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HUNT'S  
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND  
COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

OCTOBER, 1855.

Art. I.—THE SOUND DUES OF DENMARK:

AND THEIR RELATIONS WITH THE COMMERCE OF THE WORLD.\*

AN inquiry into the history of Sound Dues, much discussed, often disputed, frequently opposed as they have been, imperturbably exacted as they are, will teach a momentous lesson of great powers rendered impotent by splitting their energies, of diplomacy missing its ends through ignorance and levity, and of great advantages, prejudicial to the interests of general Commerce, plucked by a small and feeble country from the quarrels of her powerful but discordant neighbors.

That roads thrown open by nature should not be closed by toll-barriers is a demand as just as it is simple.

The Black Sea has long been open to trade; the Mediterranean navigation is tributary no more to piratical States; the Baltic remains locked up. Denmark, hardly more than a parcel of scattered islands, holds the key in her hand, and ransacks the trade of the world of yearly millions. The

\* The following translation of an article on the Sound Dues of Denmark, published by F. Hessenland, Stettin, Prussia, has been sent us from Washington. It presents the German view of the question in a rather strong and perhaps somewhat exaggerated light. In the *Merchants' Magazine* for March, 1844, (vol. x., pages 218 to 232,) we published an able and interesting paper relating to "The Origin and History of the Danish Sound and Belt Tolls," which was translated from the Danish of J. F. Schlegel for the *Merchants' Magazine* by that accomplished statesman and scholar, the Hon. GEORGE P. MARSH, at that time Representative in Congress, and since United States Minister to Turkey. The translation of Mr. Marsh discussed the sovereignty of Denmark over the adjacent seas and sounds, and the Sound and Belt tolls, gave the ground of the right of toll, the rules according to which toll was anciently exacted and is now imposed, closing with a full reference to the literature of the Sound tolls. It will be seen, by reference to that article and the present, that this question, like most others, has two sides.—*Editor Merchants' Magazine.*

only distinguishing features between the tribute levied at the Sound and the involuntary present exacted by the Emperor of Morocco are the enormity and the regularity of the former.

All the natural entrances to the Baltic Sea—the Sound and the two Belts—are guarded by custom-house officers and fortifications. The whole of the transit, whatever its origin or destination, is there subjected to an assumed right of sovereignty; vain would be any attempt to elude that scourge of the trade. A shot across her hawse reminds the forgetful vessel to lay to and pay; if she disregard that, a ball is presently sent into her hull. The powers that be connive at the sway exercised by the guns of Kronenborg over the Sound, as absolute as when the pirate king Helsing, from his strongholds on both sides of the Sound, did plunder the merchantmen as they passed:—

For why? because the good old rule  
Sufficeth them, the simple plan,  
That they should take that have the power,  
And they should keep who can!

For the last two centuries Denmark has been able to keep but one shore in her possession; this fact, however, has gone for nothing. The peaceable merchantmen, whatever their flag, are forced to pass hard under the guns of the fortress. In the broad channel, varying from a half to three German miles, the vessel might keep out of the range of shot and pass close to the Swedish coast, but free passage is prohibited. Kronenborg is only to be silenced by the language of ordnance. In 1658, the Dutch Admiral Opdam forced the passage with a fleet of thirty-five men of war, and on the 30th March, 1801, Parker and Nelson, with fifty-three sails under their orders, assisted by a fresh north-west wind, passed the straits unscathed close to the Swedish coast.

The Great Belt, an equally natural passage, and accessible to vessels of all sizes—the English and French fleets passed through it but recently—is on its south side guarded by the guns of Nyborg, and those of Fridericia look over the Little Belt.

Unnatural as this state of things really is, Russia, that colossus stretching from the Black Sea to the Baltic, that eternal menace weighing like an incubus upon all hope of progress, protects the Danebrog; Prussia feels too weak to throw off the fetters keeping her Baltic trade in thrall; Austria is silent; the other German States never tire of allowing their Baltic imports and exports to be charged with Danish duties, and even pay a bonification yearly by way of indemnity; Sweden expostulates without avail; England and France have hitherto made light of the yoke; only the United States will worship the idol of bygone times no longer. As early as 1843, Mr. Secretary Upshur declared—the other maritime powers having allowed themselves to be mesmerized by Danish diplomacy—that “Denmark continues to this day without any legal title to levy an exceedingly strange duty on all goods passing the Sound. Denmark cannot lay claim to these duties upon any principle either of nature or of the law of nations, nor from any other reason than that of antiquated custom. It renders no service in consideration of that tax, and has not even such rights as the power to enforce it would give. Great and general is the discontent felt by all nations interested in the Baltic trade on account of that needless and humiliating contribution. For the United States the

time has come when they can appropriately take a decisive step to free their Baltic trade of this pressure."

This strong language created great consternation at Copenhagen; however, the intermediation of Russia succeeded in warding off the dangerous blow; but the United States have now once more opened their trenches against Denmark.

It is time to break in upon the dead silence that has for years overhung the question, and draw the attention of the mercantile and political world towards so generally felt a calamity to trade.

The conventions last entered into in 1841, for the term of ten years, have expired without being renewed; England, Sweden, as Prussia, and all other powers that considered themselves to be bound by the same, are therefore entirely at liberty now, and it is an urgent duty they owe their mercantile communities, to move for and insist upon a thorough reform of the Sound Dues. At the present moment no one can tell which side will carry it in the struggle for political preponderancy; yet assuredly there is no lack of warlike force in the Baltic more than sufficient to dictate laws to Denmark.

What renders the Sound Dues all the more severely felt is the fact that all other highroads between the North Sea and the Baltic, both by land and water, have in like manner been encumbered by Denmark with heavy duties. The Sound Dues are now only part of a system, which acts no less oppressively in the south of the Danish territory than the northern Dardanelles do by arresting the progress of the Baltic trade. Denmark, since the Congress of Vienna in possession of Lauenburg, resists any satisfactory reduction of the dues on the Elbe; the Hamburg-Berlin and Lubeck Railways pay taxes to Denmark, and the transit by land through Holstein is impeded by Danish imposts. The passage of the Sleswig-Holstein Canal is subject to the same tribute that goods and vessels have to pay into the Danish treasury in the Sound and Belts. Denmark, with her tax gatherers, is master of all the gateways between Northern Europe and the ocean.

In times of yore, protection from freebooters and pirates was welcome to the defenseless sailor, and he readily paid convoy-money to the Dane. Afterwards, when light-houses, buoys, and beacons were established to guide the pilot amidst dangerous rocks and shoals, a compensation for the expense and maintenance of such safeguards was willingly granted. But over and above that, to lay the open sea under high contributions of every description, to levy dues and perquisites from ships and goods, exclusively for the benefit of the treasury, and without rendering any counter-benefit—protection is not needed any longer, nor could Denmark afford it, if it were—belongs to times of brute force. Without the leniency and forbearance of the leading powers this impotent nation could not continue a practice nor persevere in a system which have developed themselves from the smallest beginnings to huge dimensions.

It has long ago been ascertained by careful research that the Sound Dues originated in levying a tax on salt and wine, along with a trifling ship-money. Even in this restricted form, the impost led to most vehement conflicts with the mighty Hansa. In 1363 and 1365, her victorious arms subjugated king Waldemar III., and wrung from him exemption from toll "in all time coming." The vow was soon broken, Hanseatic vessels being stopped in the Sound and compelled to pay duty. New victories secured

a confirmation of the grant, which was repeated in 1443, 1477, 1524, and lastly, in the most explicit form, by the recess of Odense, 1560. Between these confirmations, mention is made of manifold vexations, acts of injustice and complaints, which latter Denmark ultimately endeavored to set aside by pretending that "the old title had long since been erased by the mold of time." In order the easier to resist the importunity of the Hanseatic Union, its rivals, the Netherlands, were bribed by special privileges granted to them in the Sound. The Dutch were the first to introduce the Sound toll by conventional obligations into the politics and the law of nations. They did so in 1544, by the treaty of Spire, in which they agreed to pay "the ancient duty." Dubious though it was, that obligation was used by the Danes as a pretext for annoyances and molestations of every kind. Higher duties having been imposed in 1548, a remonstrance on this ground met with the unblushing reply "that the king, as an independent sovereign, could raise them at his good pleasure," and Denmark made use of the power it then had to confer privileges and deny them; it distinguished in the Sound between privileged and unprivileged nations. The English, Scotch, French, and Portuguese were of the latter class; they paid, according to a tariff of 1558, a rosenoble (about 19 shillings) on each vessel, and upon all goods 1 per cent of the value, excepting wine, which had to pay  $3\frac{1}{3}$  per cent.

The per centage paid by privileged nations in the present day is considerably above that exacted from the unprivileged three hundred years ago.

The privileged, *i. e.*, the Netherlands and the Hanseatic towns, tendered six casks out of each cargo of salt, in compensation for which they received one gold florin, and they moreover paid duty on Rhenish and strong wines. With these limitations, ships and goods of the six Vandal Hanse Towns—Lubeck, Hamburg, Rostock, Stralsund, Wismar, Luneburg—were perfectly free from taxation; foreign goods in their bottoms paid one to three rosenobles. The eastern Hanse Towns—Dantzic, Königsberg, Riga, Revel, Pernau, Stettin, Greifswald, Wolgast, Elbing, Colberg—paid on their own goods two rosenobles. The Netherlands and the western Hanseatics paid one to two rosenobles, according as the vessel was loaded or in ballast. Amsterdam enjoyed exemption from duty even for wine.

Not long after this time, the maritime preponderancy still maintained in the north by the Hanse began to decline, and by the treaty concluded in 1560 at Odense, with the "worshipful Hanse Towns," fresh advantages were insured to Denmark. True enough those towns retained their freedom of duty in the abstract, but copper was added to the list of exceptions; they had to submit to primage and tonnage dues, and to carry passports and certificates on the cargo, or to pay a fine of one rosenoble. In 1563, the war with Sweden afforded a welcome pretext for an important increase of the dues, which, in spite of treaties, was extended to the Hanseatics and the Dutch. The peace of Stettin, in 1570, had recognized the exemption from duty retained by Sweden ever since the dissolution of the Calmar Union. But treaties on this ground have ever proved illusory. The duties varied at the pleasure of Denmark; tax upon tax was added; vessels were searched and placed under embargo. Christian IV. went so far as to prohibit the passage of all goods through the Sound, or only to allow it by special permission and in consideration of perfectly extravagant taxes fixed beforehand. These foolish measures brought about an alliance of the Netherlands and Sweden; in the war which ensued the former sup-

ported Sweden by sending a fleet before Copenhagen in 1643. This took effect; negotiations were opened, and both powers insisted upon free and unimpeded navigation of the open sea for all nations, and repudiated the pretensions which would make a Danish canal of the Sound. The successful Swedish generals—Torstenson, Horn, Wrangel, Konigsmark—had humbled Denmark; that able diplomatist, Chancellor Oxenstierna, obtained for Sweden by the peace of Bromsebroe, 13th August, 1645, new provinces and total exemption from both Sound Dues and subsidiary taxes for all her goods and the whole of her dominions, of which the Duchy of Pomerania then formed part. Stettin was represented in these negotiations by a special delegate. The treaties of peace at Roeskilde, in 1657, and at Copenhagen, in 1660, confirmed this immunity, and gave one shore of the straits of the Sound to Sweden. This territorial change necessarily involved for Denmark the loss of her most essential title to a right of sovereignty over the Sound.

Against the States General, France had, in 1645, lent her aid to Denmark; after the Danish government had fraudulently obtained information of private instructions empowering the Dutch ambassadors to give way in the end, the States were obliged to comply with a specified tariff fixed by the treaty of Christianople, likewise concluded on the 13th August, 1645, but they have never acknowledged the right to levy duties as claimed by Denmark, nor indeed has such right met with recognition from any power to the present day.

Danish cunning and bad faith soon rose to the surface again. The concluding clause of the tariff of Christianople says:—"And all cargoes not specified in the preceding list are to be calculated according to mercantile usage and the custom that has been observed in olden times and ever since."

This clause, construed after the Danish fashion, afforded a plausible pretext for unrestrainedly charging much more than 1 per cent upon goods not named in the tariff, and gave rise to the fiction, directly opposed to the treaty of Christianople, of an unlimited liability to duty of all unspecified goods. According to the rules of rational interpretation the word "calculated" cannot mean "taxed," but must be rendered by "reduced," referring, as it undoubtedly does, to the system adopted by the treaty of Christianople, of reducing to one uniform rate of weight and measure all the different modes of determining quantity current in the commercial world. That, with the exception of wine and salt, which were chargeable at the rate of from  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to  $5\frac{1}{3}$  per cent, on no one article should the duty be allowed to exceed 1 per cent, was a rule as positively laid down by the old tariffs as by that of Christianople itself; the majority of enumerated articles were even charged less than 1 per cent. Next, it had been omitted in framing the treaty of Christianople to bind Denmark to maintain light-houses and the like. This manifest oversight was visited home by Christian IV., who had the light-houses, beacons, and buoys removed, and did not allow the dark coast to be lighted up again until fresh imposts had been agreed to.

On the basis of the Christianople treaty, France, in acknowledgement of her assistance, was, in 1645, placed on the same footing with the Netherlands. So was Great Britain in 1654. They were raised to the rank of privileged nations. To the same effect, most nations have subsequently

concluded treaties of Commerce with Denmark, all of which are founded on the treaty of Christianople.

An experiment was made on the part of Holland, in 1649, to pay 350,000 florins annually in compensation for Sound Dues, but this plan was abandoned in 1653. A subsequent treaty of 15th June, 1701, providing, among other things, that unspecified goods are not to be charged with more than 1 per cent of the value at the shipping-port, has never become obsolete, and is referred to as still in force in the convention of 1841.

Sweden entirely lost her exemption from duty on the 3d June, 1720. The great northern war, whilst it made Charles XII. immortal, ruined his kingdom to such a degree that after twenty years of almost uninterrupted warfare the exhausted country, for being allowed to retain her Swedish territorial possessions, had to give up the emancipation from Sound Dues she had won for herself in 1645. Stralsund, Greifswald, and Wolgast, which places had been occupied by the Danes, but were again surrendered to Sweden, had to adopt that country's renunciation of 1720 as their own. All the rest of the Baltic ports, now in the possession of Prussia, could not possibly be affected by that renunciation. As members of the Hansa they were supported by the convention of Odense, 1560, which had since been specially confirmed, to Danzig, Königsberg, Elbing, and Memel, in 1569, to others at different times. Stettin, which deserves our attention of all others, is named as contracting party by the treaty itself. Some of those ports had been transferred by the Westphalian peace to Prussia, and retained all the immunities conferred by the peace of Bromsebroe, 1645, fifteen years after the dissolution of the Hanseatic Union; such were Colberg, Rügenwalde, Stolpe, Cammin, Treptow; others, as Stettin, Anclam, Demmin, Wollin, Golnow, continued possessed of all their old liberties and privileges, secured to them in 1560 and 1645, when they joined Prussia at the separate peace concluded by that power with Sweden on the 21st January, 1720, anterior to the peace between Sweden and Denmark, and consequently before the renunciation of Sweden.

We now come to a characteristic episode. Pending the war, Prussia and Denmark agreed at Stettin on a partition of the German provinces of Sweden then occupied by their troops, (30th May, 1715.) Denmark insures to the ports of Lower Pomerania (Stettin, etc.) the freedom from duty in the Sound and Belts "now and in future;" a few months after (18th December, 1715,) a treaty at Stralsund suddenly cancels that concession. "The subjects in Lower Pomerania," it says, "are liable to duty." The history of that treaty is curious enough. To prevent differences that might arise in reference to the recently acquired possessions, it was proposed to settle fiscal and commercial regulations in the camp. The Prussians, above all the Minister v. Ilgen, vigorously insisted on the old rights which Denmark tried to abrogate by sophistical clauses. The Danish diplomatists found means of removing the minister out of the way; king Frederic William I. was, without his advisers, invited to a banquet, and after dinner his courtiers, in the pay of Denmark, produced the Stralsund treaty for signature. It was signed—

ISOLANI: Sign? anything you like!

Only don't trouble me to read.

In vain the king, on the 3d December, 1716, claimed what was due to

him by the treaty of Odense, "all of which," he says, "I have the best right in the world to pretend to." Danish politicians, full of mental reservations and claptraps, were not to be diverted from their aim by words. Even when shortly after, in the above-mentioned separate peace, Prussia had obtained from Sweden Lower Pomerania, on payment of two millions of dollars, and both powers had mutually guaranteed their privileges in the Sound, and when by that peace the Stralsund treaty, having for its object a partition of Pomerania between Denmark and Prussia, had become absolutely nugatory, Denmark persisted in the refusal to recognize the old Sound toll immunities. In the same arbitrary manner as Danzig, Königsberg, etc., had been subjected to duty as early as the end of the 17th century, the Stralsund treaty was extended to and enforced against all Prussian ports, without distinction as to whether they had been annexed before or after the northern war. This was done after the Danish fashion, by degrees, according as circumstances served, receding before superior force, at the first favorable opportunity returning to the aggression, aided by the inattention, ignorance, or inanity of the adversary. Only once a reaction took place. Frederick the Great ordered his ambassador at Copenhagen, von Bismark, to show more energy in supporting the reclamations untiringly renewed by Stettin. Denmark replied that the Sound Dues were the costliest jewel in her crown—the apple of her eye; that the notions for abrogation gave only trouble and vexation. She threatened to call upon England and France for assistance; whereupon Frederick wrote to his ambassador:—"Vous ferez entendre, que si l'on ne voulait pas faire attention à mes représentations, je me verrai obligé à des représailles."

For a short time this language may have intimidated. As late as 1729 the Prussian ports did not pay duty according to the tariff of Christianople; now and then the old rights were respected, and two small ports, Cammin and Colberg, have been to this day essentially treated in conformity with the convention of Odense, which indeed cannot be proved to have been abrogated in respect to any of the places concerned in it. Nevertheless the Christianople tariff has ever since 1803 been enforced against all the rest, because it suited Denmark's convenience to do so. Futile interpretations, specious statements, and spurious facts were employed to make the tariff as productive as possible, to introduce abuses, and to domineer at pleasure over Baltic trade and navigation. The treaties of 1814 had given to Prussia possession of the remaining Swedish dominions in Germany. The Vienna Congress ought to have been eagerly taken advantage of by Prussia to rid her Baltic coast of the contribution; instead of doing so, she there took preparatory steps towards a treaty of Commerce with Denmark, which was signed on the 17th June, 1818, and, for diplomatic incapacity and weakness, leaves everything else far behind that has hitherto attracted our notice in reference to our subject. Instead of advisedly and energetically defending and reclaiming the clear primeval rights, the Prussian plenipotentiary, Count Dohna, abandoned them each and all, subjected, without so much as asking for advice from mercantile quarters, the Prussian ports to the tariff of 1645, which was not even produced for inspection, and was perfectly satisfied with himself for having obtained insertion of a clause to the effect that goods not enumerated in the tariff were not to be taxed with more than 1 per cent. Such a model of courtesy was this diplomatist, as to give his consent to a secret article which, while it continued the privileges of Cammin and Colberg, poor

relics of the rights of all, exclusively deduced the title of those ports from custom and Danish complaisance.

Denmark retained undisturbed possession of the Sound Dues—"her gold mine"—and lost no opportunity to improve its productiveness. She exceeded and violated the tariff as unscrupulously and arbitrarily as if there had been no such thing as a binding word or promise. One should think the extraordinary metamorphosis all commercial relations have undergone in the course of two hundred years, the increase of shipping and trade to thirty or forty times the extent both had in the middle of the seventeenth century, the important changes in prices of all commodities, would have naturally led to a corresponding reduction of the tariff; instead of that the dues were levied arbitrarily and without reference to any leading or published principle. Complaints and reclamations remained unheard. It was proved that the tariff had been most shamefully exceeded, and the subsidiary dues most immoderately raised, the former by 4 to 5 per cent and upwards, the latter to from 30 to 48 dollars for the ship instead of 6. Stettin alone had to pay too much—from 1827 to 1834, 40,000 dollars annually; 1835, 67,000 dollars; 1836 to 1838, 70,000 dollars annually—dues far exceeding 1 per cent having been charged upon more than 160 articles. Taking only six of these—coffee, rum and arrack, raw sugars, spelter, and spirits—493,301 dollars too much had, in the twenty years from 1819 to 1839, been abstracted from the pockets of Stettin merchants.

THE CONVENTION OF 1841. The Prussian treaty of 1818 had been concluded for a term of twenty years. When they had expired in 1838 the commercial communities of all the Prussian ports urged with renewed energy the removal "of the old sloth of obsolete Sound Dues," and entered their protest against the lamentable violations of the law even as it had been laid down by the treaty of 1818. The most careful examination was petitioned for, and an order from the royal closet, 5th June, 1838, was graciously pleased to promise redress. Touching letters, however, which king Frederick VI. wrote with his own hand to king Frederick William III., convinced his Prussian majesty that the question of the Sound Dues was a mere personal affair between him and his royal brother, and had nothing whatever to do, as everybody else thought, with the interests of trade. It is true that the Prussian ministry, in their reports to the king, made it perfectly clear that the Sound Dues did interfere with the export trade of Prussia and the countries in her rear, and that they likewise raised the prices of colonial and other foreign produce to the Prussian consumer, manufacturer, and merchant. Steps were even taken to enter upon negotiations; the co-operation of Sweden was secured. Denmark, however, easily succeeded in protracting and defeating those negotiations, and refused to allow well-informed members of the Stettin Chamber of Commerce to take part in them, for fear of compromising her dignity. At last, in 1841, the Commercial Corporation of Hull, stimulated by Sweden, brought a motion before Parliament to desire such a revision of the dues as was necessary to disburden the Baltic trade of England. "Had the administration of 1814," said Mr. Hutt, "paid but the slightest regard to the great importance of our trade with the North of Europe, it could never have countenanced pretensions so antiquated and prejudicial as those raised by the king of Denmark to the effect of throwing obstacles into the way of free ingress to and egress from the Baltic. The Sound Dues

are an institution diametrically opposed to every acknowledged principle of international law, and to all the usages of the civilized world; a direct violation of those wise maxims that ought to regulate the intercourse of nations, and prejudicial to the best interests of our Commerce."

