages, which compose its sources. He traces its Saxon derivatives, and the changes which have occurred in the meaning and spelling of words. It may be regarded as a valuable philological treatise, throwing light upon the subject of which it treats. The work is composed of the substance of four lectures, which were delivered to the pupils of King's College School, London.

- 20.—*Parley's Household Library*; a Perpetual Fund of Instruction. 8vo., pp. 384.

- 21.—*Parley's Pictorial*; a Book for Home Education and Family Entertainment. 8vo., pp. 384. Edward H. Fletcher.

These volumes, uniform in size, contain a large amount and variety of useful and entertaining matter, on manufactures, arts, animals, flowers, travels and travelers, maxims, etc. The volumes are both illustrated with a large number of engravings. With Jacob Abbott, Peter Parley, and others, whose books combine instruction with amusement, the children of the present age are not at a loss for good books.

- 22.—*The Scholar's Companion*; containing Exercises in the Orthography, Derivation, and Classification of English Words. Revised Edition, with an Introduction and Copious Index. By R. W. BAILEY, author of "Primary Grammar" and "Manual of the English Language." 12mo., pp. 309. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

A useful work to those who have not had the advantages of a study of the classic languages, as well as to the young learner. It contains a classification of words by words of different orthography but of similar orthoepy; words of similar orthoepy but of different orthography; words of equivocal signification, colloquial improprieties, and rules of orthography, derivation, and composition; prefixes and suffixes; words from Latin, Greek; Latin, French, and Italian words and phrases; English synonyms, and other matter, the whole forming an excellent treatise on words, teaching, orthography, correct pronunciation, and is calculated to initiate the young learner into the habit of a critical definition of the language, a matter of so much importance.

- 23.—*Travels in Europe and the East*; a Year in England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales, France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Austria, Italy, Greece, Turkey, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. By SAMUEL IRENEUS PRIME. In two vols., 12mo., pp. 405 and 440. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author narrates in these volumes what he saw and heard in many places in Europe and the East—not of all Europe and the East, as perhaps the title would indicate. He has apparently quite faithfully portrayed the manners and customs of the people, the natural and artificial beauties of many lands, and narrated incidents of his journeyings, of some of which he formed a part. The volumes are handsomely illustrated with engravings of interesting subjects. Mr. Prime is truly American in feeling, and defends his country when assailed.

- 24.—*Discoveries in Chinese*; or the Symbolism of the Primitive Characters of the Chinese System of Writing, as a Contribution to Philology and Ethnology, and a Practical Aid in the Acquisition of the Chinese Language. By STEPHEN PEARL ANDREWS. 12mo., pp. 137. New York: Charles E. Norton.

This work exhibits the elements of which the Chinese language is constituted. The characters of this language, like the hieroglyphics of the aboriginal tribes of our continent, appear to have been derived from physical objects originating the ideas which are expressed. It appears that the spoken language of China is very meager, composed of only four-hundred-and-fifty words—all monosyllables; while the written language contains not less than thirty thousand characters. The volume will doubtless be of great value to those who are fond of philological investigations.

- 25.—*Israel Potter*: His Fifty Years of Exile. By HERMAN MELVILLE, author of "Typee," "Omoo," &c. G. P. Putnam & Co.

This fascinating story is worthy of the pen of the author of *Typee* and *Omoo*. It relates the adventures and wanderings of Israel, a private at Bunker Hill, who for his faithful services was years ago promoted to a deeper privacy under the ground, "with a posthumous pension in default of any during life, annually paid him by the spring in ever-new mosses and sward." The book is dedicated to his Highness the Bunker Hill Monument.

- 26.—*Snell Life at Sea*; or Fun, Frigates, and Yachting—a collection of Nautical Yarns. From the Log-Book of a Youngster of the Mess.

To those who have a taste for the exciting, daring, or rollicking adventures which make up nautical tales, this volume furnishes the desideratum. These yarns are by various authors. One—the longest—"Fitz Gubin, the Admiral's Pet," is by the author of "Singleton Fontenoy," which will recommend it to those who have read that remarkable novel.

- 27.—*The Minister's Family*. By the Rev. W. M. HETHERINGTON, L. L. D. 12mo. pp. 304. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

This interesting story is not only "founded on fact," but "is indeed almost devoid of any fictitious admixture whatever." Not a character is drawn, nor an event of any importance narrated, which is not a transcript of some character or event that occurred within the range of the author's own knowledge.