Sir Robert Peel warmly supported the motion, and regarded the Parliamentary debate in the light of an effective demonstration with a view to the conversion of Denmark. The foreign Secretary, Lord Palmerston, also gave his full consent to the motion, and referred to the negotiations already in progress. Upon the latter, Denmark had readily entered, true to her principle—divide and rule. They had been opened by Sweden, and taken up by England. Prussia was entreated by Denmark to keep aloof from them, a separate agreement being held out to her, which should pay due regard to all Prussian grievances. The hoax succeeded as completely as could be desired. England was silenced by certain reductions, principally on manufactured goods; the complaints of Sweden were got rid of by increasing the amount Denmark yearly paid to Sweden towards the support of certain light-houses. On the 23d August, 1841, Denmark concluded a convention at London and Elsinore with England and Sweden, by which, as by nearly all her former treaties, she has lost nothing and gained much. After the convention had been ratified, Russia, who ostensibly at least had had no hand in the negotiations, hastened to accept it formally and expressly—which, from her already existing privileged position, was not at all necessary—and the Director of the Sound Dues was decorated with a Russian order set in diamonds. Prussia, however, was dismissed with being given to understand that the question had been settled by the said treaty. In the Baltic ports apprehensions were felt lest Prussia should simply adhere to the Anglo-Swedish conventions, without carrying the necessary thorough reform, but the Minister of Finance, v. Alvensleben, assured them that their commercial interests would be carefully attended to. Competent persons from Stettin were called to Berlin. They moved for a total abolition of the Sound Dues, either by capitalizing them or paying them off by aversional sums. In case neither were feasible, they proposed to have the tariff entirely repealed, an uniform duty of one-half per cent established in its stead, and such duty to be levied for Danish account in the Baltic ports, and according to the value shown by bills of lading and invoices. Any tariff, they said, was dangerous in Danish hands; the new convention was already misconstrued, and did charge most articles of import at the rate of 2 per cent; a number of specified and unspecified articles had been estimated at more than their value. It was downright nonsense to retain a tariff framed two hundred years ago. Denmark, however, was supported by Russia, and, when Prussia became more pressing again, began to play a different game, placing it at the option of Prussia to adopt the convention of 1841 provisionally, and declaring her readiness to negotiate on the capitalization of the duty, which object, however, she took good care to defeat by underhand operations. This cannot be called a misfortune; it is clear that rather than indemnify Denmark by payment of an amount of nearly forty millions of dollars, quite different means ought to be resorted to. But so far Prussia had again been discomfited in carrying out her good intentions. Demonstrations through the officious press met with a haughty answer from Denmark on the same ground; besides, the Danish government, through the medium of the French ambassador at Copenhagen, published an attack on Prussia

in the *Journal des Debats*, where the remonstrances of the fifth power were called unseasonable and impolitic "in the name of all the European cabinets."

The negotiations had, on the part of Prussia, been conducted with thorough knowledge of the subject and steady perseverance; they were defeated by the tough, unconquerable resistance of Denmark, and were suspended in 1815, the treaty of 1818 being tacitly acknowledged. "Prussia," as her government stated at the time, "aimed at buying off the duty in order to get rid of the pressure upon trade exercised at the very gates of the Baltic by a form of taxation so entirely exceptional and at variance with the spirit of the age. Having failed in that object, the government will have to regard as their next duty to the country, to promote an alleviation of the burden by every means within their reach. Denmark has, as far as the question at issue is concerned, been always swayed by a short-sighted policy, and paid attention only to her nearest and most palpable interests. Anxious but about one thing, viz.: to keep up the favorable state of her finances, however arbitrary and illegal her system of taxation, she has always obstinately defended it up to the very moment when she could not but perceive opposition had grown to an intensity which would render further resistance impossible and even dangerous to the conservation of the right itself. It has only been in such moments of jeopardy, and face to face with superior force, that Denmark has consented to sacrifice just as much of her system of taxation as appeared absolutely necessary, according to time and circumstances, in order to preserve the whole from immediate destruction. Such is the history of all negotiations in reference to Sound Dues, from the treaties of Odense and Christianople down to the present day. To the higher point of view, that the Sound Dues are a diseased spot on her body, and will, in our times, continue the object of unceasing attacks, Denmark has never been accessible. Public opinion is unanimous in condemning the convention of 1841 as a half measure, unsatisfactory in every respect. Not content with making Denmark that important concession of allowing the antiquated tariff of Christianople to continue in force, it has, moreover, entirely frustrated the anticipation of a better state of things, and neither in theory nor practice has it been founded upon any principle. Not even the reduction to 1 per cent of all the duties on non-enumerated articles has been carried; several of the foremost articles of importation, raw sugars, salt from some countries, pig-iron, etc., continue to be charged at higher and partially exorbitant rates; the reform, so often and urgently asked for, of the oppressive and arbitrary system of perquisites, has not only been completely waived, but there has even been given a formal recognition of the legality of the present mode to levy perquisites, although decidedly contrary to all treaties; in like manner, shipmasters have been formally saddled with the obligation of personally appearing before the Chamber of Sound Dues to clear their vessels, an obligation founded upon no treaty; besides, Denmark has been allowed to increase light and beacon money by 12½ per cent, and nothing has been done towards a fair settlement of boat-hire and pilotage. Denmark has tried, with her notorious sophistry, to make the result appear less unsatisfactory than it is, and she indulges in the illusion to fancy the revenue from the Sound Dues a possession she will be allowed quietly to enjoy. At the same time when she repeatedly protested her readiness to negotiate on the capitalization, she has found means, by rais-

ing every kind of obstacle, to elude even the proposal of annual aversional payments, and she seems to expect offers so generous to spring into reality by the favor of casual circumstances, and as it were of their own accord. When such is the state of matters, any time will serve for representing to Denmark the absolute necessity of going to work in reforming her present faulty system, and there can be not the slightest doubt that Denmark will never yield to the persuasion of an enlightened and far-seeing policy, but only to the compulsory force of external circumstances and hard facts."

If this language had induced the commercial public of Prussia to indulge in any sanguine expectations, the government soon entirely disappointed them by renewing the treaty of Commerce instead of dissolving it. Russia had demanded and obtained some paltry reductions in the tariff for cotton, raw sugar, and spirits. They were graciously extended to the Prussian flag—a matter of course by the treaty of 1818—and Denmark not only escaped from having this treaty thrown up, but by the fourth article of the convention of 26th May, 1846, acquired also the adhesion of Prussia to that of 1841, in consideration of the promise, unnecessary to be mentioned, that all reductions of the tariff of 1841, and all and every privileges or advantages of whatsoever kind, heretofore or henceforth granted or to be granted to any other nation, were *ipso facto* and by right equally to refer to Prussian subjects. By an order of the Prussian Minister of Finance, dated 17th June, 1846, the pregnant concession was moreover made to Denmark, that Prussian cargoes were to be furnished with officially attested declarations.

To lessen the burden as far as it weighs upon the Commerce of Prussia, that country has long made, and is still making, considerable sacrifices out of her own treasury. The fees of her consul at Elsinore were reduced in 1845, that the foreign exaction might be less severely felt. Already, since 1825, a discount of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent had been allowed to Stettin on the import, export, or transit duties for all goods passing the Sound to or from that port. This bonification from the pockets of the generality of taxpayers was extended in 1845 to all Baltic ports. Within the five years from 1849 to 1853 the discount amounted to 407,799 dollars, which, computed for the thirty years since 1835, would make up a sum of several millions, paid in order that Denmark might not be disturbed in filling "her gold mine." The discount, however, falls far short of being an indemnification, for the Sound Dues amount to from 6 to 8 per cent of the import duty of the Zollverein, consequently at least  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent are not covered by the former; on transit goods the discount is hardly worth naming, transit and export duties being insignificant in proportion to Sound Dues. Owing to this circumstance many British goods are now forwarded to Poland via Hamburg by rail, which would otherwise have gone via Danzig, as the higher charges of railway transport are all but balanced by the saving of Sound Dues and of interest. In general, any reduction of the duties of the Zollverein must of course have the effect of placing the Baltic ports at a further disadvantage, the discount being then reduced in proportion, while the Sound Dues remain the same.

THE EXPIRATION OF THE CONVENTIONS OF 1841 AND 1846. Both agreements have expired on the 1st July, 1851. Every government has it in its power to give notice that it does not intend to be bound by the treaty any longer; from the date of such notice being given the convention of

1841 remains in force for a twelvemonth, that with Prussia of 1846 for half that period only.

From the Prussian Baltic ports, as well as in Sweden, reclamations were vigorously renewed both before and after the conventions in question had expired. The prostration of trade, the difficulty of competition with the Elbe and the railways, was dwelt upon at great length by the Stettin merchants, who flattered themselves with the hope that the conferences held at Dresden in 1851 would do away with the oppressive and vexatious burden. The deputies of the Society of Wholesale Dealers and Shipowners at Stockholm complained of fresh violations of treaty in levying the nonsensical and offensive tribute, called to mind the old franchise, the significant circumstance that Denmark was only possessed of one shore of the Sound, and the readiness of Sweden to keep at hand an auxiliary corps in order to save the Danish monarchy, when its existence seemed to be at an emergency during the last crisis. The equipment of that corps has put Sweden to an expense of two millions of dollars banco, as all Swedish ratepayers will have cause to remember for six years to come. Such aid having been given, the continuance of a Danish tax on Swedish trade for the passage of the Sound close to the Swedish shore appears doubly onerous and humiliating. By a fiction of the convention of 1841, a line is drawn from the flag-battery at Kronenborg to the north end of Helsingborg on the Swedish side; in consequence thereof it happens every day that in contradiction with common sense the cabotage between two Swedish ports on different sides of the imaginary line is made to pay Sound Dues at Elsinore.

In the yearly reports of the commercial corporations of Stettin and Danzig to the Prussian ministry, the Sound Dues, as an obstacle occupying the first rank, as a never-healing wound of Baltic trade, as an unsupportable burden on the open sea, as a "canker in the flesh," form the never-ending theme of complaint. The replies of the Ministers of Commerce endeavor to hold out future comfort. On the 19th August, 1841, the corporations were told, the petition for throwing up the convention of 1846, or securing a reduction of such articles as were paying more than 1 per cent, had been carefully examined, but that the conviction had resulted that, under existing circumstances, negotiations would have no chance of success, and that consequently the idea had been abandoned for the time being. On the 21st June, 1852, they were informed that it was unfeasible to take the whole of the Sound Dues upon the general budget; again, on the 24th September, 1853, that the government would not be remiss in trying to bring about a reduction of the Sound Dues, the moment a favorable opportunity should turn up. We wonder if this opportunity has drawn nearer in consequence of the offensive and defensive alliance formed between Austria and Prussia on the 20th April, for the exclusive protection of German interests. The mercantile world looks forward with greater confidence to the transatlantic "pressure from without," which promises to be effective.

It would be a strange delusion to fancy that the state of things in the Sound and Belts had become more regular and rational in the course of the last twelve years. While the nucleus of the matter remains intact, while the tariff of Christianople, for hundreds of years the source of unceasing complaints, continues, in spite of its tottering old age, to be forced upon the youthful life of trade, the matter can never be allowed to rest.

The ridicule of the whole affair is best shown by comparison. Fancy, for instance, import duties to be levied to-day according to valuations from custom-rolls of the 17th century! What was originally 1 per cent has, in the course of time, become 4 to 12, even 16 per cent; salt, among others, pays according to the place of origin 8 to 16 per cent; cotton and twist, 3 to 4 per cent; wine, 5 to 10; tobacco, 6; rice, 4; molasses, 3; raisins, 7; currants, 2½; pepper and ginger, 4½; cloves, alum, saltpeter, 3 to 5; dyewood, 1½; spelter, 1½; herrings, 2; Swedish rod-iron, 1½ per cent. Steel, planks, and lathwood are free of export duty in Sweden, but pay 3½ per cent on passing the Sound. As regards non-enumerated articles, the convention of 1841 expressly fixes the maximum duty at 1 per cent. Important articles, as raw sugar and coffee, pay in fact 2 per cent; plums, 2 per cent; spices, 5 to 7; cacao, 2½; potato-starch, 2; whisky from potatoes, 5 to 6; sulphur, 3½; pimento, 3½; brown rosin, 5; pig-iron, 5 per cent. "Custom, established in time immemorial," takes precedence of treaties at Elsinore. Seeds, ship-biscuit, salt-meat, wool, rags, grain, and timber pay likewise heavy dues.

The ship-money towards supporting lightfires and beacons has been raised for laden vessels from 4 to 4½ thalers specie, and for vessels in ballast from 2 to 2½, contrary to the treaty of 1701. By the ship-money from vessels passing the Sound and Belts, Denmark not only covers the expenses for fires and beacons there, and the yearly indemnity to Sweden for some fires maintained by the latter, but also the costs of all similar institutions at all other coasts and ports of the country, and she moreover realizes an annual net profit of 50,000 dollars, which rises to 14,000 dollars if the dues from ships entering her ports are added. Besides, the levying of similar dues in the open sea is without example in the civilized world. At the coasts of England, France, Spain, and other countries, in the Channel, the Straits of Gibraltar, Messina, the Dardanelles, everywhere are to be found lights, generally better maintained than the Danish, for protecting the sailor; nowhere the vessel sailing past them has to pay any duty. It is a commandment of political ethics that countries whose territories are bounded by the sea should take the first and simplest measures for preventing loss of life. The dues are justified only in reference to vessels entering the ports.

Still more unnatural and unjust, if possible, are the perquisites. After the goods have paid Sound Dues, the vessel ship-money, the Danish officers must be paid by the owners of both for gathering those taxes of them. The perquisites have since 1841 been increased by 1 specie, or 1½ dollar, besides 1 specie 6 stivers to the inspector, and to the persons doing the translations 32 stivers for 1 to 4 bills of lading or 1 to 8 cockets, and 4 stivers for each bill of lading or cocket in addition. Ships in ballast or with coals pay 12 stivers (about 13 pence.) As arbitrary as the raising of the perquisites against the treaty of 1701, is a proviso according to which fees of 2½ and 1 specie are levied from vessels bound for Copenhagen, and which sail thither without stopping to clear at Elsinore, but send their papers to the latter place from Copenhagen; as also from vessels whose papers are handed in by others than the master, the mate, or the supercargo.

The same observation refers to the money for the poor's box—1 specie for clearing a vessel on Sundays and holidays, or out of business hours. From this conglomeration of fees the custom-house officers at Elsinore are

paid incredibly liberal wages; still it leaves a surplus that goes into the public treasury. The director of the chamber of Sound Dues, a sinecure, had in 1850 a salary of 15,960 dollars; the clerks of the chamber, likewise sinecures, had from 4,000 to 8,000 each; the cashier, 6,570; the inspector, the translator, the passport-clerk, the clerk of the stamp-office, the runners and messengers, the crew of the guard-ship, were all salaried proportionately.

The sum total of the perquisites amounts to about 160,000 dollars annually. From the savings out of them a capital had accumulated up to 1852, of 247,151 dollars. Perfectly exorbitant and a real extortion are the taxes of boatmen and pilots at Elsinore. The shipmaster is obliged to lay to there, throw anchor in the open sea, and repair immediately to the chamber of Sound Dues. His vessel being generally feebly manned, he has to take a ferryboat. The difficulty and the dangers of the navigable channel force him to hire a pilot. For the ferryboat, which generally takes him only a few hundred yards, he has to pay 7 to 19 dollars, according to the weather and the season; by night, 9 to 22 dollars. In stormy weather and drifting ice, the boatman may make any charge he likes—sometimes 30 to 35 dollars; in quiet weather, he will gain with ease in one day 40 to 60 dollars. The pilot, though he should have been on board only 24 hours, gets, for a vessel of medium size—drawing 15 feet—in summer 36½, in winter 47 dollars; for every foot beyond 16, 2 dollars 68 shillings more. A pilot at the Sound is a money-making man.

The light dues, perquisites, boat, and pilot hires fall to the charge of shipowners; besides the delay at and near Elsinore, the clearing out and the paying of the dues cost them enormous sums. The necessity for stopping tempts the shipmaster into numerous expenses, into purchasing ship stores and other articles, which it is not in the power of the shipowner to control. Even without these evil consequences, the delay occasioned by the compulsory clearing at Elsinore would be bad enough; every one acquainted with trade knows how much the chances of a speculation depend upon the speedy arrival of a cargo at the port of destination. The wind may change while a vessel is at anchor, or she may arrive in the roads after 10 o'clock P. M., in which case she loses the whole night, no custom-house officer being on the spot before 4 o'clock in the morning. By a present of 4 per cent of the duty, which is tendered by the name of "Forung," for correct declaration, the shipmasters are silyly bribed over to the Danish interest.

The remark in the convention of 1841, that the "Forung" is to cover the expenses, is illusory, the expenses being much higher. Fresh expenses are entailed by the clearing-houses at Elsinore, indispensable to captains, as they are not allowed to pay the dues themselves. The agents charge 2 to 3½ per cent commission for paying the duty, and 8 species, or 12 dollars—sometimes even more—for clearing the vessel; if money has to be taken on bottomry, the charge is 10 per cent. They yearly make upwards of 200,000 dollars Prussian currency, leaving out the profits they realize on the exchange. That sum enriches about 20 commercial firms. In 1850 the deputies of the Stockholm society of wholesale dealers and ship-owners computed the charges to Swedish shipowners at Elsinore at 150,000 Prussian dollars yearly; the dues upon goods at about as much. Danzig alone pays on the average, annually, 120,000; Stettin, upwards of 130,000 dollars for Sound Dues, of which 4,000 to 11,000 dollars are

sometimes paid by one single firm. The Stettin shipowners pay 27,000 dollars annually, under the heads of light dues, pilotage, fees, commission, clearing charges, and postages.

These details will be sufficient to show why Denmark has a right to call the income from the Sound Dues a jewel in her crown. Owing to the extraordinary increase of trade in general and the steady development of commercial enterprise in Prussia and Russia, and of the share both countries have in the Commerce of the world, the Danish gold mine improves in fertility from year to year. Even such reductions as are wrung from Denmark from time to time and by hard pressure, regularly result in the further advantage and profit of her treasury. The interests of trade in the Baltic ports, and in England, Holland, Belgium, France, and the United States are conflicting in a most singular manner. With a high tariff, trade suffers; any reduction makes the Danish taxation grow up, polyp-like, to prodigious dimensions, and renders competition with other routes still more difficult.

At the beginning of the 18th century the number of vessels passing the Sound and Belts in one year was:—

|           |        |           |        |
|-----------|--------|-----------|--------|
| 1770..... | 7,736  | 1840..... | 15,662 |
| 1800..... | 10,221 | 1850..... | 19,919 |
| 1830..... | 13,212 | 1853..... | 21,586 |

Looking at the flags as specified in the official lists for 1849 to 1853, it appears that the increase is owing to a progression in the shipping of Norway, Prussia, Russia, Denmark, Mecklenburg, and Lubeck. The great demand for the produce of the Baltic countries, and the tide of increasing traffic setting in from other quarters of the world, especially California and Australia, have caused that increase in spite of the Sound Dues. Holland and France have made no progress in the numbers of their shipping passing the Sound; the United States have made backward steps; but, of all others, England has lost most. In 1849 the number of British vessels passing the Sound exceeded that in 1853 by 2,220, and that in 1852 even by 2,953.

THE FOLLOWING VESSELS PASSED THE SOUND:—

|                  | 1849.  | 1850.  | 1851.  | 1852.  | 1853.  |
|------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| English.....     | 6,885  | 5,448  | 4,811  | 3,902  | 4,665  |
| Norwegian.....   | 2,877  | 2,553  | 2,894  | 3,020  | 3,393  |
| Swedish.....     | 2,191  | 1,982  | 2,255  | 2,100  | 2,007  |
| Dutch.....       | 1,960  | 1,906  | 2,060  | 1,691  | 1,875  |
| Prussian.....    | 1,361  | 2,391  | 2,664  | 2,319  | 3,487  |
| Russian.....     | 1,200  | 1,138  | 1,047  | 946    | 1,202  |
| Danish.....      | 1,154  | 1,266  | 1,518  | 1,464  | 2,095  |
| French.....      | 364    | 314    | 288    | 283    | 345    |
| Mecklenburg..... | 337    | 1,031  | 1,077  | 771    | 1,103  |
| Hanoverian.....  | 308    | 429    | 661    | 555    | 743    |
| American.....    | 121    | 106    | 135    | 76     | 96     |
| Oldenburg.....   | 74     | 208    | 222    | 183    | 230    |
| Italian.....     | 56     | 62     | 43     | 48     | 50     |
| Lubeck.....      | 40     | 102    | 125    | 136    | 139    |
| Belgian.....     | 13     | 4      | 7      | 2      | 22     |
| Hamburg.....     | 7      | 39     | 77     | 46     | 73     |
| Bremen.....      | 7      | 34     | 33     | 22     | 36     |
| Spanish.....     | 2      | 2      | ..     | 6      | 4      |
| Portuguese.....  | 2      | 3      | ..     | 2      | 18     |
| Austrian.....    | ..     | ..     | 2      | ..     | ..     |
|                  | 18,959 | 19,070 | 19,919 | 17,563 | 21,586 |

Of the 21,586 vessels in 1853, 10,526 came with cargoes from the North Sea; 7,716 from the Baltic; 2,344 were in ballast. 2,000 to 3,000 vessels passed the Belts annually.

Russian commercial policy, Danish taxation and unavoidable molestations of shipowners, have scared away the British flag from a territory on which in 1849 it still took precedence. The declared value of British produce shipped direct to Russia is estimated—

|           |            |           |            |
|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| 1849..... | £1,379,179 | 1851..... | £1,157,543 |
| 1850..... | 1,279,650  | 1852..... | 994,330    |

We wonder if the British negotiators of 1841 have met with thanks for raising the subsidiary taxes and for superficially revising the tariff; we even doubt it. The United States are laying greater stress upon the decrease of their Baltic shipping trade.

The income from the Sound Dues, on the average, runs upon the same scale with the number of ships. In 1756 the Danish treasury received 200,000 dollars; 1770, 450,890; 1820, 1,500,000 dollars. The year 1853, compared to 1756, shows a more than thirteenfold increase; the receipts amounted to 2,530,000 dollars. The insufficient reduction of 1841 had left no trace in 1844. The revenue from 2,258,000, rapidly rose to 2,432,000 dollars. In the budget of 1847 the receipts, owing to the reductions of May, 1846, had been estimated at 1,832,000 dollars only—they actually amounted to 699,000 dollars more, having risen to 2,531,000 dollars.

A return for the 24 years ending 1853, shows the revenue from Sound Dues, rosenobles, light dues, and fees at the Oeresound and the Belts to have amounted to 54,000,000 dollars; upon the average, 2,250,000 dollars yearly; besides, the extra charges to agents, boatmen, pilots, and for postages amount to at least 800,000 dollars annually; 12 millions more must therefore be added to the above 54 millions. The discount paid by the Prussian exchequer indirectly forms a further item of about 2 millions. At the end of another period of 24 years, the colossal sum will have been doubled. The monster grows the more food it has thrown into its fangs, to more and more gigantic proportions.

THE SOUND DUES, THE FIRE MONEY, AND THE FEES HAVE BROUGHT—

|           | *Rixdalers. |           | Rixdalers. |
|-----------|-------------|-----------|------------|
| 1831..... | 1,966,000   | 1843..... | 2,294,000  |
| 1832..... | 2,210,000   | 1844..... | 2,432,000  |
| 1833..... | 2,090,000   | 1845..... | 2,361,000  |
| 1834..... | 1,890,000   | 1846..... | 2,160,900  |
| 1835..... | 1,910,000   | 1847..... | 2,531,000  |
| 1836..... | 2,087,000   | 1848..... | 2,250,000  |
| 1837..... | 2,203,000   | 1849..... | 2,150,000  |
| 1838..... | 2,326,000   | 1850..... | 2,400,000  |
| 1839..... | 2,417,000   | 1851..... | 2,450,000  |
| 1840..... | 2,401,000   | 1852..... | 2,500,000  |
| 1841..... | 2,258,000   | 1853..... | 2,530,000  |
| 1842..... | 2,076,000   |           |            |
|           |             |           | 54,009,000 |

These figures are based upon the Danish returns, as far as they are published, and from 1850 upon the finance laws, adding the light money and perquisites, and raising the estimate to the actual amount taken.

\* One rixdaler about 2s. 3d., or 56 cents Federal money.

THE FINANCE LAWS ESTIMATE FOR—

|  | 1850.       | 1851.       | 1852.       | 1853.       |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Oresund dues and rosenoble.....  | \$2,017,600 | \$2,035,000 | \$2,055,810 | \$2,050,000 |
| Nyborg .....   | 17,400      | 17,650      | 17,300      | 18,300      |
| Friedericia.....   | 2,700       | 2,750       | 3,300       | 3,700       |
|  | <hr/>       | <hr/>       | <hr/>       | <hr/>       |
|  | 2,037,770   | 2,055,400   | 2,076,400   | 1,081,000   |
| Light and beacon money.....  | 149,770     | 153,430     | 158,895     | 161,335     |
| Perquisites .....  | 184,245     | 186,030     | 189,970     | 140,930     |
| Poor money .....   | 5,970       | 6,155       | 6,265       | 6,175       |
| Fines .....  | 5,960       | 5,933       | 6,340       | 5,500       |
| Interest on the capital from surplus<br>perquisites .....  | 6,740       | 7,650       | 9,572       | 6,415       |
|  | <hr/>       | <hr/>       | <hr/>       | <hr/>       |
|  | 2,340,358   | 2,365,000   | 2,399,040   | 2,399,350   |
| Take, instead of this .....  | 2,400,000   | 2,450,000   | 2,500,000   | 2,530,000   |
| Which are stated in proportion to<br>the increasing traffic, and an addition<br>has to be made of..... | 60,000      | 85,000      | 100,000     | 130,000     |

Beyond doubt, within the reality; and it remains to be seen if Denmark is inclined and able to disprove it. The objection, that the light moneys and perquisites are not to be stated in the receipts, requires—after what has already been said—no refutations, long as they are levied. Nobody will enter protest against their non-levy.

Who pays these sums? The usual answer is—the trade of Russia half, Prussia a fourth, the remaining Baltic countries the rest. But the shipping of all flags, not excepting the British, bears its heavy share of the burden; and the duty on goods is, according to the state of markets, as often paid by the shipper as by the receiver. Whenever England is in want of great quantities of grain, timber, flax, or other staple articles of Baltic exportation, the British consumer bears the brunt of the Sound Dues.

On the other hand, when goods are imported to the Baltic through the Sound, it is always the receiver who pays the Sound Dues, on account of the competition of other and cheaper routes of traffic. The Baltic merchant dares not charge the Sound Dues to the consumer, because he in that case would lose him as a customer. His mercantile enterprises, already burdened with heavy insurance for the passage through the dangerous Cattegat—where every year 20 to 40 vessels are lost—are further maimed by the Danish imposts, even where these keep within the limits of conventions.

All vessels must hoist their flags in the Sound before passing Kronenborg, if coming from the north; before sailing past the guard-ship in the roads of Elsinore, if outward bound. They belong to three classes—privileged, unprivileged, and Danish. The following are at present privileged nations:—

Belgium, by the convention of 13 June, 1841; the Brazils, by the convention of 26 April, 1828; Bremen, by the convention of 5 November, 1835; Great Britain, by the convention of 11 July, 1670, and 13 August, 1841; France, by the convention of 23 August, 1742; Greece, by the convention of 31 October, 1846; Hamburg, by the convention of 27 May, 1768; Hanover, by the convention of 13 April, 1844; Holland, by the convention of 13 August, 1843, 15 July, 1701, and 10 July, 1817;

Lubeck, by the convention of 14 October, 1840; Mexico, by the convention of 19 July, 1827; Mecklenburg, by the convention of 25 November, 1845; United States, by the convention of 26 April, 1826; Norway, by the convention of 23 August, 1841; Austria, by the convention of 12 February, 1834; Oldenburg, by the convention of 31 March, 1841; Prussia, by the convention of 17 June, 1841, and 26 May, 1846; Russia, by the convention of 8 October, 1782, and of 14 October, 1831; Sardinia, by the convention of 14 August, 1843; Naples, by the convention of 13 January, 1846; Sweden, by the convention of 3 July, 1720, and 23 August, 1841; Spain, by the convention of 25 May, 1798; Venezuela, by the convention of 26 March, 1838.

With regard to all of them, it has been provided that ships and cargoes in the Sound and Belts have to pay no higher dues and taxes than are, or will be paid now and in future by the most favored nations. From this, it naturally follows that both old and new conventions apply to them all; each subsequent reduction equally benefits every one of them, and any nation obtaining, either by means of negotiations or by the force of arms, the total abolition of the Sound Dues, will thereby at once secure the same right to all others.

The only unprivileged nations in Europe at present are Portugal, the States of the Holy See, and Turkey. The disadvantages connected with the unprivileged position are in reality of little consequence. They principally consist in the dues on the unenumerated articles being  $1\frac{1}{4}$ , instead of 1 per cent; in an addition of a fourth part on certain Spanish and Portuguese wines, and on bottled wine; of  $\frac{1}{7}$  to  $\frac{1}{3}$  on grain, according as it is shipped at different Baltic ports; of a rosenoble besides the dues on goods bound for Rostock; lastly, in unprivileged vessels and cargoes being subject to the right of search. This right of search, however, rests on a mere assumption on the part of Denmark; it has never been either recognized or practiced.

Danish vessels form a separate class, enjoying greater privileges than the vessels of privileged nations. It is true, that by a royal resolution of 18 February, 1771, both classes are placed on the same footing, and there can be no doubt whatever that any privileges conceded to Danish vessels may be claimed with equal right by the vessels of all other privileged nations.

The forbearance towards Denmark, however, has allowed the flag of that country to acquire a series of exclusive immunities, to which the crowning one has been added in the course of the present year. Besides numerous facilities accorded them in reference to light dues and perquisites, Danish commodities—both raw produce and manufactures—if imported from, or exported to the Faroer, Seeland, and Greenland, goods the produce of the Danish colonies and shipped in Danish bottoms, and all goods shipped thither in such vessels, enjoy full exemption from Sound Dues in the Sound and Belts. Since the 1st April, 1854, a discount equal to the full amount of the Sound Dues is being allowed on the Danish import duties for all goods the produce of transatlantic countries, if brought direct to Denmark from the producing country. By thus allowing to the full a discount which has only partially been accorded by Prussia to her ports, Denmark exonerates her inland consumption from Sound Dues on coffee, dyewood, rice, tobacco, tea, mahogany, &c. Rum and arrack form an exception to the franchise, partly to protect the home production of spirits from com-

petition, partly on account of the Danish colonies, whose produce is charged with only 48 shillings Rbco. less duty than foreign rum, but, owing to the exemption, is actually protected at the rate of 1 dollar for 30 quarts.

By the letter of the resolution, the discount in question has not been restricted to the Danish flag; but experience shows that far more extensive, while more justified concessions, in reference to Danish importation, though open to being taken advantage of by all privileged flags, have in the natural course of circumstances been but rarely made use of by the latter, and turned almost exclusively to the benefit of Danish shipping. Since 1842 there existed in Denmark, with reference to the direct transatlantic importation of the said goods, a drawback of 25 per cent on import duty and all charges upon vessels; still, in the ten years ending 1852, only 2,662 commerce-lasts of foreign shipping have been tempted by the drawback to import goods of that favored description into Denmark; whereas during the same period the owners of 659 Danish vessels, with 72,770 commerce-lasts, have reaped the fruits of the facilitated direct importation, amounting to 888,000 dollars. At that time Denmark did not yet dare to show any preference with respect to the Sound Dues to her own flag, and she not only levied Sound Dues on direct importations, but even deducted the amount of the dues from the drawback on such cargoes as had had to pass neither the Sound nor Belts. At present she has shown more courage. The remission of 25 per cent on the import duty was too great a drain on the needy treasury; something was to be done to promote Danish shipping trade; and thus, contrary to the letter and the spirit of existing conventions, a remission of the Sound Dues on the direct Danish importation was resorted to, the whole burden of the unnatural tax being thereby thrown upon the transit. The Danish government may have remembered a passage from *Winter's Tale*—

"Truly the gods have taken mercy upon us this year, and we may do all we like."

The right to make a distinction of that kind is doubtful in the extreme—all privileged nations have been placed upon a perfectly equal footing. Waiving the question, if foreign flags will take advantage of this discount, Denmark is not entitled to favor her own importation by means of a remission of Sound Dues, unless the same favor be at the same time equally extended to the importation through the Sound of all other privileged countries—all of which may claim the immunities of the most favored nations. The conditions under which Prussia allows a discount are manifestly of a very different nature, and the allowance itself is not made in violation of treaties.

The recent Danish measure may even injure the Baltic ports, and in their prejudice lead to a staple right of the Danish ports being established at the expense of the other ports in the Baltic, and wholly at variance with acknowledged principles of free trade. Not only the Baltic States, but also England, Belgium, Holland, France, &c., have therefore all possible cause for complaint, and in like degree the Hanse-Towns, Hamburg, and Lubeck, must consider themselves placed at a disadvantage—their very important indirect importation into Denmark, subject to the full import duty, being by these distinctions in favor of a direct supply brought face to face with a new and formidable competition. In some quarters it is mooted that by the Danish resolution of 1st April, 1854, it is intended

to buy off the United States. If so, we guess the calculation will prove incorrect, as soon as the subject shall have been gone into, and the conviction arrived at that the measure in question cannot but result in the advantage of Denmark, and of Denmark only. The United States must necessarily have an eye to the unimpeded passage of rice, tobacco, and cotton, and the facilities accorded to the trifling importation of Denmark, can in no way make up for the heavy dues weighing on those articles if bound to other quarters.

No one will volunteer to prove that the present state of matters can be tolerated any longer ; reform is most urgent, and the necessity for it is being so strongly felt, that the singular idea of circumventing the Sound, by means of a canal, has actually been ventilated. That canal was to be laid through Schonen, from Raa to Wiigen, on a level with the sea ; it was to extend two German miles in length, and to be 20 feet deep and 100 feet broad. Commodious ports were to be constructed at each entrance, and proper arrangements made for tugging every vessel through in a few hours. The expenses are estimated at from 5 to 6 millions of dollars, and the dues that would be made necessary for paying interest and maintaining the establishment are computed at a fourth part of the present annual revenue at the Sound.

Instead of a road made by the hands of nature, an artificial one is to open a gate to trade and navigation. The plan renders sufficient evidence to the heavy pressure, and is a manifest proof of the hopelessness and faint-heartedness of the commercial public looking forward for help and redress to the carrying out of such an undertaking. As little prospect there is to get rid of the burden by paying off the capital. In times like the present, when all countries are forced yearly to add to their debts, where should the means be found to raise forty to fifty millions of dollars ? Where the unanimity in contracting loans towards this purpose, and making sacrifices of that amount in favor of Denmark ? The interest of the maritime powers makes it necessary to resort to other means. The dissatisfaction felt in England at the convention of 1841 is as strong as it is general ; the British cabinet may at times have looked upon and made use of the Sound Dues as a sword of their commercial policy—but, at any rate, it is a sword that cuts both ways, and deeply wounds the trade and navigation of their own country.

The United States see the extension of their traffic suffering under high and illegal duties imposed upon the staple articles of their exportation ; their treaty with Denmark may be thrown up every twelvemonth. The French wine trade groans under exorbitant dues. With what intensity the burden is felt in Sweden is shown by the complaints of 1850. Prussia is absolutely and unavoidably placed in the position of continuing the persevering and determined opponent of the Sound Dues ; she has, down to 1845, honestly, seriously, and zealously maintained that position, doing and offering anything to get rid of the fetter. She has failed. Her geographical and political situation pressingly call upon her to go the way open to her—throwing up the treaties of 1818 and 1846. Let but a single leading power do so, and at the same time give notice of its intention not to submit any longer to the burdening of its trade and navigation, and, if need be, resort to reprisals, and the Sound Dues have seen their last. If Russia, where neither shipowners nor merchants are in a position to raise a complaint, should like to remain faithful to her character as pro-

tector of Denmark, by making her ships and cargoes continue to pay the duty, nobody will prevent her. The question of the Sound Dues is not a Russian one—it is one of general and transatlantic commercial policy.

Spain and Portugal, at the period of their preponderancy, claimed whole oceans as their property. Hugo Grotius, the author of "*Mare Liberum*," overthrew that maxim as early as 1609. The Sound is not a dependency of Denmark, and even did her supposed right of sovereignty really exist, it would give her no title to lay enormous taxes upon vessels sailing past her shore, and neither asking her for, nor owing her anything. The right of levying dues has never been recognized; a tortuous policy has made certain tariff concessions by separate treaties to the once powerful Denmark. They fall as soon as warning is given of the cessation of those treaties, and Denmark must grant to all parties what she is forced to concede to one.

To consider the immutability of the Sound Dues to have been guaranteed by way of indemnity for the loss of Norway, is an erroneous supposition. Denmark will not be able to produce any documents in point. The right, thought sacred and incontrovertible, will disappear when the question, freed from conventional ties by throwing up the treaties, shall have been carried over upon the territory of main force. A real necessity, such as is given here, must overthrow an unnatural usurpation merely resting on historical grounds. Never have so formidable forces unfurled their flags in the Baltic as at present. England stands more than ever in need of Prussian alliance and German assistance; let her enter the lists as the champion of free trade for all the world, and the asthmatic policy of Denmark will be taught by experience that its impotency is not any further capable of stemming the current of history.

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## Art. II.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY:

### WALTER RESTORED JONES.

THE business of Marine Insurance in this country, and especially in the city of New York, as to its utility and value, and the great profits consequent upon its able administration, has been pretty thoroughly tested for the last quarter of a century, in the history and great success of the Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company. Confessedly at the head of all associations of the kind, in this country, and owing very much of its past good fortune to the able direction and management of its late President, it seems but fitting, that as its former head—almost its creator—and as identified with it, from the start—its history being comprised in that of Mr. Jones—some permanent record should be preserved of the life, labors, and character of so valuable and public-spirited an officer.

Immediately consequent upon his decease, it is true, warm and appreciative notices appeared in the various journals, and eulogistic while at the same time discriminating resolutions were adopted by all the important public bodies of trade and finance, in Wall-street—as, for example, by the Board of Underwriters, at a meeting of the Merchants in the Exchange, and the Chamber of Commerce. Two meetings connected with the company, the

one of the clerks, and the other, especially, of the trustees, ought not to be omitted; for, at the latter, among the resolutions, occurs one drawn up by one who knew Mr. Jones well, and judged him accurately, which we are happy to quote as the justest character of the deceased which we have read:—

*Resolved*, That, by his careful adherence to the modes of transacting business tested by experience; by his discreet sanction of such improvements as were found to obviate difficulties and to supply defects; by his remarkable memory, vigorous energy, untiring industry, indomitable “carefulness in making contracts,” and by his good faith and liberality in fulfilling them, he has in our judgment earned the title of the *first Marine Underwriter of his age and country*.

Of such a man we propose to exhibit a picture in the following brief sketch.

Walter Restored\* Jones, the son of John Jones, a highly respectable member of the well-known Jones family of Queen’s county, Long Island, was born at Cold Spring, near Oyster Bay, on the north side of Long Island, at the family mansion, which is still standing and in the possession of his family, April 15, 1793. His mother was a daughter of John Hewlett, a family of good local repute, belonging in religious creed to the Church of England. The Cold Spring branch of the Jones family of Queen’s county, whose original seat was on the south side of the island, whence all of the sons of William Jones emigrated, except the father of the late Chief Justice Samuel Jones, were originally independent gentlemen farmers and manufacturers; some of whose descendants came up to the city and entered on business, in one department of which, Insurance, several of them—as John D. Jones, the President of the Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company; Oliver H. Jones, President of the New York Fire and Marine Insurance Company; Walter R. T. Jones, average adjuster, and W. Townsend Jones, Secretary of the Atlantic—with others of the family, have won an enviable reputation.

The reputation of that branch of the family which came directly from South Oyster Bay was eminently legal, and in a degree political. Cooper, the novelist, remarks of the family: “The Jones family has now furnished legislators and jurists to the colony and State more than a century.”

It included—to mention only the very prominent names—Judges David and Thomas Jones, of the Supreme Court of the colony of New York; the elder Samuel Jones, the compeer of Hamilton and Burr and Harrison and Livingston; Samuel Jones, his son, chancellor and chief-justice—fully equal to the reputation of his father, and by some thought to have transcended it; and David S. Jones, his youngest brother, a worthy son of so illustrious a parent, and as a lawyer most able, if not as eminent as his brother; Major William Jones; Elbert Herring Jones, most upright and acceptable to their constituents in the State senate and legislature; and of the ancient Floyd Jones family, General Henry Floyd Jones and his nephew David, Richard Floyd Jones, in both houses of the State legislature, and Elbert Floyd Jones in the lower.—The father of Mr. Jones, John Jones, was one of the seventeen children of William Jones, the son of Major Thomas Jones, the first American ancestor of this very large and

\* The middle name of Mr. Jones has a history worth preserving. An elder brother of the same name, having met his death by an accident, it was the wish of his mother, when the subject of the present sketch was born, to retain the name, for which she had a peculiar fondness; hence the epithet “Restored” was added to the original Christian name.

respectable family. Major Jones was an officer of the English army, and was present at the battle of the Boyne Water. At the termination of the conflict which ended so disastrously for James II., the supposed\* Welsh officer came over to this country, and finally settled near South Oyster Bay, on the South shore of Long Island, some thirty miles from Brooklyn. He here procured a large tract of land, some five to ten thousand acres, a manorial estate, by purchase from the Indians, and also entered into whaling enterprises on the coast, then a profitable business, and under an English commission to cruise against Spanish property, amassed considerable property. He built himself a brick house, which stood for nearly a century and a half, and which was pulled down to make way for the improvements of the late David S. Jones, the then munificent possessor of the Massapequa farm.