- 28.—*The Great Journey*. A Pilgrimage through the Valley of Tears to Mount Zion, the City of the Living God. 18mo., pp. 634. New York: R. Carter & Brothers.

An allegory, after the manner of the "Pilgrim's Progress," and aside from its religious teaching, will be read by the young for the interest it possesses as a story.

29.—*Visits to European Celebrities.* By WILLIAM B. SPRAGUE, D. D. 12mo., pp. 305. Boston: Gould & Lincoln. New York: Sheldon, Lamport & Blakeman.

The description of the appearance, manners, and conversation of distinguished men is naturally an interesting subject. These pen-portraits of our learned friend, Dr. Sprague, of Albany, are the result of his visits to some of the most celebrated men of Europe and Great Britain, during his tours of those countries in 1828 and 1836. The author took copious memoranda after every interview, defining the impression which the physical, intellectual, and moral man made upon him. These personal details embody accounts of some eighty or ninety eminent men and women, and the names of Edward Irving, Wilberforce, Hannah More, Louis Philippe, General Bernard, Madame de Goethe, Dr. Hembrier Humboldt, Ritter, Samuel Rogers, Thomas Campbell, Joanna Bailie, Amelia Opie, Maria Edgeworth, Dr. Chalmers, Professor Wilson, and Robert Southey. A fac-simile of the signature of each person is introduced.

30.—*An Introduction to Practical Astronomy; with a Collection of Astronomical Tables.* By ELIAS LOOMIS, LL. D., Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in the University of the City of New York, author of a "Course of Mathematics," etc. 8vo., pp. 497. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work is intended to supply a want which has been felt in our country, of a convenient subject and suitable text-book on practical astronomy. The cultivation of this science has made rapid advances during the last twenty-five years, at the beginning of which period the first refracting telescope, exceeding a portable size, was imported into the United States, while the introduction of large meridional instruments is of still more recent date. This work will be found a *desideratum* to amateur observers, practical surveyors, engineers, and, indeed, all who have occasion to engage in astronomical computations.

31.—*Patent Office and Patent Laws; or a Guide to Inventors, and a Book of Reference for Judges, Lawyers, Magistrates, and Others. With Appendices.* By J. G. MOXE, author of "China and the Indies," "The Electric Telegraph," etc., member of the Historical Societies of Pennsylvania, and late of the Interior Department of the United States. 12mo., pp. 342. Philadelphia: Parry & M'Millan, successors to A. Hart.

This work seems to contain all the information necessary to direct the patentee in obtaining a patent for inventions and designs. It is also a useful companion to the law student, and is desirable for reference to the magistrate when called upon to act for parties in an invention. It contains judicial decisions, the patent laws of England and France, opinions on appeals from the Commissioners of Patents, and appendices containing an account of early American inventions, the chronology of steam discoveries, cotton data, and chronology of miscellaneous inventions. The precedents here found may make the book useful to the judge on the bench, as perhaps they could be obtained in no more convenient form.

32.—*The Life of William H. Seward.* With Selections from his Works. Edited by GEORGE E. BAKER. 12mo., pp. 410. New York: Redfield.

The works of Mr. Seward, consisting of addresses and orations, executive messages, forensic arguments, and speeches in the Senate of the United States, were previously published in three large octavo volumes. The present work embraces a comprehensive memoir of the life of this distinguished statesman, with selections from the larger work. That publication, it would seem, had increased the demand for an edition in a more reduced and economical form. Whatever difference of opinion may exist in regard to the political views of Mr. Seward, all must, we think, concede to him a high order of ability, and consistency, as a statesman. The volume embraces a great variety of topics under the heads of agriculture, internal improvements, education, Commerce, etc.

33.—*A Boy's Adventures in the Wilds of Australia; or Herbert's Note-Book.* By WM. HOWITT. 18mo., pp. 359. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

This popular English miscellaneous writer has, previous to this publication, produced an interesting book for youthful readers entitled the "Boy's Country Book." This narrative of a boy's adventures and experiences in the Australian bush, we learn from the preface, was written amid the scenes and characters it describes. The book is illustrated prettily, and will undoubtedly afford much enjoyment to the class of readers for which it is designed.