John Jones, the grandson of the Major, and father of Walter R., with his brother-in-law, Devine Hewlett, held in common important water privileges, and a flour mill, at a period when property of that character was especially valuable—previous to the opening of the Erie Canal and the importation of Western flour, and also during the epoch of the second war with Great Britain, and under the restrictive influence of the embargo. The mill was consequently kept in active operation, and constituted a valuable property.

The subject of the present memoir was early introduced to the world of business and the life of a great commercial metropolis. At the tender age of eleven years he came up to town and was placed in the store of his eldest brother, William H. Jones, then engaged in the flour business, but now and for several years living the life of a country gentleman, having brought up a large and socially useful family, and exercising the virtues of a genial hospitality, at Eastwoods, near Huntingdon. In his brother's office the future underwriter acquired his first insight into the principles and modes of business, his true school. A few years later he was introduced by his cousin, J. Jackson Jones, a son of his uncle Walter, and brother of William Townsend Jones—an accomplished and most worthy gentleman, as we learn from all who knew him—into the office of the United States Insurance Company, as clerk, where he became remarkable for his habits of method, industry, and attention to business, laying a firm basis for his future eminence in a province requiring caution, accuracy, precision, and promptness. The United Insurance Company was one of the first, if not absolutely the earliest in point of time, in New York, and perhaps in the Union, for undertaking marine risks. But owing to novelty, or ignorance of the proper mode of conducting the business, or from some other untoward causes, the association failed to realize its objects, and it became embarrassed and was discontinued. At an early period of his career Mr. Jones conceived an aversion to litigation, of which there had been much, both unnecessary and of a vexatious character, in the early Insurance companies, and which proved in the end detrimental to their interests, and served to exclude customers. Mr. Daniel Lord, counselor to the present company, stated in his speech at the dinner given to Mr. Jones, on occasion of the complimentary presentation to him of a rich service of plate, that "for the twenty-four years of the

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\* We say supposed, because the Major is said on his tombstone to have come from Strabane, in Ireland, whence he sailed on leaving for America, after the battle. But his name, character, and the family traits, are all decidedly Welsh.

administration of this company, not more than *six* lawsuits have occurred to it, and I can recollect but *four*."

In 1824 Mr. Jones was elected assistant or vice to Archibald Gracie, President of the first Atlantic Insurance Company, discontinued two years after.

In conjunction with Josiah L. Hale, Mr. Jones started, in 1829, the second Atlantic, with a capital of \$350,000. Of this new association Mr. Hale was president and Mr. Jones vice-president. This company pursued a successful career, and continued its operations until July, 1842, when the old stock company was discontinued, and a new company organized on the mutual plan—that having grown into great favor, and become the popular mode of conducting insurance, as most profitable and most secure.

The present Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company first went into operation July 1, 1842—Mr. Jones president, Mr. Hale vice-president, and Mr. J. D. Jones secretary—and may be considered, without invidious contrast, as the leading marine insurance company of the country. Its history and that of Mr. Jones are identical; he was bound up in it, and cherished its interests as personal with his individual interests. Its prosperity was his, and he felt its occasional losses, doubtless, as much as any of its stockholders or directors; and the company organized by him, watched and guided until firmly established, and its business systematically arranged, bids fair to continue one of the most flourishing in the Union. The large insurance building No. 51 Wall-street, at the corner of William-street, was planned and erected under the eye of Mr. Jones, and with the sanction of the Board of Trustees, his worthy associates.

We may remark, in passing, that the present incumbent of the presidential chair, John D. Jones, has received a most thorough education for the office he holds, having been brought up under his uncle's eye, and with his character and career before him, as a model, for a period of nearly a quarter of a century—having the assistance and countenance of the able Board of Trustees, composed of the most influential merchants of the city.

For twelve-and-a-half years the actual dividends amounted to forty-three-and-a-half per cent, an average of thirty-five per cent per annum.

The intense labor of the officers of the institution was remarkable, and fourteen hours per day are said to have formed the regular daily labor of the three principal officers.

In January, 1854, Mr. Hale was obliged to resign, through increasing feeble health, and physical inability to continue his arduous labors.

As a proof of the remarkable prosperity of the company, a large share of the good fortune of which is to be attributed to Mr. Jones, it may be mentioned that for the ten years from January, 1844, its annual average was over thirty-three per cent, and for the first eleven-and-a-half years of its business, the total amount of profits was \$6,092,571, showing an average of \$529,788 per annum.

Previously to this latter date, on November 22, 1853, came off a public dinner at the Astor House, which had been got up by some of the friends and business associates of Mr. Jones, in his honor, and for the purpose of acknowledging their sense of his important services, his high character, surpassing financial talents, and social virtues. The presentation of a magnificent service of plate, tastefully rich and elaborate, was the distinguishing feature of the occasion, which was set off by some extremely

good speaking. The best speeches were made by Mr. Tileston, who presided, Rev. Mr. Osgood, who acted as chaplain, and by the guest of the evening, Mr. Jones himself. The foremost merchants, bankers, and underwriters of New York city, made up this select assemblage of the commercial aristocracy of the Union.

In conjunction with his brother, John H. Jones, Esq., of Cold Spring—a most able and intelligent man of business—Mr. Jones held an interest in the flourishing manufacture there carried on, originally started by the three elder sons of John Jones, but of which partnership Mr. J. H. Jones was the active and enterprising head. In the extensive whaling operations, the two brothers were the main capitalists, and the last-mentioned gentleman the leading manager—the other the chief adviser. A brief statement of this latter department of Mr. Jones's labors, may serve to give an idea of its magnitude and importance. The business itself, it may be remarked as an historical coincidence, is a revival of that originally carried on by the founder of the family. We believe there now are (there were in 1848) eight whaling ships fitted out from Cold Spring, measuring more than three thousand tons, carrying about two hundred and fifty men, and costing, with their outfit, about \$227,000. These instead of confining themselves near our coast, from which the whales have been mostly frightened away, make longer voyages than Captain Cook did in circumnavigating the globe. In connection also with Charles H. Jones—another and a favorite brother—and with his deceased brother Joshua T., he has been engaged in a large number of mercantile and manufacturing enterprises. We derive these facts from a near connection by marriage of Mr. J. H. Jones—the father of the present incumbent of the presidential chair of the Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company.

The idea of a life-saving benevolent association originated with and was perfected by Mr. Jones, who, by dint of arduous exertions, effected an incorporation, chartered by the Legislature, March, 1849. This was the result of benevolence and prudence united, and its object and result was the salvation of life and property to a great extent. The value of such an association, with its objects properly carried out, was and is very great; and were its good results even much less beneficial than they have been, they would be still worthy of the applause of the philanthropist. Altogether there were, two years ago, some twenty-seven station-houses, with the comforts of heat and protection, in winter; with life-boats, (galvanized iron boats and cars,) guns, ropes, &c. On the New Jersey shore there were fourteen stations, and thirteen on the shore of Long Island. At the present date we learn that the number of these most valuable stations has nearly doubled. A nobler project for public good, a more humane and benevolent association was never incorporated.

Mr. Jones, in his private and personal character, was a kind and unpretending man, affable and sincere. He was a devoted son and affectionate brother and a favorite uncle, the only domestic relations we are aware he held. By his brothers and sisters, nephews, and nieces, and all their connections, he was truly beloved. Towards his townsmen, and relatives far removed, and whom he seldom met and knew but slightly, he was always friendly. And from many sources we have heard the same invariable report of his liberality, in affording aid to deserving objects of his bounty, and especially a Roman-like love of contributing to the support all places of "public good."

Originally of a Quaker family, he became in after years a regular attendant on the services of the Episcopal Church, and was one of the promoters of the building of the new church at Cold Spring. At that delightful place, one of the most picturesque regions not only on Long Island, but even anywhere in the State, he had erected a noble mansion, of princely extent and accommodations, of which he had not yet become the tenant for life, when he was summoned to his last home by the angel of death.

His health had been precarious for some months before, indeed ever since a stroke of apoplexy he had suffered; but he would doubtless have lived longer, perhaps for some years, had not his mind, anxious with the cares of business and heedless of his own comforts, impelled him to work, when he was physically unfit to be out of his room or out of his bed. Despite the counsel of his skillful physician, Dr. Francis, he went out imprudently, over-exerted himself, and came home to die.

He died April 7, 1855, of apoplexy; he was dictating to one of his nephews from his bed in the morning, when suddenly there came a pause, which was never filled up. He was not quite sixty-two years of age. With an originally powerful constitution and an active habit, living a simple life, and always occupied, he would, it is almost certain, have lived at least his three-score years and ten, had he allowed himself, as we have remarked, to have been governed by the prudent advice of his medical friend.

Sanguine and ardent in business, he was a moderate and reasonable man in his views of life and conduct—altogether a man to be relied upon and looked up to. But a regard to the concerns of others, for which he was responsible, and a strict sense of the duties of a man of business, over-powered his sense of danger or consideration of personal safety. Thus he fell a martyr to duty, and gave up his life literally to the cause of insurance.

We are happy to be able to quote the following letter of Dr. Francis, the medical adviser of Mr. Jones in his last illness, which we have received since writing the above; in its lucid and comprehensive style stating, in a most satisfactory manner, the causes and progress of the attack, and its final result:—

NEW YORK, May 28, 1855.

DEAR SIR:—The professional reputation of the late W. R. Jones, Esq., was long known to me; my personal acquaintance with him was but of recent date. It was not until the morning of the 7th of January last that I was requested to make a medical visit to him at his city residence in Murray-street, on account of threatened symptoms of apoplexy and palsy. Aware of the close and devoted attentions which he so systematically gave to his responsible duties, that his habit of body was of inordinate fullness; that his physical development was favorable to the invasion of acute disease, I lost no time in obeying the summons; and upon my introduction to the sick-room, I found Mr. J. in a state of cerebral congestion, with lower loss of motion, and inability of free articulation or speech.

The indications of relief were too manifest to be deferred. His inordinate fullness of habit, and approaching shortness of breathing, left no time for delay; he was bled largely, counter-irritants applied, and the ordinary active anti-phlogistic means pursued. Some mitigation of symptoms soon took place; but a vigorous reaction, with increased tendency to a recurrence of the same alarming symptoms which marked the invasion of his illness, justified a repetition of

similar measures of relief, and the gratifying spectacle was soon presented in the returning consciousness of the patient, with improved powers of articulation, and especially of motion in the lower limbs. Forebodings, however, of the gravest nature as to the ultimate issue of the case, awaked desire for additional professional advice, when Professor Parker, of the University of New York, united with me in consultation. The result of our deliberations was that depletory measures were still further advisable, and we had the satisfaction to find, after two or three subsequent visits, that Mr. Jones now only demanded time for recovery; nevertheless, imposing on him abstraction from all business for at least a month, and exercising on his part a wholesome discretion as to the use of animal food and drinks.

The better to secure the safety of his improved health, I occasionally visited Mr. Jones, and urged such cautions in his modes of living, his exercise, and in his limited appropriation of time to the discharge of his professional trusts, as I deemed best calculated to give permanence to his now renovated powers, both mental and bodily, and in this view my associate, Dr. Parker, fully coincided. Mr. Jones was not entirely a disobedient patient; and during one portion of the month of March his official obligations seem to have been discharged with his wonted regularity and capacity. But it was evident at the latter part of that month, both to his friends as well as to his medical advisers, that our patient had too confidently harbored the idea that his constitution had become superior to the renewed assaults of the enemy that had once brought him to so critical a condition.

He persevered with marvelous earnestness in all his severe and multiform duties; his many and accustomed hours of business were filled up daily, and, forgetful of the necessity of that repose which his recent sickness and prostrated nervous powers demanded, night itself was often invaded by his cares and toils; and on the 7th of the ensuing month, April, after uncommon efforts on weighty duties, he was, towards the hour of four in the morning, again seized with that attack, which almost immediately terminated his valuable life. At the earliest intimation of his illness, I hastened to his bedside, but consciousness had ceased, the pulse no longer beat, and he was to be numbered with the dead.

Thus surrendered to inexorable physical and mental causes, exercising their preponderating influence on a frame of body peculiarly susceptible to that agency, Walter R. Jones, so long the prominent man in his great and responsible vocation.

With every consideration of respect, I remain yours truly,

W. A. JONES.

JOHN W. FRANCIS.

His funeral, which took place at Trinity, was of the most imposing character—from the array of distinguished persons, in trade and finance, many old New Yorkers and Long Island gentry, that were gathered together. His remains were carried afterward to Cold Spring, to be laid in the family burying-ground. For Cold Spring Mr. Jones had a peculiar predilection, and he was rarely absent from it over a week (when he could get there) for many years of his life. As the home of his boyhood and the seat of his branch of the Jones family, where, too, so many of his immediate relations still reside, independent of its picturesque, rural beauties, this charming locality had fascinated him, as it must any one at all similarly situated, who pretends to any love of nature or feeling for the beauty of fine scenery. Hilly and beautifully wooded, rich in streams and water prospects, it is full of varied attractiveness, and delights the eye of the traveled stranger or the resident for life.

Mr. Jones is one of the worthies of Long Island, though so long (from early boyhood) connected with New York city as to be regarded as one of her denizens; yet, as he never for a moment lost sight of the place of his

nativity and his rural home, as he visited it weekly, built his noble mansion there, and there looked to end his days in peace and domestic happiness, he must not be forgotten in the list of eminent Long Islanders. With the distinguished sons of Long Island, in the different walks of life—in the profession, in art, in the army and navy—he must ever be associated, and his name must be added to the list including Conckling, Sandford, Miller, Wickham, Colden, Post, Seaman, Mott, Elias Hicks, Mount, Rhodes, Hackett, Sands, Woodhull, and Truxton, whenever the roll of prominent Long Islanders is called.

In person Mr. Jones was below the ordinary standard of height, but strongly built, and of a full habit of body. His face, his person, and his presence, denoted energy and vigor. Forecast and vigilance were stamped upon his brow, and his eye had a look of penetration that scrutinized with caution every application presented to his judgment. The moderation and mildness of his character was also marked in the expression of his face, especially in the company of his friends and kindred.

We believe there is more than one good portrait of Mr. Jones by Mr. Shephard Mount, the able artist. There is also a life-like bust of Mr. Jones, a copy of which has been placed in the Committee Room of the company. But the excellent engraving of the head on the bills of the Marine Bank will preserve his features to all classes of the community, and be in that light more universally accessible than the best bust or portrait in a public place.

The example afforded by the career and character of Mr. Jones is a rich heritage to the young men of our country. Comparatively a poor boy, at an early age he is placed in a store, and has to make his way by dint of industry, perseverance, integrity, and all the essential virtues, not only of the true business man, but of the truly able and great man, in every walk of life.

And although fortunate in having for his instructors his near relatives and family friends, yet he was by them simply initiated into his duties, and taught the elementary routine of business. Most of all remained with himself—earnest attention to his business, and strict fidelity in all that concerned his province. He was hence, it may be fairly said, a self-taught and self-made man. In his peculiar walk, he was admitted to be without a rival, and for the point of excellence reached by him, he owed almost all to his self-training, his unflagging zeal, and his determination to master all that related to the complicated science of insurance.

The same qualities, too, that distinguished him as a man of business, marked also his personal character, or rather grew out of it, earnestness, sincerity, kindness of heart, a strong love of family and friends, vigorous energy of will, and the active exercise of his intellectual powers.

His native county and the city of his adoption have reason to be proud of the man who placed the business of insurance on a more stable footing than it had ever enjoyed heretofore, and raised the Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company to the rank of the first marine company in the United States. While, as a man, the interest felt and the faith reposed in him by his family, his friends, and his dependents, stamp him emphatically a model for those who come after him, in all the relations he filled so worthily throughout the entire course of his life.

Art. III.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XVIII.

TAXES UPON TRADE—THE WAR—OSWEGO—PRIVATEERS—RULE OF 1756 REGARDING NEUTRALS—SCARCITY IN ENGLAND—LOUISBURG—FRONTENAC—INDIAN TREATY—CANAL IN ENGLAND—ENGLISH SUCCESSES—CHEROKEES—TRADE DURING THE WAR TO ENGLISH WEST INDIES—TO FRENCH WEST INDIES—TO EUROPE--TO ENGLAND--EXPORTS OF SUNDRY ARTICLES--SLAVE-TRADE--PAPER MONEY--CANADA--THE PROSPECT.

TAXATION OF THE COLONIES. In the year 1755 England commenced in earnest that system of taxing the colonies, "by absurd and impolitic laws and orders in council," upon the Commerce of the colonies in North America and the West Indies, which eventuated in the loss of the former. The object of these restrictions was to prevent the colonies from furnishing supplies to the French, through their trade in the West Indies and at other places, and to make their Commerce contribute to the revenues of England. At this time, beside being about to incur the burden of a most expensive war, the government was under the load of an existing debt, incurred in previous contests, of 72,289,673*l*. Another measure referring to the same object, disallowed the farther continuance of the export, hitherto uninterrupted, from Great Britain to the colonies, of certain foreign goods, free of duty. This measure produced much discontent, both in England and America, but the attention of the latter was now busily engaged in another quarter, and Parliament and the cabinet quietly pursued their own course.

In 1756 and 1757, the Assembly of Pennsylvania aided in that part of the project referring to the supplies furnished the French, by prohibiting the export of provisions and military stores from that colony to any French ports. The act is said to have been the occasion of serious loss to the merchants of Pennsylvania. But other colonies seem to have been less scrupulous or less loyal.

While all this fighting had been going on in America, and France and England were making great efforts to assist their respective colonies, the two nations themselves were upon unusually amicable relations until about the middle of 1756. England declared war May 17th, and France June 9th, and as if he regarded the contest as a trifle, Louis XV. at the same time took the side of Austria against Prussia.

For the campaign of 1756, the three defeated projects of the previous year were renewed, and all again disconcerted. Instead of taking Du Quesne, Niagara, and Crown Point, the colonies lost Fort Oswego—a point of the greatest importance—at Lake Ontario, before the victorious arms of Montcalm. The capture of this post left the enemy in complete command of the lakes Ontario and Erie, and of the whole country of the Five Nations, and destroyed the base for the English operations against Niagara and Frontenac. In addition to 1,600 prisoners and 120 pieces of cannon taken here, the lake fleet, of war vessels and traders, consisting of two sloops of war and two hundred boats and batteaux, came into possession of the enemy. There were also stores for five months. The fort had been an object of considerable jealousy to the Six Nations, and Montcalm, partly from necessity, and in part to gain their favor, demolished it in their presence.\*

\* The French also took the Island of Minorca from the English in June.

One occasion of the disasters of this campaign was the want of an efficient financial system in the colonies. The only taxes upon which they depended for the funds requisite for the heavy operations of the war were those upon lands and polls. Their depreciating bills were freely used. A great help was furnished them in 1756 by the distribution of 115,000*l.*, sent over by Parliament as a remuneration for their war expenses of the previous year. Of this amount 54,000*l.* was awarded to Massachusetts, 26,000*l.* to Connecticut, 15,000*l.* to New York, 8,000*l.* to New Hampshire, 7,000*l.* to Rhode Island, and 5,000*l.* to New Jersey.

The fleet of Admiral Boscawen gave full protection to the fishery at Newfoundland and the Gulf of St. Lawrence for the present, but did not protect the coasts of the colonies. The French sent some privateers there to harass the colonial trade, and a number of vessels were taken, upon which the colonists stationed armed vessels upon the coast for the protection of the near fisheries, and of their trade generally. They also entered vigorously into privateering, and by this means inflicted great injury upon the enemy.

More than four hundred privateers were sent from New England to the French West Indies and to all parts of the world, where the Commerce of France extended. As in the former war, many of the colonial merchants became very wealthy through the success of their privateers, though, as in all wars, the general interests of Commerce still suffered heavily. This is seen in the fact that the seamen of New England were crowding aboard the royal navy, though this was partially owing to bounties on enlistment. Of this useful article England felt such a want, that several acts were passed in 1756 to encourage the supply of her naval and merchant service.

An act was passed in 1756 to encourage the trade of the sugar colonies, which, from their peculiar position and pursuits, were most liable of all the English dependencies, to suffer by the war.

**RULE REGARDING NEUTRALS.** During the year the English government also announced the celebrated rule, the occasion of so much trouble afterwards, that neutrals *in time of war could carry on no trade which they had not been accustomed to carry on in time of peace.* The colonies, although violently opposed to this principle after acquiring their nationality, when enforced by its author against themselves, were now undoubtedly perfectly ready to uphold it in the utmost extent as an effective means of crippling their adversary, by depriving his Commerce of the cover of the neutral flag.

Du Quesne, Crown Point, and Ticonderoga—a fort lately erected on the northern side of Lake George, still further within New York—were the objects in contemplation when the campaign season of 1757 opened; but the whole effort of the year was suddenly directed to a concentrated attempt upon Louisburg; but that place being reinforced by seventeen sail of the line and troops, raising its force to 9,000, the project was abandoned, and nothing was done. On the other hand, Montcalm advanced from Ticonderoga with 9,000 men, and reduced Fort William Henry, on the south side of Lake George, defended by 3,000. A line drawn across from William Henry to Oswego, would have left between a third and half of the colony of New York, now at the backs of the French, apart from their establishment in the Niagara district.

While the Indians on the frontiers of Virginia, Pennsylvania, and New

York were at deadly strife with the English, the Carolinas were at peace and enjoying quiet trade with the powerful tribes on their borders. In 1757, at the request of the Cherokees, the Carolinians established among them a fortified trading establishment called Fort Loudoun, in honor of the commander-in-chief. It was situated in the northeast part of the present State of Tennessee, and was the first English occupation of the territory of that State. The French, as before mentioned, had once erected a temporary post at the southwestern corner of the State, near Memphis.

The year 1757 was one of great scarcity all over Europe, and so severe was the distress of the poorer, and the embarrassment of the middle class in Great Britain, that Parliament suspended the duties on foreign corn and flour, and prohibited the export from the kingdom of corn, meal, flour, malt, bread, biscuit, and starch. The export of grain, meal, malt, flour, beef, pork, bacon, &c., from the colonies to any other places than Great Britain and Ireland, was also prohibited. These prohibitions were removed in 1759. The importation of these articles in neutral vessels was also permitted, so that the ministry did not consider their own principle regarding neutrals applicable to the country proclaiming it. These acts were for a limited period, and were in 1758 extended to the close of that year. Another act gave the colonies liberty to export pig-iron to all parts of Great Britain, they having been hitherto limited for this article to the port of London.

The English were as unsuccessful in Europe as in America, and it was by some imagined that the vigor of the nation was exhausted, and its fall at hand. But the course of disaster having overturned the ministry, and upturned such a man as William Pitt, the course of affairs took a new turn.

Reinspired by their confidence in the new ministry, New England raised 15,000 in the beginning of 1758, and with 5,000 from the other colonies, and 30,000 men from England, Gen. Abercrombie found himself in command of a force of 50,000. Massachusetts was particularly zealous. The taxes collected in that colony to support the war, amounted in the average to above half the incomes. The taxes in Boston equaled two-thirds the income on real estate. One-half the effective men of the province were on some sort of military or naval service. Five hundred seamen were furnished by that colony for the attack on Louisburg, beside the fishermen impressed. The Massachusetts merchants were obliged to employ Indians and negroes to navigate their vessels.

But it was not in this year alone, as we have shown, that the royal navy was supplied with men from New England. It was asserted in the British House of Commons, that during the war there were employed in the British navy 10,000 American seamen, of whom by far the greater portion were, of course, from this section.

In the expedition of Gen. Amherst against Louisburg were twenty-three ships of the line, eighteen frigates, and 16,000 land troops. The "Dunkirk of America" surrendered again to the arms of England on the 26th of July. As before, stores and ammunition of great value were taken. The population was about 5,000, and there were as many more troops. To prevent its recovery by France, at least with its former importance, the merchants and most of the inhabitants were sent to France in English vessels, and its boasted fortifications were demolished. The loss of this place was a severe blow to France.

The island of St. John (now Prince Edward's) and all the other French settlements of that quarter, of which the chief were Port Dauphin (now St. Ann's,) Spanish Bay (now Sydney,) Port Toulouse (now St. Peter's,) Arichat, Petit de Grat, &c., all surrendered with the fall of Louisburg. St. John's had a population of 5,000, with above 10,000 head of black cattle. Some of the farmers on that island raised yearly 1,200 bushels of corn for the Quebec market. The population of this place suffered the same fate as that of Nova Scotia and Louisburg—a part being carried to the colonies, a part to France, and some escaping to Canada. So complete was the removal that not more than 500 or 600 were remaining so late as 1770.

England was now in complete possession of the coast to the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and of the entire Gulf and fishing region. In France, their American fisheries had always been considered of more value than the mines of Spanish America.

Fort Frontenac was taken the same season by Col. Bradstreet, who, beside 60 cannon and a large quantity of military stores, found there nine armed vessels and a collection of goods designed for the Indian trade. Although this place is described by some of our historians "an unimportant post," and its capture is usually referred to an inferior achievement, affording very poor compensation for the disastrous repulse of Gen. Abercrombie at Ticonderoga, was really the most important point in the whole series of inland operations, and should have been from the first the great object of attack. It was the entrepot of stores and supplies for the whole range of lake and western forts, and commanded the sole avenue of communication from Canada with every point occupied by the French in North America, and with the whole horde of their Indian allies. Had the English at any time before here concentrated their armies upon this point and gained possession of it, the supplies of the lower forts being cut off, they would have been no longer tenable, and the necessity would have been saved of capturing them in detail. The writers who speak so slightingly of this achievement, record immediately after that Du Quesne was abandoned before the force of Gen. Forbes had reached it—Venango and the forts above being still retained—and that the western Indians made a general peace, concluding the war throughout that whole section, and leaving the English in possession of the main part of the object for which it was commenced.

Yet no victory had been gained in *that* quarter, and not the slightest impression made by the English upon the confidence of the invariably successful French and Indians. The obstruction by capture on the ocean, and blockade in the French ports of the reinforcements and supplies prepared by the French government for Canada, had, of course, its due effect; but the immediate occasion of these results was the destruction of the stores provided at Frontenac. Where supplies are to be transmitted over routes so long, the existence of depots at convenient distances is indispensable, and the destruction of Frontenac, even without its occupation by the English, disturbed the whole system of inland communication. The Indians, not receiving their accustomed supplies of merchandise, attributed the interruption to the success of the English, and abandoned their allies, even before the desertion of Du Quesne, hastening the necessity of that event.

The retreating force from Du Quesne sailed down the Ohio toward Louisiana, considering probably that the new forts must soon be abandoned or surrender, and regarding the return to Canada impracticable.

The treaty with the Indians was concluded at Easton, sixty miles from Philadelphia. The tribes represented on the occasion were the Mohawks, Oneidas, Senecas, Onondagas, Cayugas, Tuscaroras, Nauticokes, Conays, Tateloos, Chugnats, Delawares, Unamies, Minisinks, Wappingers, and Mohicans, who inhabited a region embraced between the lakes, the Alleghenies, and the Apalachian mountains. As usual in Indian treaties, provision was made for trade as well as amicable relations.

Beside their advantages in America during this year, the English also reduced an important trading station held by the French on the River Senegal, in Africa, transferring to them the monopoly of the important trade in gum-senega, beside a traffic in other gums and in gold dust. An extension of the slave-trade was also anticipated from this capture. But the place was restored to the French at the peace.

*Scarcity.* The continued scarcity of provisions in England improved the market for such as the colonies had to export. An act was passed during the year admitting the import of salted beef, pork, and butter into Great Britain from *Ireland*, for six months from midsummer, free of duty, except what would be adequate to the duty upon the salt used in curing it.

**FIRST CANAL IN ENGLAND.** The Duke of Bridgewater's celebrated canal, the first constructed in England, was made in 1758, connecting Worsley and Manchester. It was straight, with a level bottom, and, of course, without locks, being thus a far more considerable undertaking than would be a modern canal of the same length. The cost of carriage from Liverpool to Manchester, by the river, was before 12s. a ton; the price by the canal was 6s.; and the advantages were so palpable that other canals soon followed, and there was soon a mania on the subject. Yet while the Duke was engaged upon his project, it was ridiculed by some as wild and visionary, and by others denounced as ruinous to almost every interest of the kingdom. It would cause the neglect of the natural avenues of inland navigation, the rivers, which would henceforth offer their convenient tides in vain; would take away the work from the horses, as was afterwards predicted of the railroad; destroyed so much valuable land as was used for its channel; would seriously impair the coasting trade; would hurt the foreign trade; and would finally destroy the navy, and with it, of course, the whole commercial and political supremacy of England.

Another commercial engine of this year was the *Newport Mercury*, a newspaper started at Newport by James Franklin, brother of the philosopher. Most of the colonies had their newspapers at this time.

In 1759 Massachusetts was greatly embarrassed in providing a smaller quota of troops than she had furnished the year previous, owing to the exhaustion of financial ability, and a very sensible decrease of population from the numbers already in the various branches of the royal service, the deaths of the last campaign, and the emigration to provinces where the taxes were less onerous. It was necessary to hold out the lure of double bounties.

In Newport, Rhode Island, the merchants protested against the assess-

ment of 2,200*l.* upon that town, as its share of the colony tax, declaring their losses during the war to have exceeded 2,000,000*l.*\*

In July, 1759, Gen. Amherst took Ticonderoga and Crown Point, those places being abandoned at his approach. Niagara surrendered the same month, the French still occupying the forts at Presque Isle and French Creek, in Pennsylvania. In September Wolfe carried Quebec. Beside these victories, the English took Guadaloupe, which was now, of course, legally open to the colonial trade. This important island was said to produce 40,000 hogsheads of sugar yearly, having between 300 and 400 sugar plantations, and above 50,000 inhabitants, of whom over 40,000 were slaves. In Europe, in the East Indies, and on the seas, the French were also beaten.

In September, 1760, Montreal surrendered, and with it Detroit, Michilimackinack, the Illinois settlements, and all other places dependent upon the government of Canada.

The Cherokees, on the Carolina frontier, who had been engaged in peaceful trade with those provinces, while the Indians above were at war on the colonies, dug up the tomahawk when the latter had buried it, on their part. They commenced hostilities the latter part of 1759, but in December made a treaty with Gov. Littleton, of South Carolina, for renewing peace and the usual free traffic with the Carolinas, agreeing to have no trade or communion with the enemies of Great Britain, and to take or kill every Frenchman coming among them. In February, however, they resumed hostilities, and committed terrible ravage on the Carolina frontiers. In August, they reduced Fort Loudoun, the only establishment in Tennessee, murdering the garrison of 180 men. The subjugation of Canada being effected, Amherst sent a large force to the aid of the Carolinians, and after several fierce battles, and the destruction of a great number of Cherokee villages, the Indians were induced, in 1761, to return to their old relations of amity and Commerce. During the war the Assembly of South Carolina offered bounties of £25, and finally £35, for Cherokee scalps.

**EXTENSIONS OF SETTLEMENT.** In 1760, Castine, in the district of Maine, was first settled by English, having been settled by the French as long before as 1667. The same year emigrants from Massachusetts settled the township of Liverpool, in Nova Scotia, for the purpose of prosecuting the salmon fishery. They were very successful, taking a thousand barrels in a season, and more were thus induced to follow in 1763. The efforts of Parliament to build up this colony had not been very successful. The population was but about 5,000. About £10,000 was yearly appropriated for the government of the colony, relieving the inhabitants of all civil burden, and the English government was getting weary of so unprofitable an investment. Altogether, the annual grants made to this colony, up to 1755, amounted to about \$2,000,000.

The French, in 1760, from the lower Mississippi and Illinois regions, effected settlements in Arkansas and Missouri.

**TRADE TO THE ENGLISH WEST INDIES.** Notwithstanding the heavy losses by the attacks of the French upon their Commerce, the provinces continued to trade with the English West India Islands during the whole war. The Island of Jamaica received from North America, during the

\* The expenses of the government of Canada had risen from 1,700,000 livres (\$314,819) in 1749, to 26,000,000 livres (\$4,814,814) in 1759, being paid by France.

war, provisions, lumber, and live-stock, about £200,000 currency, equal to £142,857 sterling, of which about one-fourth was paid in produce of the island, and the other three-fourths in money or bills of exchange. Formerly, the continentals had received produce entirely in this trade, but since their intercourse with the foreign islands began, had demanded a large proportion in specie.\*

**TRADE TO THE FRENCH COLONIES.** The productions of the French colonies, owing to the destruction of the Commerce of France by the British navy, and still more by the privateers of America, were reduced, during the war, to a very low rate. Notwithstanding the peremptory inhibitions of Parliament, and the almost treasonable nature of the act, the colonists could not refrain from taking advantage of this state of things, and retrieving something of the mischief they were meanwhile inflicting on the French possessions, by *keeping up their trade with them*. The French, glad of such relief, readily admitted the American vessels to their colonies, under *flags of truce*, and they freely visited the French part of Hispaniola, (whither they repaired usually with the money and bills of exchange obtained at Jamaica,) and also the other French islands of the West Indies, and their colonies at the Mobile and Mississippi Rivers, the latter being scarcely disturbed during the war. By this means, the French were supplied in those parts with the provisions and lumber so essential to them, and received, also, large amounts of money in exchange for their produce and for *French manufactures*, the balance of the trade being, according to the system of the times, greatly in favor of the French, as they sold far more than they bought. The English government was extremely indignant at this method of vitiating their efforts, but it at least helped to sustain the ability of America to meet the heavy taxation which she imposed upon herself for the prosecution of the war. In August, 1760, Mr. Secretary Pitt wrote to the several governors of North America, directing them to use their utmost efforts to detect and punish all persons concerned in this illegal trade. MacPherson states that some of the revenue officials in the colony were known to be engaged in the traffic, instead of endeavoring to suppress it.

**TRADE TO EUROPE.** The British West Indies had an active trade to Europe during the war, in which the vessels of the continental colonies were employed. From Ireland, Jamaica imported during the war £100,000 in provisions. About 630 pipes of wine were brought yearly to the British Islands from Madeira.

But the colonists carried on a large illegal trade to the other continent, also. During the war an English factory was established at Hamburg, which flourished through the consignments made from England, but still more by those received from North America and the West Indies. The sugars taken by the colonists at the French islands, as well as those of the English Islands, here found a market, and *France was supplied with sugars from Hamburg*.

**TRADE WITH GREAT BRITAIN.** The trade of Great Britain with the colonies, instead of being diminished by the war, was greatly enlarged during that period. The exports to the North American Provinces, compared with those to the West India colonies, were in the two periods, 1744-8 and 1754-8, as follows:—

\* The amount of sugar imported into England from her sugar colonies, in 1760, was 1,374,720 cwt. In 1765, in a time of peace, it was 1,227,159 cwt.

| Years.     | North American colonies. | W. India colonies. | Years.                             | North American colonies. | W. India colonies. |
|------------|--------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|
| 1744.....  | £640,000                 | £796,000           | 1754.....                          | £1,246,000               | £685,000           |
| 1745.....  | 584,000                  | 503,000            | 1755.....                          | 1,177,000                | 694,000            |
| 1746.....  | 754,000                  | 472,000            | 1756.....                          | 1,428,000                | 733,000            |
| 1747.....  | 726,000                  | 856,000            | 1757.....                          | 1,727,000                | 776,000            |
| 1748.....  | 830,000                  | 734,000            | 1758.....                          | 1,832,000                | 877,000            |
| Total..... | £3,484,000               | £3,361,000         | Total....                          | £7,410,000               | £3,765,000         |
|            |                          |                    |                                    | 3,484,000                | 3,361,000          |
|            |                          |                    | Excess of the last five years..... | £3,926,000               | £404,000           |

Thus, while the gain in the West India exports had increased in a very moderate ratio, the export to the northern colonies had more than doubled, and from being on a par with the former, the continental provinces, as a market for English goods, had risen in this brief period to double their present importance. The total exports of Great Britain in 1760 were £15,781,175, so that it would seem about an eighth part of her Commerce was with her North American provinces.\* To no foreign country, in 1760, were the exports so large as to the average of the second period to these provinces. The largest foreign export was to Portugal, being £1,294,719. The British East India Company's exports in 1760 were £477,339.

Thus, during a war which taxed the energies of the colonies to the utmost, their Commerce with the mother country was increasing in a ratio far greater than it had borne in peace, and outstripping even the progress of their population.

One occasion of this rapid increase was doubtless the large amounts of money remitted from England during the war for the expenditures of their army, and the sums sent in partial remuneration of the expenses of the colonies, a great portion of which were sustained by colonial bills, and repaid them in specie. Another cause was, probably, that what illicit trade the colonies managed to carry on, especially at the West Indies, was much smaller in war than in times of peace, and that they were thus obliged to resort to England for a large balance of merchandises which they before obtained of the French and Dutch. But perhaps more efficient than all, was the growing disposition among the colonists, remarked with sorrow by many of the more simple-minded among them, to luxurious living, and a more reckless spirit in the management of their business. There was certainly a disposition in the colonies to overtrade, encouraged by the ready credit which they obtained in England, and the debts thus incurred were undoubtedly not among the least occasions of trouble in the difficulties which introduced the Revolution. A work published in Dublin, in 1754, by Dr. MacSparran, relating to the colony of Rhode Island, mentions as one disadvantage under which the colony labored, that there were "too many hands in trade," and the same remark may have been true of one or two other provinces. To Pennsylvania, for twenty-eight years before 1760, the exports from England had increased about as seventeen to one.

The Assembly of Virginia in 1748 conferred on every parish minister an annual stipend of 16,000 pounds of tobacco; but in 1755, the crop being short, and the price rising to 50s. or 60s. the hundred, enacted that all who owed debts payable in tobacco might, for ten months, pay them

\* The shipping engaged in the merchant service of England augmented in 1760 to 472,241 tons.

in money at 16s. 8d. per hundred. The ministers submitted. In 1758, anticipating another short crop, the measure was tried again, but the clergy, deeming forbearance no longer a virtue, came out against this species of robbery, as they considered it. The king, being appealed to, pronounced the act illegal and void, and a Virginia court decided favorably on the suit of the ministers, though the decision was afterward reversed.

**RICE.** The export of rice from South Carolina in 1753 was 31,418 bbls.; in 1754 it was 104,682 bbls. From Savannah, in 1755, there were exported 2,999 bbls., and in 1760, 3,283 bbls.

**INDIGO.** The exports of Indigo from South Carolina in 1754 was 215 pounds, and in 1757 it was 754,218 pounds.

**SUGAR.** A little maple sugar began to be made in New England about the year 1752, and the manufacture was continued on a small scale up to the Revolution, when it largely increased. In 1758, M. Dubreuil established a *sugar plantation*, and erected the first mill in Louisiana, or in any part of the present United States. His mill was situated in the lower part of the present city of New Orleans. His success induced others to follow.

**COTTON** is mentioned among the exports of South Carolina in 1754. The value of this article manufactured by England in 1760 was only £200,000.

**IRON.** A furnace for iron was erected in Orange County, New York, in 1751, and is said to have produced 1,500 tons per annum of pig-iron, which was worked up at the same establishment into bar-iron.

An act of Parliament in 1757 gave liberty to the colonies to export pig-iron to all parts of Great Britain, it having before been limited to the port of London.

**SILK.** The export of silk from Georgia in 1755 was 138 pounds; in 1757, there was received at the filature in Georgia 1,052 pounds; in 1758, 7,040 pounds; in 1759, 10,000 pounds. Notwithstanding the encouragements offered by Parliament, the culture now declined, although there was now some increase in the product of South Carolina. In 1760, the export of silk from Georgia had fallen to 558 pounds. The culture of silk was commenced in Connecticut in 1760, from whence it afterward spread to New York and Pennsylvania, though pursued only to a limited extent.

**GRAIN AND FLOUR.** The export of wheat from Pennsylvania in 1749 was of the value of £148,104 currency; in 1750, £155,175; in 1751, £187,457; in 1752, the amount was 86,500 bushels. The exports of flour from Philadelphia in 1752 were 125,960 barrels, and from New Jersey (port of Perth Amboy) 6,424 barrels, besides 168,000 pounds of bread, and 17,941 bushels of grain. The export of corn from South Carolina in 1748 was 39,308 bushels; from North Carolina in 1753, 61,580 bushels; and from Philadelphia in 1752, 90,740 bushels.

**HEMP, FLAX, &c.** The export of hemp from New Jersey in 1751 was 14,000 pounds; of flax from Philadelphia in 1752, 70,000 bushels; from New York in 1755 the export of flaxseed was 12,528 hogsheads, all of which was sent to Ireland. Six wagon loads of flaxseed came into Baltimore in 1751 from the upland parts of Maryland. In 1751, the Assembly of Virginia offered bounties on the cultivation of hemp and flax in that colony.

**NAVAL STORES.** The exports of tar from North Carolina in 1753 were 60,000 barrels; of turpentine, 10,000 barrels; of pitch, 12 barrels. From

South Carolina—tar, 6,221 barrels; turpentine, 3,808 barrels; pitch, 13,814 barrels.

FURS AND SKINS. Exports from North Carolina, 1753, about 30,000 deerskins, and 203 hogsheads of the same article from South Carolina.

LUMBER, &c. South Carolina exported, 1753, of lumber, 591,412 feet; shingles, 581,020 pieces; cask-staves, 78,932. Large quantities of lumber were sent from North Carolina, also, and as usual from New England.

NEW PRODUCTIONS. A society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and Commerce, composed of nobles, merchants, and men of wealth, and being the third association of that kind in the realm, was organized in England in 1754. Among the objects for which it offered encouragement by *premium* was the growth in the American colonies of the rich and precious productions of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies, as well as the products of Asia and Africa. We suspect that people were too much engaged in their ordinary avocations to experiment very deeply in consequence of such encouragement.

THE SLAVE TRADE. This business still continued active, and the Rhode Islanders, and the merchants of some other northern colonies, had not yet become convinced, at least practically, of its turpitude. The number of negroes imported into Jamaica, in the ten years from 1752 to 1762, was 71,115, selling at £30 sterling per head. The number imported into South Carolina in 1753 was 511. The number of negroes in the town of New York (nearly all slaves) in 1755 was about 2,500; in Newport, Rhode Island, 1,300, out of a population of 6,574. Soon after this time the Quakers in Pennsylvania emancipated their slaves, there being 8,000 to 10,000 slaves in that colony. But the Quakers had not, after 1755, the administration of the government of the colony, and numbered but about one-fifth of the population.

MARINE SOCIETIES. The Massachusetts Marine Society, composed of shipmasters, was incorporated by the General Court of that colony in 1754, and the same year a similar institution was organized at Newport.

POPULATION. The population of Maryland in 1755 was 153,564, of whom 107,208 were whites, 42,764 blacks, and 3,592 mulattoes. Pennsylvania is estimated to have had 220,000, but the number of taxables, 36,667, in 1760, would indicate less than 200,000 at the later period. New York, in 1756, had 96,776 whites and 13,542 blacks, a total of 110,317, the town of New York containing about 13,500 inhabitants. Connecticut, in 1755, had 128,218 whites and 3,587 blacks, the total being 131,805. Rhode Island, in 1761, had 35,939 whites and 4,697 blacks, total, 40,636. A British writer, at 1760, says that apart from emigration, the population of the North American colonies had doubled in the last twenty-five years.

THE MUSQUITO COLONY. The British settlement on the Musquito shore, in Central America, was becoming better worthy the attention of the northern merchants. The British subjects there, exclusive of Indians, in 1757, were 1,100, and the exports were mahogany, sarsaparilla, tortoise-shells; also specie, indigo, cocoa, hides, and tallow, obtained in barter from the Spaniards. Several vessels were owned there.

PAPER-MONEY. In 1751, Rhode Island amended the act for the bank of 1750, repealing the bounties offered, that on *manufactured wool* being displeasing to the English government; 64s. old tenor, or 16s. new tenor, or 6s. 9d. of the new bills, were made equal to one ounce coined silver sterling alloy. The bills were for ten years. The value of a Spanish

milled-dollar was fixed, in February, 1752, at 56s. old tenor. In February, 1756, Rhode Island issued £80,000 lawful money bills, redeemable in two years, fixing its value at 6s. 8d. to an ounce of silver; and in August provided for sinking the bills issued for the Crown Point expedition, 1755-6, with money received from England, &c. One dollar specie was to be paid for every £4 of old tenor, and treasury notes to be given in part for the bills. In 1759, the colony was owed on worthless bonds, £49,869, and had £35,000 to be collected on bonds, the affairs of the Paper-Money or Grand Committee's Office being now settled up.

Large issues were made in most of the colonies during the war, and considering the urgency of the case, were allowed by the English government. In 1752, the Assembly of Pennsylvania attempted to avail itself of the exception made by the act of Parliament in 1751, to issue £40,000. Benjamin Franklin, as chairman of a committee on the subject, advocated the measure in a report, setting forth the good results of previous issues, and the advantages to be hoped from further moderate issues. The governor refused his assent to the bill, an angry controversy ensued, and no farther issued in the colony until 1755.\*

CANADA—VALUE—THE PROSPECT. Upon the conquest of Canada great attention was turned in England and the colonies to this new North American province. In England there were some opposed to its retention, preferring to hold Guadaloupe instead, or advocating its retrocession as a check upon the fast-growing colonies already possessed in North America. Among these is said to have been Edmund Burke. The greater portion of the English statesmen, however, and the English public, were desirous of retaining Canada, and a pamphlet urging this policy, by showing the superiority of continental to West India possessions, was published in England in 1759. The fear of the colonies uniting against Great Britain is considered triumphantly answered, by referring to their inability to confederate under a crisis so momentous as the existing war had for several years been.

The Commerce of Canada under the French, though confined to a small number of vessels, had been respectable for such a province. Nine or ten vessels usually arrived yearly from the French West Indies, with ratafia, molasses, coffee, and sugar, and thirty vessels from France, with French merchandises. The imports in 1754 were, of manufactured goods, &c., £157,645 sterling; of rum, sugar, &c., £59,123; total, £216,769. The exports were, to France, of furs and skins, £64,570; oil, ginseng, capillaire, lumber, &c., £7,083; to the West Indies and other places, of fish, oil, iron, &c., £3,906; total, £75,560, leaving a balance against the colony of £141,209, to be paid by bills drawn by the Intendant upon the treasury of France.

But the commercial abilities of this great region were deemed susceptible of vast augmentation. With Canada, England and her colonies had complete possession of the whole fur trade of the continent, and it was thought this trade might be indefinitely extended, and a great market thus afforded for British manufactures among the Indians. It was even anticipated that in the *back parts* of the continent might be found many un-

\* The Canadian bills of exchange on the French treasury had reached an enormous amount in 1752, and owing to speculations by the Intendant-General, were protested to the amount of £3,333,333. In 1759, payment was absolutely refused until an investigation should occur. The bills fell to a low rate in consequence.

known nations, like those, perhaps, found in Spanish America, with whom important commercial relations might be opened.

The never-forgotten idea of the *North-west Passage* into "the ocean of Japan, of China, and the Indies," also recurred, as an attendant upon this conquest. From the *other side* of Canada it was deemed that the project might be attempted with a better prospect of success. "So miserable a shore" as that of Hudson Bay was no longer to be solicited to reveal that desired avenue to the treasures of the East. They saw, in imagination, a more genial clime and a more favorable coast, redolent with the sweet odors wafted over the milder ocean from the luxurious fields of Cathay and the Archipelagian Isles. Here the farther end of the mysterious channel would readily reveal itself to the easy search, and sailing through it from that point, the envious Atlantic would be forced to open the concealed terminus of its own side.

The visions of the colonists, rid of all their ancient fears, and with nothing to do but to embrace the glorious prospect before them, were equally grand. They began to realize how boundless were their destinies, and saw the time near at hand when the political and commercial importance of the nations of Europe should yield to the magnificent developments of America.

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#### ART. IV.—THE CULTURE OF TEA IN BRAZIL.\*

It cannot be contested now that the productions most profitable for planters are not those which provide more immediately for our wants. Coffee, sugar, and brandy are among those fictitious necessities which civilization has introduced into refined societies; and these commodities, which are generally more injurious than useful, occupy the first rank in all markets, leaving the second to those that serve for general nourishment; and this is the reason for which beets, since chemistry has succeeded in extracting sugar and spirit from them, have acquired so much importance in Europe.

The history of the culture of tea is also a proof of this truth. This plant was left for a long time to vegetate in its native country, without being noticed, and it was used only for medicinal purposes; but since the caprice of an emperor and of fashion found in the leaves of this plant a flavor agreeable to our senses, and somewhat exciting our intellectual faculties, agricultural industry got hold of it, and gave to the culture such an extension, that an English writer (Mr. R. Fortune) values its annual production at 2,895,000*l*.

It is well ascertained that the consumption of tea is becoming, for the greater portion of the inhabitants of Europe, a necessary of life, and as such, this substance must necessarily hold a distinct place amongst the exotic vegetables to which we are accustomed, as none of them unites all the qualities wished for like this plant. Moreover, chemistry has just discovered in the leaves of tea a nutritious principle, which classifies this

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\* Translated from the Rio Janeiro *Jornal de Commercio* of the 12th of June, 1855, for the *Merchants' Magazine* by Dr. LIANTAUD, the writer.

vegetable as an alimentary article. Therefore, tea can now be considered a beverage analogous to coffee and chocolate, and which, by its hygienic and medical qualities, can well compete and be preferred to any other luxury of the same kind, so that it is obtaining new triumphs every day, and enlarging the boundaries of its dominions.

These few remarks will sufficiently explain the cause of so many efforts made for this last century in many countries, to introduce the culture of this valuable shrub, and thus deprive the Chinese of a monopoly which makes the wealth of their farmers.

Having been sent by the French government to look into the actual state of this culture in Brazil, I endeavored to prop my own observations with the interesting communications kindly offered to me by some of the most experienced dealers in this article, which led me to the conclusions which close my official report to the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, and to the scientific associations of which I am a member.

The most important question which I had been directed to study most accurately, and which is also very momentous for the Brazilian people, is—Whether the culture of tea can be advantageous as a branch of husbandry? This question, of course, refers to two arts: 1st, the culture of the plant; and 2d, to the transformation of the leaves from the raw into a prepared state.

The raising of tea prospers in Brazil perhaps better than in China. Only here we can see such luxuriant plants and with such a rich foliage, as those of New Friburgh, St. Paul, Santos, &c., which are far superior to the best that I saw in the environs of Canton, Nin-po, Chu-san, &c. All those who, like myself, have seen this plant gain in Brazil the proportions of a third-class tree, and thrive, without any difference for an eastern or western exposure, in any soil, without the least trouble, will class among the most absurd stories all which has been published by agricultural societies concerning the different methods of this culture, and the great expenses and care with which it is attended.

In relation to the profitableness of the culture of tea, I have only to copy the figures which Mr. Vincent Jose de Queiros, of St. Paul, handed to me, which are still more significative by comparing them with the culture of coffee:—

“An *alqueire* of tea (about an acre of land) can raise about 20,000 plants of tea,” says Mr. Queiros, “which will yield about 160 arrobas (32 pounds to the arropa) of tea, when dried, which, being sold at 800 reis per pound, give the net proceeds of 3,000,000 of reis, and pay the expenses of its cultivation, amounting to 25 per cent. On the same quantity of land, we cannot raise more than 2,000 plants of coffee, which will only give 500,000 reis a year, calculating the yield at 200 arrobas.”

This is only to what refers to the culture of tea; but things are changed when we consider the preparation of its leaves, as it is now done in Brazil. When the planters of St. Paul began to prepare tea, their production was considered somewhat inferior to that from China, although it was paid in Rio Janeiro 2,000 reis a pound, which was much above the price paid for the tea from China of the same grade.

It is evident at such a price the teas of Brazil could not compete with those from China in the markets of Europe, and even for the home consumption. This is proved conclusively by the prices current of St. Paul, where the price of tea fell from 2,000 to 1,200 at first, and 1,000 and 800

reis afterwards, and now at 600 reis (about half a dollar.) For this reason, many planters left their plantations, and did not care about the expenses made on them, and those who continued with them, could only do so by reducing their plantations and simplifying the process of preparing the tea, in order to diminish the cost of the article.

This statement is founded upon the most exact information, which I gathered from reliable sources that it would be idle to mention; but the truth is, that within five leagues round St. Paul, only on one estate I did not see marks of abandoned plantations.

Whilst the production of coffee is increasing in the province of St. Paul, that of tea remains stationary, and will even decrease, as the price of slaves and manual labor is getting higher. Here also figures are stronger than words. According to the documents exhibited to me by the custom-house of Santos, the exportation of coffee was 3,463 arrobas for other ports of the empire, and 518,953 arrobas for foreign ports—making an aggregate of 522,418 arrobas. During the same period the exportation of tea was, for the ports of the empire, 147,845 arrobas, and to foreign ports, *zero*. In the same way that these figures prove the inferiority of the production of tea to that of coffee, they show also the cause of this inferiority on account of there being no exportation of it to foreign ports, which in Brazil is well known both by merchants and planters. But what is still to be understood, is how to change this state of things so as to facilitate the exportation of tea from Brazil.

Many of the planters are under the impression that it is only necessary to hold the teas three years longer to sell them better; but I can assure them, after many experiments made, that the bitter principle of the drug, which is rather excessive in the Brazilian teas, being a fixed principle, cannot be dissipated by time; only the herbaceous taste can be corrected, either partially or entirely, but even this improvement is more in appearance than in reality; besides, this long delay is always a loss to the planters, who cannot always afford it.

Other planters have lately thought that by giving to the Brazilian teas the same appearance as those from China, they would easily find purchasers, at a high price, in European markets. During my stay in Brazil, I had frequent occasions to see how they prepare, in different ways, the black tea, and how they color the green with different stuffs, especially with Prussian blue and magnesia. By these inventions they have contrived to imitate, to some extent, the appearance of tea from China, but they could not give them that aroma and perfume characteristic of the latter, and which the connoisseurs appreciate so much, and they have not been able to modify the proportion of the different principles which, by chemical analysis, have been discovered in the tea-leaves, so that the black teas of Brazil are just as bitter and astringent as the green teas.

The best means to find markets abroad for Brazilian teas will be the low price. The law of cheap prices has always ruled all commercial speculations; there is no exception for any article. Among the Brazilian teas, there are some qualities which cost a great deal more than the teas from China; but the latter are preferred everywhere, on account of their cheapness.

Therefore, instead of complicating the process of preparing tea, which only increases the manual labor, and in order to obtain a suitable price, it will be necessary to make the same process more simple. This is what

has been understood already by the planters of St. Paul. By comparing the present mode of preparation with the account published twenty years ago by Father Leandro de Sacramento, and by General Arouche, I find some considerable differences. Formerly they used to put the leaves of tea in a kind of copper kettle, well heated, until they became quite soft, when they were placed on shelves to be stirred and turned over for a quarter of an hour, when they were rolled up and put again into the kettle where, by stirring and mixing, they would take that lead color proper of the green teas.

All these operations are now performed without taking the leaves out of the brass kettle, which is a great economy of labor, time, and fuel. But, notwithstanding this modification, three hours and a good deal of labor are spent in preparing a pound of tea, as it must go on the fire a second time, and all the leaves must be picked one by one, in order to separate the different colors.

Such processes are excusable only in a country like China, where the most simple elements of mechanic art are still unknown, and labor is extremely cheap; but not in Brazil, where the population, comparatively so thin, can find an easy and lucrative occupation out of any laborious agricultural work. Therefore, it is indispensable to substitute for manual labor the power of machines, which comes a great deal cheaper, easier, and more expeditive.

Only in this way the culture of tea may still become profitable in Brazil; only by these means they will be able to lower the prices to the same standard prices of Canton, where tea is sold at from 150 to 200 reis a pound.

Behold, then, the greatest difficulty which we meet both here and in Europe. It is more than twelve years since great efforts were made to propagate the culture of tea in France; and with the help of some of our best engineers, and of the wonderful discoveries made by chemistry and physical sciences, we are not without hope to get over this difficulty, so much so that the progress of the insurrection in China must necessarily cause a rising in the prices of tea.

Our machines can prepare very speedily immense quantities of leaves, and might be used for a central manufacture to be established in the capital, where all the leaves of tea might be prepared for the market. They do so in Canton with the teas destined for exportation. The merchants of Canton, at the time of the harvest, send their agents to Fo-King, Kiang-nan, and other places, to make purchases of the green leaves of tea, which they dry and pack up in boxes of about 96 pounds each, and when they have amassed a sufficient quantity to load a *chop*—that is to say, about 600 boxes—they send the cargo to Canton, where it is prepared in the pack-houses, in which operation more than 30,000 people are occupied.

Rio Janeiro also might become the great emporium of the Brazilian teas, and the source of a branch of husbandry quite suitable to its climate, to its central position, and to the immense capital circulating within its walls. It is Rio Janeiro, more than any other city of Brazil, that it behooves to give an impulse to this great enterprise, having a large number of good, intelligent, and industrious workingmen, whose help is certainly indispensable to make use of the artificial means which mechanic science has put in our hands.

## Art. V.—COMMERCE OF CANDIA.

THE ISLAND OF CANDIA—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—COMMERCIAL IMPORTANCE—MANNERS, MORALS, AND CUSTOMS OF THE PEOPLE, ETC.

CANDIA is a seaport city, and the capital of the Island of Crete, near the center of its north coast. It has a population of some 12,000 or 15,000, nearly all Mohammedans. Its harbor, formed by two moles, each terminating with a port, is now so choked as to be available only by vessels drawing eight or nine feet of water. The streets are wide and roughly paved, and the houses are well built, and interspersed with gardens and fountains. Candia was taken by the Turks from the Venetians in 1669.

A correspondent of the Department of State furnishes some information of commercial interest, in connection with a description of the manners, morals, and customs of the inhabitants:—

“The trade of this island with the United States fairly commenced in 1847, when the bark *Ganges*, of Boston, loaded at the port of Canca a home cargo of 195 casks of olive oil and 781 cases of soap, valued at \$17,694; also in the same year the brig *Hallowell* loaded at the same port for Boston a cargo of 1,344 cases of soap, valued at \$13,891. In December, 1850, the brig *Barbadoes* arrived at the same port from Boston with a cargo of rum, coffee, sugar, naval stores, furniture, &c., valued at \$3,989 39. In 1851 the *Barbadoes* again arrived at this same port with an assorted cargo, valued at \$3,907 56. As this vessel had the greater portion of her cargoes for America in waiting at Smyrna and Malta, she took on her return but a limited amount of the produce of this island. The cargoes of this vessel sold at very fair advantage—the net proceeds of which were invested in the produce of Egypt, at Alexandria, and forwarded to Boston via England; whereby opening a new and profitable trade with that section of the Turkish empire in the produce of Smyrna, and also with the Island of Candia via Smyrna, of wool, almonds, raw silk, wine, &c., all of which paid a good profit.

“The total exports from the port of Canca to Boston in 1847, and since, have been \$34,961 80; and from Alexandria, via Canca and Smyrna, per brig *Barbadoes*, \$751 87—rendering the total amount \$35,713 67; on which amount duties were paid at the custom-house at Boston. The total imports from Boston amounted to \$7,896 95 for this port, on a portion of the net proceeds of the sales of which the purchase of the aforesaid shipment from Alexandria, \$751 87, was invested.

“The brig *Barbadoes* was intended for a regular trader between Boston and the Island of Candia by the well-known, highly respectable house of Messrs. A. S. & W. G. Lewis, of the former place; but on a voyage to St. Domingo in January, 1853, for a cargo of coffee designed for the Mediterranean market, she foundered at sea, and never has been heard from.

“In relation to Candia soap, it appears that the quantity of soap imported from Turkey during a part of the years 1849 and 1850, was 155,127 lbs., and from France on the Mediterranean, 1,121,801 lbs., making a total of 1,277,018 lbs. for one year. The greater proportion of the soap imported into the United States from Marseilles is manufactured from the oil of this island, shipped by French vessels. The soap of this island is, or has been until of late, manufactured from olive oil and Egypt-

ian natim, which by no means is so well adapted to the use of American woolen manufactures, &c., as soap made from olive oil and soda ash. With a view of qualifying this soap for the American market, the soda ash has been introduced into its composition, which renders it of a very pure and fine quality.

“The following table exhibits a condensed report of the Commerce of the Island of Candia for the year 1853, by which it will be seen that the trade of this island is largely increasing:—

| ARRIVALS.   |       |        |       |             |
|---|-------|--------|-------|-------------|
| Ports.  | Nos.  | Tons.  | Men.  | Dollars.    |
| Retimo .....  | 182   | 6,218  | 1,176 | 92,700      |
| Canca .....   | 640   | 28,843 | 4,543 | 390,968     |
| Candia .....  | 348   | 15,686 | 2,455 | 544,544     |
| Total .....   | 1,173 | 50,747 | 8,174 | 1,028,212   |
| DEPARTURES.   |       |        |       |             |
| Retimo .....  | 183   | 6,261  | 1,199 | 331,740     |
| Canca .....   | 640   | 28,171 | 4,580 | 853,389     |
| Candia .....  | 348   | 15,483 | 2,420 | 787,584     |
| Total .....   | 1,166 | 49,915 | 8,199 | 1,972,713   |
| Total value of exportations from the island for 1853..... |       |        |       | \$1,972,713 |
| Total value of importations for 1853 .....                |       |        |       | 1,028,212   |
| Balance of trade in favor of the island.....              |       |        |       | \$944,501   |

“From the isolated condition of this island, and so little is its general society influenced by European or any other especial customs, notions, &c., and also so few strangers of intelligence and influence visit its ports to give any extraordinary or particular tone to its local manners and customs, that the broad distinctions of Turk, Greek Rayah, European, &c., are very prominent and distinct. The ignorant, fanatical, and indolent Turk, and the cunning, cringing, selfish, and down-trodden Greek Rayah, are met with at almost every corner; and the cosmopolite Jew, and stiff, reserved European, occasionally jostle each other on the ‘Marina;’ while may probably be seen some one of the numerous and enterprising Ionians, with his vessels and merchandise, cheek by jowl with some grim-visaged and solemn Arab merchant, discussing the quality and price of a cargo of barley.

“To be brief: the Turk of this island, with his gross vices, lax morals, good faith in his business transactions, hospitality, apathy, ignorance, and sincere veneration for his Creator, is behind the ‘spirit of the age;’ while the Greek Rayah, unscrupulous, intensely selfish, aspiring far beyond his condition, and crafty, is up with the spirit of the age—and both stand in prominent contrast with each other. In fact, the Turk of this island is the Turk of everywhere; while the Greeks, as a class, are industrious and frugal, with but few vices. The Greeks are very selfish, and sometimes addicted to intoxication, especially when wine is abundant and cheap. Homicides are very rare among them, and they are very ignorant, from the fact that schools are only to be found in the cities. Naturally, the Greek Rayahs of this island are an intelligent people, and only require the introduction of free schools on the American system to make them known for intelligence.

"An American in this magnificent island, on the very confines of civilized Europe, with a population of some 225,000 persons, in this age of intelligence and human progression, observes one strange fact that throughout its whole expanse of three hundred square miles there is not a printing press, and consequently, neither a newspaper, book, nor pamphlet printed or published.

"For its location, natural resources, &c., this island is unrivaled; and if divested of its 'nightmare' of Turkish rule, it would resume its ancient renown of a 'hundred cities,' and a million of inhabitants, almost in the space of the present century.

"The society of the seaports is very limited, and except among the great body of the Greek Rayahs, there is but very little or no social intercourse; and the foreign consuls, leading merchants, and Europeans live in a very secluded, exclusive, and quiet manner, and what are called dinner parties, soirees, balls, &c., are of very rare occurrence. For the number of the population, I believe, comparatively with other sections of Turkey, or in fact any part of the world, there is not much vice or licentiousness."

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#### Art. VI.—TREASURE TROVE:

OR THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD AND OTHER COINS IN MAINE.

It appears from the following statement, prepared by WILLIAM WILLIS, Esq., a gentleman of considerable historical and antiquarian research, that the discovery of a quantity of old coin on the 11th of May, 1855, at Richmond's Island, near Portland, in the State of Maine, has created quite a sensation in Portland and at Cape Elizabeth, and has revived the rumors of a former day that large quantities of money lie buried in the soil of that and other islands in this neighborhood. This impression is not of recent date, nor confined to this region; for ever since the bucaneeers infested the coast of Maine, two hundred years ago, the impression has prevailed that they concealed their treasures upon her islands, where they have been repeatedly sought by visionary men.

But the present case is no vision. A veritable collection of coin of an old date having been found, Mr. Willis was induced to make an investigation into the circumstances; and accompanied by HON. C. S. DAVEIS, Dr. GILMAN DAVEIS, and Dr. JOHN CUMMINGS, the owner of the island, he carefully examined the locality, and there found fragments of the pot in which the coin was buried, and other relics of a former age. Mr. Willis gives a description of the place and the articles discovered, which we deem sufficiently interesting to transfer to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*.\*—

Richmond's Island lies off the southern shore of Cape Elizabeth, the nearest point half a mile distant. It is about a mile long and three-quarters of a mile wide at the broadest part, and contains a little more than 200 acres.

The first settlement made upon this island, of which we have any account,

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\* This account was originally communicated by the writer to the "*State of Maine*."

was by Walter Bagnall, in 1628; he carried on a profitable trade with the Indians, and was killed by them for his extortion, October 3, 1631. Winthrop, in his journal, says he accumulated a large property, £400, by his traffic. Bagnall occupied without title. On December 1, 1631, the Council of Plymouth granted the island and the whole southern part of Cape Elizabeth, from Cammock's Patent of Black Point to Casco Bay, to Robert Trelawny and Moses Goodycare, merchants of Plymouth, England, and sent the patent over to John Winter, their agent, who was one of the adventurers, to the extent of one-tenth, to establish a trading house, and conduct the operations of the plantation. Winter took possession of the grant at once, and entered upon a large business. He built a ship there immediately, probably the bark "Richmond," of 30 tons, and sent to Europe lumber, fish, furs, oil, &c., and received in return wines, liquors, guns, ammunition, and articles necessary for the Indian trade, and to sustain the colony. Several ships were employed in the trade; the names of some of them were the "Agnes," "Richmond," "Hercules," and "Margery." In 1635, a ship of 80 tons, and a pinnace of 10 tons, arrived at the island. In 1638, Winter had sixty men employed there in the fishing business, and the same year Trelawny sent a ship of 300 tons, laden with wine and spirits, to the island. In 1639, Winter sent home in the bark "Richmond," 6,000 pipe-staves, valued at £8 6s. a thousand. The place was for twelve years, from 1633 to 1645, the latter being the year of Winter's death, one of the most important for its trade upon this coast. An Episcopal Church was established there, over which Richard Gibson, an educated man, presided from 1637 to 1640, when he was succeeded by Rev. Robert Jordan. Jordan married Winter's only daughter, inherited his estate, and is the ancestor of the numerous race which bears his name throughout this State and far beyond.

Trelawny, the principal patentee, died in 1644, and Winter in 1645. From that time the plantation declined; its trading operations were abandoned, and probably the island itself, for Jordan established himself on the mainland, near the mouth of the Spurwink River, and there were no persons remaining to sustain its commercial character.

Having given this general historical view, we will proceed to describe the deposit and its particular location:—

**DESCRIPTION OF THE COIN.** The oldest of the coin is silver, of the reign of Elizabeth, of which there are four one-shilling pieces, sixteen sixpences, one groat, or four-penny piece, and two half-groats. All these pieces, as was the case with the whole silver coinage of Elizabeth, bear the same effigy, title, and motto. They are as follows:—On the face is the head of the queen crowned; the rose, an old emblem, behind it; around it her title, ELIZABETH, DEG. ANG: FR: ET: HIB: R. GI: that is, "Elizabeth, by the grace of God, Queen of England, France, and Ireland." On the reverse are the arms of England, France, and Ireland, quartered on a shield, traversed by a cross, around which is the motto: POSVI. DEV. ADIVTOREM. MEV: *i. e.*, *Posui Deum Adjutorem Meum*—I have made God my helper. This motto was first adopted by Edward III., and continued to be used till the time of Charles I. On some of the coin the title and motto are abridged. The shillings have no date, but all the sixpences, and some of the smaller pieces, have the date of coinage over the shield, and on the present collection it extends from 1564, the seventh year of the reign of Elizabeth, to 1593. In her reign both the date and milling the coin were first introduced, but neither was uniformly followed by her or by subsequent princes. Her silver coinage consisted of crowns, half-crowns, shillings, sixpences, groats, half-groats, pennies, three-half-pennies, half-pence, and farthings. No brass or copper money was coined in England before the reign of James I. The shillings of this and the two subsequent reigns are of uniform size, and their weight and value nearly correspond with those of the Spanish quarter of a dollar, but they are broader and thinner.

Of the reign of James I. there are four one-shilling pieces and one sixpence; the shillings are not dated—the sixpence bears date 1606, the fourth year of his reign. The title, motto, and bust on the three pieces are the same: on the face

is the head of the king crowned; behind it, on the shilling pieces, are the figures XII., and on the sixpence VI., to indicate their current value. Around, on the outside of the head, is the title, IACOBUS, D. G. MAG: BRI: FR: ET. HIB: REX.; *i. e.*, *Jacobus, Dei Gratia, Magnæ Britanniae, Franciae, et Hiberniae, Rex.*, James, by the grace of God, King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland. On the reverse is a plain shield, without the cross, on which are quartered the arms of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland; around it the legend or motto, *Quæ Deus conjunxit, Nemo separet*—"What God hath joined, let no man put asunder"—referring to the union of the English and Scottish crowns. On the first coinage in this reign the title was *Jacobus, D. G. Anglæ, Scotiæ, Fr. et Hib. rex*; in the second, the words *Mag. Brit.*, Great Britain, were substituted for England and Scotland. The change took place in 1604, when he assumed the style of King of Great Britain. The shilling pieces in this collection were coined before June, 1605, as is indicated by the *fleur de lys*, which was the mint mark down to that time. The sixpence has the escallop shell, which was the mint mark from July, 1606, to June, 1607.

Of the reign of Charles I. there are but one shilling and one sixpence. On their face they bear the impression of the king's bust, crowned; behind the head the figures indicating the value, XII. on the shilling, and VI. on the sixpence. The sixpence is dated 1625, the first of the reign; the shilling has no date. For the singular fact that in all cases in the three reigns of Elizabeth, James I., and Charles I., only the smaller pieces are dated we cannot account. The title is *Carolus, D. G. Mag. Br. et Hi. rex*; *i. e.*, Charles, by the grace of God, King of Great Britain and Ireland. On the reverse are the Union Arms, quartered as in the preceding reign; but on the shilling the shield is traversed by the cross, its four arms extending to the circumference. The motto is a new one, adopted by Charles, *Christo auspice regno*—I reign under the auspices of Christ.

**GOLD COINS.** The number of gold coins in the collection is twenty-one; of which ten are sovereigns, or units, of the reign of James I., and of the value of twenty shillings, three are half-sovereigns, or double-crowns, of the value of ten shillings each, seven are sovereigns of the reign of Charles I., and one is a Scottish coin of the last year of the reign of James as king of Scotland only. This is the oldest in the collection of gold coins, and is dated 1602, and of the size and value of the half-sovereign, or double-crown. On one side of the piece are a sword and scepter, crossed at an acute angle; between the points at the top is a crown; opposite, on the under part, between the hilt of the sword and the handle of the scepter, is the date 1602; on each side is the national emblem, the thistle. The motto around these emblems is *Salus Populi, Suprema Lex*, *i. e.*, the Safety of the People is the Supreme Law. On the other side is a lion rampant, on a shield; a rose over the crown, and around it the title IACOBUS 6, D. G. R. SCOTORUM; *i. e.*, James VI., by the grace of God, King of the Scots. This is a beautiful coin, and is in a fine state of preservation.

The sovereigns and crowns are subsequent to his accession to the English throne; two of them are of the description which the king denominated "units," from their being the first issued under the United Crowns. On their face they represent the king in armor, crowned, and holding the globe and scepter, around which is the title, *Jacobus, D. G. Mag. Brit., Fran., et Hib. rex*. On the reverse is a shield with the arms of England, France, Scotland, and Ireland, quartered, and surmounted by the crown. On one side of the shield is the letter I, and the other R, which I suppose stand for *Jacobus rex*, King James. The motto *Faciam eos in Gentem Unam*—I will make them one nation; hence the name *Units* or *United*. The mint stamp is an escallop shell, indicating its coinage to be prior to June, 1607.

The other eight of the sovereigns are units, and a later coinage, having the king's head crowned with laurels in the Roman style, for the first time on English coins. They have the same title or motto as those last described. Behind the head are the figures XX., designating their value, twenty shillings. These were called *Laurels*, from the laurel wreath on the head.

The crowns have an impression similar to that on the sovereigns first described,

except that the motto on the reverse is different, viz.: *Henricus rosas Regni Jacobus*, the meaning of which I do not find explained. Henry, the eldest son of the king, a prince of great promise, died in 1612, in the 19th year of his age, much lamented by the nation. Whether the coin has any and what connection with him, I have no means of determining. These have also the letters I R on the sides of the shield. The coinage of James I. consists of Rose Rials, of 30 shillings' value; Spur Rials, 15 shillings; Units, 20 shillings; Angels and Crowns, 10 shillings; and Half-Crowns, 5 shillings.

The last of the series of gold coins are seven of the reign of Charles I., all of the denomination of sovereigns or units, and of the same coinage. They represent the head of the king, crowned and youthful, with a double ruff round his neck, and a robe over his shoulders; the figures XX, behind his head, and the title *Carolus D. G. Mag. Br., Fr., et Hib. rex.* On the reverse a new motto is introduced. *Florent concordia Regna; i. e., Nations flourish by Peace.* In the center the national arms, quartered as usual on a shield, surmounted by a crown.

None of the gold coins have dates, and all the coins, both silver and gold, are much thinner and broader than modern coin of similar value. The impressions are clear and distinct, especially upon the gold coins, which are less worn than the silver, and nearly as bright as when issued.

**THE RING.** The ring is a wedding signet ring of fine gold, weighing 8 penny-weights 4 grains. The signet is oval, six-eighths of an inch by five-eighths in size. On the outer side of the surface is an ornamental border, in the center the letters G. V., a cord passes between the initials with a tie at the top, and love-knot at the bottom. Inside are engraved the word "United," then the figure of two united hearts, and the words "Death only Partes." The workmanship is remarkably good, the letters well formed and sharply cut. The initials probably represent the parties whose hearts are united on the ring, but who they were we are at a loss even to conjecture.

If the initials represent a man and woman, as it is in the highest degree probable that they do, I find no name commencing with V among our early settlers with which to connect it except Richard Vines, one of the patentees of a tract of country on the west side of Saco River, who took possession under his patent in 1630, and continued there, filling a large space in the affairs of the province, until 1645, when he removed to Barbadoes. Vines had at least one daughter, who married Ellicot, and had by him a son named Vines Ellicot, who was living in 1688, and then styled himself a grandson of Captain Richard Vines. There were several persons connected with the early settlements whose names commenced with G, the principal of whom were Gorges, (William and Thomas;) Goodyear, one of the patentees of the island, 1631; Richard Gibson, the Episcopal clergyman whom Winthrop calls a scholar—he had a wife, and preached at the island and Spurwink until 1640, when he was succeeded by Jordan; Walter Gendall, also, who lived at Spurwink as early as 1673, and had a wife. But, after all, the ring may not have been, and most probably was not deposited by the owner; it may have been lost or stolen and trafficked away by the finder, or it may have been handed down from an ancestor.

**LOCATION.** The coins and ring were found in a stone pot of common manufacture, and a beautiful globular shape, resembling a globe lantern. The pot would probably contain a quart, and was found about a foot below the surface, on a slope of land gradually descending from the summit in the center of the island northwesterly to the shore. The spot is about four rods from the bank, which is there elevated 15 or 20 feet above the beach. There are traces of the foundation of buildings about the place; stones from the beach were turned up in plowing; in one place are apparently the foundations of a chimney, and near was a cavity, which had probably been a cellar. The place had not been plowed within the memory of the present generation, if it ever had, until it was broken up last year. This year the plowing was deeper. Mr. Hanscom, the tenant of Dr. Cummings, was holding the plow, and his son, twelve years old, was driving. When the boy came to the place he observed the pot, bottom up, and, picking

it up, said to his father, "I have found it," in allusion to rumors and frequent conversations among the people in the vicinity relative to money having been formerly buried on the island. His father took it, and said, "It is a broken rum-jug of the old settlers; throw it over the bank."

On second thought, he told him to lay it one side on a pile of stones. On turning it up, all that could be seen was earth, caked inside. Another small son of Mr. Hanscom was sitting on the pile of stones where the pot was laid, and began to pick the earth in sport. He soon came to the coin, and their astonishment and excitement may easily be conceived. The contents were regularly arranged on the bottom of the jar; the gold on the edge at one side, the silver on the other, and the ring in the middle.

The whole number of gold pieces was 21; of silver of various sizes, 31—total standard value, \$100. The silver was considerably discolored; the gold very little. Part of the fracture of the pot appeared fresh, as though caused by the recent plowing; the rest was of an earlier date and made, it is conjectured, by the plowing of the previous year. But it is probable from appearances, and from the pieces to complete the jar not being found, that it was a broken vessel when the coin was placed in it.

A piece of lead, which had been bent to adapt it to some object, was found near; but from the circumstance that the pot was filled with hard earth, it is probable that it was not covered, or that the cover had got misplaced. Mr. Hanscom and two other men immediately spaded the earth in the vicinity of the spot, but no more coin or any other valuable thing was found. Some broken pottery, pipes, an iron spoon, piece of a large thick green glass bottle, charcoal, rusty nails and spikes, were scattered about, which the plow had turned up. A building had evidently stood there or near by, but without a cellar.

The question most eagerly asked, and most difficult to answer, is—"How came the treasure there?" No satisfactory answer can be given; we can only approach the answer by conjecture. I have no doubt that the deposit is a solitary case, and can afford no encouragement to the idle rumors that have long prevailed, that large sums of money were many years ago buried on the island. The probability is, that the deposit was made by some inhabitant of the island, or some transient person, for security, and that he either suddenly died or was driven from the island, or was killed by the Indians. That the money found was all that was deposited, there seems no reason to doubt.

My conjecture is that the deposit was made as early as the death of Winter, which took place in 1645: and I go still further, and express the belief that the money is connected with the fate of Walter Bagnall, who was killed by the Sagamore Squidraset and his company, October 3, 1631. Bagnall had one companion with him, a servant or assistant, whom Winthrop calls John P——, the blank we cannot supply. He had accumulated a large estate by trading. Winthrop calls him a wicked fellow, and the Indians were exasperated by his hard usage of them.

The principal part of the silver is of the reign of Elizabeth—only five pieces were of James, and two of Charles—and the date shows one of them to have been coined in 1625. Of the gold, only seven out of the twenty-one pieces were of the time of Charles, and as these must have been coined before the breaking out of the civil war in 1642, they may have been before 1631. The coinage after the civil war commenced was of different patterns, and of much coarser execution than that issued before. That the deposit must have had an early date—before the commencement of the civil war—is evident from the fact that it contains not a piece of coin of a later date than 1642. In 1632 the expedition fitted out at Boston and Piscataqua to pursue Dixy Bull, a pirate who had ravaged Pemaquid, and plundered vessels, on their return stopped at Richmond's Island, and hung up Black Will, an Indian, who had been concerned in the murder of Bagnall.

Now, my solution is that this coin was Bagnall's, concealed by his servant or by some of the Indians, perhaps Black Will, and that it has lain there ever since. In regard to the ring, it probably had no connection with any of those parties,

but may have been received by Bagnall from some of the rovers on the coast or other person who came dishonestly by it, and placed by him with his other treasures.

That the articles were hidden before the Indian war of 1675, is manifest from the absence of any coin of a date thirty years prior to that event, and from the fact that the island had been deserted for many years before the war by all persons who had money to conceal. Jordan himself, the head and leader of that whole region, lived on the main land near the mouth of Spurwink River, where his house was burnt by the Indians in the autumn of 1675, with all its contents, and he barely escaped with his life. The treasure, therefore, is not connected with the Indian war, but its history must be sought in prior events.

PORTLAND, May 22, 1855.

WILLIAM WILLIS.

## JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

### GUARANTY—LIABILITIES OF BANKS.

In the Supreme Court, General Term, June, 1854. Before Judges Mitchell, Rosevelt, and Clerke. *Talman vs. the Rochester City Bank.*

**MITCHELL, J.** The defendants' points state that they may concede that if the bond and mortgage mentioned in this case had been assigned in good faith by Mumford to the Rochester City Bank as security for the debt which he owed to the bank, the bank might (with the consent of Mumford) have assigned the bond and mortgage to another, and guarantied the payment of the bond and mortgage. But that the distinction was manifest between the right of the bank to guaranty choses in action belonging to it and its right to guaranty those belonging to another. The concession is right, and a bank may certainly assign or convey any property held by it, and may enter into the common covenants of guaranty or warranty, or making such assignment or conveyance. This right is a matter of substance and not of form; as a formal contrivance complying in all outward respects with the requirements of the rule would be a nullity if it was in fact a mere contrivance, and the substance of the transaction were contrary to the rule; so if the case before the Court is in substance within the rule, and only needs a formality to bring it in all respects within it, the omission of the form should be disregarded, and the substance alone looked to; for it is not a question whether the bank has used the requisite forms or not, but whether it had any power or capacity to do the thing which it has done, in any possible form; whether the bank had any powers, functions, or franchises, to guaranty in such a case, not whether it had used all the requisite forms, which would clearly show that it had such right. This is not like the case when that which partakes of the character of form is made necessary by statute; then the seeming form becomes essential and matter of substance by the effect of the statute—as when a bank is forbidden to issue circulating notes unless payable on demand or at its place of business. If the bank has the power or capacity to give its guaranty under the circumstances of this case, there is no statute against this form of doing it. The counsel for the plaintiff accordingly insists that the transaction in question was, in effect as well as in form, a guaranty by the bank, of securities in which it had an interest. This requires an examination of the arrangements made between the parties, as shown by the complaint. On the 1st of August, 1838, Mumford was indebted to the bank in a large sum of money, and the bank was desirous of obtaining payment; Mumford, in order to procure the means of payment, and it is to be inferred in compliance with this desire, assigned to the American Life Insurance and Trust Company the first six installments (amounting to \$14,250) of a bond and mortgage which he held from one Ingersoll. It was made a condition of the purchase that the bank should guaranty the final collection of those installments and of the interest to become due thereon; and the bank did ac-

cordingly execute to the Trust Company its guaranty, which was delivered to the Trust Company at the same time and place that Mumford assigned to the company the bond and mortgage. Mumford received the consideration money for the assignment and guaranty, and applied the funds to payment of his indebtedness to the bank. His negotiation of the sale (as is admitted by the pleadings) was with the knowledge and assent of the bank, and for the mutual benefit of himself and of the bank. The guaranty executed by the bank recites that Mumford being indebted to the bank had proposed, as is to be inferred to the bank, to sell the bond and mortgage for the purpose of applying the funds of the first six installments upon his indebtedness to the bank, upon receiving from the bank their guaranty of the said installments and interest thereon, to enable him to effect the sale, and that Mumford, in pursuance of that arrangement, had executed an assignment of the bond and mortgage to the Trust Company, with a covenant guarantying the collection of the principal and interest, and then in consideration of the premises, and of one dollar paid by the Trust Company, the bank guaranties to the company the final collection of the said installments, and of the interests thereon, and reserves to itself the right, upon any default in payment of principal or interest, to pay the amount then unpaid to the company, and to have the bond and mortgage assigned to the bank, if the bank so elect. The mortgaged premises were sold on foreclosure, and on a final sale on 24th November, 1851, only realized \$5,150, which was their fair value on the last-mentioned day. Ingersoll was insolvent, and removed from the State, and nothing could be collected from him. The bank is called upon to fulfill its guaranty, and insists that it had no legal capacity to make such a guaranty, and that it is not therefore liable on it. From this statement it is plain that Mumford held the bond and mortgage, and arranged with the bank to convert it into money for the benefit of the bank, and to apply the money to be received to pay his debt to the bank, and that in pursuance of this arrangement communicated to the Trust Company, he assigned the bond and mortgage to the company, and the bank at the same time guarantied to the company the payment of the bond and mortgage, or of the first six installments on it, and that Mumford received the money from the Trust Company, and applied the proceeds to the payment of his debt to the bank. If Mumford had assigned the bond and mortgage to the bank, and the bank had assigned them to the company, and guarantied the payment, as it did, it is conceded that the bank would have been liable. The only difference is that the one transfer from Mumford to the bank that would have been necessary in that case was omitted, and Mumford, to simplify the transaction, assigned directly to the company. This was a mere matter of form in conveyancing, and neither the one form nor the other can be considered in any degree as an attempt to enlarge the franchises of the bank. The measure of a franchise is never determined by immaterial forms. The question always is what power or capacity has been given, not whether the power is exercised in a particular form. In substance, the bank had an interest in the bond and mortgage—the arrangement made between it and Mumford, that he should assign the bond and mortgage for their benefit, or assign them and apply the proceeds to pay his debt to them, gave them such an interest in this bond and mortgage that to some extent the bond and mortgage were the property of the bank. It was agreed to be theirs when it was agreed that the proceeds should be theirs; and when this agreement was carried out, and became an executed contract, it made the bond and mortgage as much to have been theirs by relation during the process of completing the arrangement, as if there had been an express contract, of a sufficient consideration to assign the bond and mortgage directly to the bank, that the bank might assign to the company.

It was contended that in some respects the complaint set forth not facts, but the evidence of facts only. If the facts stated are such that if they were found as stated, the plaintiff must recover by operation of law, then the plaintiff has set forth a sufficient cause of action. So when the plaintiff alleges the execution of the guaranty by the bank, under its seal, and the guaranty recites the consideration on which it was executed, and that is a lawful and sufficient con-

sideration, that is *prima facie* enough. A statement of certain evidence from which the law draws a conclusion of fact is in effect a statement of that fact; but a statement of evidence from which the law would not draw a conclusion of fact, but which would be left to a jury to find one way or the other, although it be so clear that a jury ought to find only one way, may not be sufficient in pleading. So it might be that it would not in pleading be a sufficient allegation of unseaworthiness of a ship to allege that she set sail, and on the same day, without encountering any storm or casualty, foundered at sea, although a jury would be bound, on such evidence, to find that she was unseaworthy. In pleading it might be insufficient, because by possibility the ship still was seaworthy when she left her port. Yet, even in such a case, it may be doubtful whether the proper remedy is by demurrer, when the party has a more appropriate remedy by moving to make the pleading more definite and certain. The judgment appealed from should be affirmed, with costs.

SHIPMENT OF GOODS—CONSIGNMENTS, ETC.

In the Supreme Court, Special Term, (1854.) Before Judge Clerke, Beeche & Kuramdt vs. Stephani and others.

This was a motion to dissolve an injunction relative to importations of German goods, amounting to \$70,000.

DECISION. P. A. Milberg, of Hamburg, Germany, consigned to the plaintiffs four different shipments of merchandise, with instructions to deliver the same to Jacob Rybach, one of the defendants, upon payment of the freight and expenses. Upon the arrival, in December last, of two of the consignments, by the ships Rastede and Donan, they delivered to Rybach the bills of lading for them, on receiving from him the amount which they demanded for the said charges. Soon after this, the plaintiffs received notice from Milberg, and from other defendants in this action, that the latter claimed to be entitled to the goods embraced in the several consignments, and cautioning them not to part with the possession of the property and of the bills of lading to Rybach, on the ground that he had fraudulently obtained possession of it from them, being merchants and manufacturers in Vienna; that he pretended to purchase the goods with the design of never paying for them, and of causing them to be conveyed secretly to the United States; and, to carry out such design, he caused the goods to be secretly removed from Vienna to Hamburg, and there shipped by Milberg, who was not then aware of the fraud, to New York, whither Rybach himself soon after took passage. On receiving this confirmation, and before Rybach (with the exception of two cases, each containing a piano forte,) obtained actual possession of the property out of the public store, where they then remained in the custody of the collector, the plaintiffs applied, on the 30th December last, to one of the justices of this Court for an injunction, which was granted, to restrain him and the other claimants from taking possession and disposing of the property, and for the appointment of a receiver, praying in their complaint that the defendants may be required to interplead and settle their conflicting claims; and that they, the plaintiffs, may be absolved from all liability in the premises. The plaintiffs allege, in their complaint, that they have no interest in the goods; that they do not collude with the defendants or any of them, and that this action is commenced solely for their own protection. They further allege, that after the commencement of this action, and after service of the injunction on Rybach, he entered into a stipulation, on which an order was duly entered, by which it was agreed that Mr. Charles Looseg, the Austrian Consul, should be appointed receiver of all the goods comprised in the four shipments, with liberty to make sales, and to retain the proceeds to await the further order of the Court; but that Rybach, in evasion of these proceedings, and in violation of the injunction, made a pretended sale to Stephani, since made a defendant by amendment, and fraudulently continued with him to have goods, which were imported in the Rastede, removed from the public store, and afterwards placed in the store No. 112 Liberty-street; after which they were delivered by Rybach to Coronna and Littenfelt, as commission merchants, for sale on his account.

On these facts the plaintiffs now apply for an extension of the injunction and receivership, so as to embrace the proceeds of the goods that might have been sold, and the documentary evidences of title to all of the goods—for a receivership against Stephani, and an attachment against Rybach for a violation of the injunction. The defendants, Ryback and Stephani, move severally for a dissolution of the injunction with costs against the plaintiffs, upon affidavits denying many of the facts alleged by the plaintiffs in their original and amended complaint, and in their affidavits. Instances are continually occurring, especially in a commercial community, where from peculiar and unforeseen circumstances, a person who owes a debt, or has incurred a liability, is unable to determine, without serious risk, to which of several adverse claimants it should be rendered; and, to prevent the probable or even possible injustice or vexation, arising from the prosecution of actions by any or all the claimants, this Court will compel them to test their claims by judicial investigation in an action between themselves; in other words, the Court will compel them to interplead, on the application of the person owing the duty or liability, and will relieve him from further responsibility. The plaintiff, however, must show that he does not collude with any of the claimants; that the claims are what, under the old distinctions, were denominated legal; that priority should subsist between him and the defendants; that he is in possession, actually or constructively; that he does not claim any interest in the property in dispute, and that he can in no other way be protected from an oppressive or vexatious litigation, in which he has no personal interest. It matters not in what capacity the plaintiff has incurred the debt or liability—whether as a stockholder or tenant, or an ordinary agent, or as a public officer, or as an accidental recipient of the property. He has a right to claim the equitable intervention of the Court, for his complete indemnification and relief.

I am of opinion that the plaintiffs are entitled to all the relief they ask, and that the applications made by Rybach and Stephani to dissolve the injunction, should be denied without costs.

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LIBEL TO RECOVER FOR SALVAGE SERVICES.

In United States District Court, before Judge Ingersoll. Decision in Admiralty. Isaac C. Phillips et al. vs. the ship United States.

This libel is filed to recover a salvage compensation for services rendered to the ship United States, by the steamtugs Hercules and Underwriter. The ship, worth from \$10,000 to \$15,000, and having on board a cargo of about a thousand tons of railroad iron, worth about \$45,000, while bound into the port of New York about two or three o'clock P. M., on the 11th of March, 1853, ran on the outer middle shoal about three miles from Sandy Hook. There was seventeen or eighteen feet of water on the shoal, and the ship drawing about nineteen, was carried over the shoal by force of the sea and the wind, which was blowing a gale from the northeast. Soon after she had a signal for a pilot, and was spoken by one; but the sea was so rough, that he could not then board her. He then fore directed the captain of the ship to follow his boat and he would lead him into deep water. The direction was followed till the ship arrived near the point of the Hook, when the pilot was enabled to board her, and she then proceeded under his direction as far as the Southwest Spit. She could then proceed no farther up the harbor, as the wind was dead ahead. When the pilot went on board, the ship—which was an old one—from thumping over the outer middle, was leaking badly.

The necessary hands being at the pumps, and after her arrival at the Southwest Spit, the captain and pilot consulted for her safety, and thereupon the pilot ordered a signal set for the steamtug Hercules, which, having that day towed down a schooner from New York to lighten the Avalanta, which was ashore outside of the Hook, was about two miles from the ship in the Lower Bay, looking for business in her ordinary occupation of towing vessels up and down the harbor. The evidence was contradictory as to whether the signal was an ordinary

one for a tow, or a signal of distress. The Hercules came in obedience to the signal, and took hold of the ship between four and five P. M., and the captain of the ship told the captain of the Hercules that the ship was leaking badly, and that the water was gaining on them.

The Hercules not being able to tow her with as much dispatch as was desired, a signal was set from the ship for the Underwriter, which had also gone down in search of business. The Underwriter immediately obeyed the signal, and the two tugs brought the ship in safety up the harbor, although from the leak she settled one or two feet while coming up, and ran her upon a mud-bottom in the Atlantic Dock between nine and ten o'clock at night. This was on Friday, and by the following Wednesday she filled with water. The usual price paid to a steamtug for towing a vessel up from the Lower Bay varies from \$25 to \$100, according to the state of the weather and the difficulties of the case.

Held by the Court: That the weight of evidence is, that the signal set was not a signal of distress, but a signal for a tow. In obeying the signal, the tugs went to her aid, expecting and agreeing to engage in the business which the signal indicated. But although the tugs started for the ship with the view to render a towage service merely, yet if the ship, when the tugs came to her assistance, was, in point of fact, in a condition where loss or serious damage was reasonably to be apprehended from her leaky condition, in connection with the boisterous state of the weather—if she was encountering a threatened or impending peril, from which she was rescued by the tugs—then, although the signal set by the ship was only for a tow, and although when the tugs started for the ship in obedience to the signal, they understood that they were wanted only for towage service, they would be entitled to be compensated for a salvage. For where a ship or its lading is saved from impending peril by the service of any persons, upon whom there is no obligation to render the service, then such service is to be compensated as a salvage.

A mere towage service is confined to vessels which have received no damage which puts them in peril of loss. A mere towage compensation is payable in those cases only where the vessel receiving the service is in the same condition she would ordinarily be without having encountered any damage or accident. And if a towage engagement merely leads to the rescue of a ship from an imminent danger, it should be remunerated as salvage. (3 Hag., 428.)

That the Court does not find as a fact that the ship and cargo would have been lost or greatly damaged, if she had not been rescued by the tugs, but does find that there was danger of such loss, or great damage, and that the ship was rescued from that peril by the tugs, and the compensation which the libelants are entitled to have received for their services must be a salvage compensation. That there was but little, if any, more labor and peril incurred by the tugs than would have been incurred in such weather in performing a towage service; that they manifested promptitude in obeying the signal, but were not diverted from their proper and usual employment, but were engaged in it; that the libelants have experienced but trifling injury or loss by the service which they have rendered, no more than probably would have been sustained if the ship had not by her leaky condition been exposed to impending peril—and that under all the circumstances, the case demands only a moderate compensation. Decree, therefore, that the libelants recover the sum of \$1,000, to be divided equally between the two tugs.

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#### COMMERCIAL LAW OF PARTNERSHIP.

The Pittsburgh *Commercial Journal* publishes a case which was lately (1855) argued and decided in the District Court of Alleghany county, before Judges Hampton and Williams, involving some interesting questions relating to the rights and duties of partners. As the matter was amicably adjusted before the decision was announced, the names of the parties need not be given; but for the information of our readers, many of whom are interested in the questions, we

give a synopsis of the points decided, taken from the opinion filed by his Honor, Judge Hampton:—

On the 29th of October, 1853, three persons entered into articles of partnership to carry on the "General Foundry Business" for the term of five years. One of the partners becoming dissatisfied, various proposals to purchase or sell were made without coming to any agreement. At length, on the 9th of June, one of the partners delivered to his co-partner a note, stating that "in order to get rid of any further difficulties or trouble with you, I will leave the concern and give you all that I have put in, or any interest that I have in it forthwith." On the 11th of June an answer was returned as follows: "I accept your proposition as you have pleased to make it in your note of June 9, 1855." The retiring partner, on receiving this answer, demanded indemnity against the outstanding debts and liabilities of the firm, amounting to several thousand dollars. The remaining partners refused to give such indemnity, but assumed the possession and control of the firm, and commenced to carry on the business in their own names.

A bill in Chancery was then filed by the retiring partner, setting forth the foregoing facts, and praying the Court to decree a dissolution of the partnership, and an account to be taken, and asking for an injunction to prevent the remaining partners from using the property and carrying on the business for their own benefit, and for a suitable person to be appointed as a receiver to take charge of the property and assets of the partnership, and wind up the business, unless the complainant was indemnified against the debts and liabilities of the firm. The case came on to be heard upon a motion by the complainant for the appointment of a receiver, and was fully argued by counsel. For the complainant it was contended—

That although the articles stipulated for the continuance of the partnership for five years, yet it might at any time be dissolved by agreement of the parties, or by decree of the Court of Chancery for misconduct on the part of one or more of the parties.

That whether the offer by complainant and the acceptance of defendants was binding and operated as a dissolution or not, still the defendants' conduct was wrongful, and justified the appointment of a receiver, inasmuch as they refused to indemnify the retiring partner, and were applying the property to their own use.

That in equity the retiring party was entitled to indemnity, although not mentioned in his offer, and his right to such indemnity could only be defeated by an express waiver.

That while the partnership continued, each partner was entitled to participate in the management, and upon dissolution, the first duty of all the partners was to wind up the business, and apply the property to discharge the liabilities of the firm; so that in either aspect the defendants had no right to assume control of the property and carry on the business for themselves without the consent of the retiring partner. And having done so, the Court should appoint a receiver.

For the defendants it was contended—

That the complainant had voluntarily offered to quit the concern, and give up his interest without any demand of indemnity, and that offer being accepted, he was bound by it, and could not impose the new terms of indemnity.

That if the Court was of opinion there had been no dissolution, the defendants were still willing to go on under the articles.

That they acted under a supposed right in carrying on the business in their own names, and intended to pay the debts as fast as practicable.

That the appointment of a receiver would be highly injurious to them, and the interests of the firm, and no irremediable injury had been shown requiring such appointment.

An elaborate opinion of the Court was filed on Wednesday last by Hampton, President Judge, holding—

1. That the correspondence between the parties did not warrant the belief that the complainant intended to give up his interest in the partnership and remain liable for its outstanding debts and responsibilities without security against them, and strong conclusive evidence would be required to establish such as the intention and understanding of the parties, and there was no express waiver of indemnity.

2. That unless there was an express waiver of indemnity, the retiring party would, in equity, be entitled to have the business wound up and the property applied to discharge the liabilities of the partnership, or else to have adequate security and indemnity against them.

3. That it made no difference whether the offer and acceptance of the 9th and 11th of June operated as a dissolution or not, because if the partnership continued, the defendants had no right to exclude the complainant from his fair share of the management, and if it was dissolved, they had no right to appropriate the property to their own use, and leave the complainant responsible for the debts of the concern, without indemnity or security, and against his consent.

4. That the defendants, having deliberately excluded the complainant from all participation in the business of the firm, changed its name, opened new books, taken and used the partnership property in carrying on their own business, with full knowledge that the complainant refused to terminate the partnership until he was indemnified, there is no course left for the Court to pursue but to decree a dissolution and appoint a receiver, unless the defendants pay the debts of the firm or secure the complainant against liability for the same.

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#### WHAT CONSTITUTES A DRAFT OR INLAND BILL OF EXCHANGE.

A case of some interest has been decided in the Cuyahoga Common Pleas by Judge Starkweather. The point resolved was—what constitutes a draft or inland bill of exchange. Suit had been brought on a piece of paper, which read as follows: "Cleveland, June 30, 1853—Wicks, Otis & Brownell, pay to L. F. Burgess, or order, on the 13th day of July, 1853, three hundred dollars." Signed, R. B. Baily; indorsed, L. F. Burgess. Demand and notice were made on the 16th July, instead of the 13th, the holders treating the paper as an inland bill of exchange or draft, allowing three days' grace. It was set up in the defense, in behalf of the indorser, that the paper in question was a bank check, Wicks, Otis & Brownell being bankers, and therefore not entitled to grace. After able arguments, the case was submitted to the Court. The Judge held—

1. That the only question to be determined was whether the instrument in question was a bill of exchange or a bank check *eo nomine*. If a bill of exchange, then it was entitled to grace, not only by the general rule governing commercial paper, but by positive statute enactment, which no evidence of local usage could be permitted to control.

2. That even if local usage could be admitted, it was shown in this case that there was no uniform usage with the banks of Cleveland upon the subject.

3. That whether the paper in suit was an inland draft or a bank check, *sui generis*, was to be determined by inspection of the instrument itself, applying to it those tests which commercial law has established for distinguishing the one class of paper from the other.

4. That on examination of the paper itself, it seemed to lack some of the ordinary qualities of a bank check, being payable to order instead of to bearer, and at a future time, instead of immediately or on demand; whereas it was found to possess all the requisites, and to answer precisely to the definition of a bill of exchange, as recognized in the books and by the commercial world, and must therefore be declared to be a draft, and entitled to grace under the statute.

Judgment for plaintiffs.

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**COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.**

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REVIVAL OF THE SHIPPING INTEREST—PROSPECTS FOR BREADSTUFFS IN FRANCE, GERMANY, GREAT BRITAIN, AND THE UNITED STATES—STATE OF THE MONEY MARKET—BANK WAR AT THE NORTH-WEST—BANK MOVEMENT IN NEW YORK, BOSTON, AND OHIO—BUSINESS AT NEW YORK ASSAY OFFICE AND NEW ORLEANS MINT—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR AUGUST AND FROM JANUARY 1ST.—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS—EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK FOR AUGUST AND FROM JANUARY 1ST.—EXPORTS OF PRODUCE—RECEIPTS FOR CASH DUTIES—EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR—FOREIGN EXCHANGE, ETC.

THE business of the country has become more animated, with a decided improvement in many important particulars. The revival of the shipping trade will give a fresh impulse to a large class of business operations. It is already felt in the market value of ships. The price of staunch old vessels has been advanced 20 per cent, while a long list of new vessels, some of which have been offered in the market for nearly a year, have at last been sold, and in many cases at \$10 per ton more than was asked during the last spring and summer. This improvement is owing in part to the general revival of trade, in nearly all parts of the world, but especially to the demand for freight from our own ports. Cotton comes forward earlier, and will be freely exported. The great business of the next year, after cotton, is to be in breadstuffs. There is now no question but what the harvests of Europe have sadly disappointed the hopes of the people. In Germany the yield is far below the average, and the demand for rye from this country has already been active. Several cargoes have already cleared for Antwerp, and over a quarter of a million of bushels of rye have been contracted for to arrive at the seaboard for the same destination. In France the grain crop is also deficient, and much excitement has already been felt there in regard to the future. We learn of engagements in French markets for large deliveries of wheat and flour three or four months ahead, at very full prices. We doubt, however, if this business is well managed in that country. It is something so novel that the merchants appear to be always at one extreme or the other. Last year a large majority of the imports from this country, were neither suitable in quality nor landed at the proper season; while a great many cargoes sent out on French account were ordered to England for a market. In Great Britain there is less said about any deficiency, but the crop is below an average, and the English must be heavy importers of breadstuffs. This was caused, not as many appear to suppose, by the rains of the summer, but by the severe cold of last winter. The thermometer was at zero for a considerable length of time, with unfavorable winds, and much of the wheat was winter-killed. The demand for food for Europe is now directed to the United States. Our own crops were somewhat injured in the gathering, owing to the wet weather, but the damage has been limited and local, while the actual yield is greater than ever before known in the history of the country. In the Genesee Valley, and in Ohio, where some of the best white wheat is raised, the damage is serious, but in most other parts of the country the injury is nominal. In the Far West and Northwest, the yield is enormous; and Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin, the last three especially, have raised wheat enough to feed the whole country, with a surplus

to spare. The Canadian wheat, much of it very choice, will fully supply in our markets the deficiency in Genesee. What effect the foreign demand will have upon prices, it is yet too soon to determine. If no such demand had arisen, breadstuffs would have been lower throughout the country than for many years. If the crop now harvested could be sent at once to market, the export movement would only bring the market value up to paying prices. But the harvest, owing to the wet weather already noticed, was several weeks later than usual, and this brings the work of threshing, &c., too near to seeding-time for the farmer's convenience. Still the quantity already in movement is very large. The channels of communication, both by water and railroad, are becoming choked with the quantity on its way to market, and unless this movement is interrupted by an early frost closing navigation, or the exporters become excited, and bid upon each other, we see no reason to anticipate such prices as shall be uncomfortable for the home consumers. Indian corn is promising beyond all former precedent; the warm weather during the first two weeks of September was of almost incalculable benefit to the crop, and unless something quite unexpected occur, the yield will be immense. This, of course, will not be available for the current season, but it brings out all the old corn, and thus the supply is far in advance of what even the most sanguine anticipated.

Money has been more in demand in all parts of the country, and rates of interest are about one per cent higher than the average of last month. This is brought about by no want of confidence, but appears to be simply the result of the requirements for capital to move the crops, and to meet the revival of business on all sides. There has been a sturdy movement among the Western bankers who are operating under a general banking law requiring a deposit of public stocks, to drive out from immediate competition with their circulation, currency from other states which is not thus secured. One or more chartered banks in Georgia have been the most direct objects of attack, and we are rather disposed to agree with the assailants that the bills of such institutions are too far from home, in Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin. We shall be glad to see the day, when all bank bills below \$5 are banished from circulation. We have gold and silver enough to supply the place of the small notes, and the exchange would much increase the comfort and prosperity of the poorer classes, who are always the greatest sufferers by all bank swindles.

The following will show the bank movement at New York 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   | 6,681,855    | 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           | 17,459,196   | 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    | 75,958,344   |
| 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..    | 47,855,665   | 94,499,394           | 14,968,004   | 7,771,524    | 77,313,908   |

| Date.         | Capital.   | Loans<br>and discounts. | Specie.    | Circulation. | Deposits.  |
|---------------|------------|-------------------------|------------|--------------|------------|
| April 14 ...  | 47,855,665 | 94,140,399              | 14,890,979 | 7,523,528    | 77,282,242 |
| April 21 ...  | 47,855,665 | 93,632,893              | 14,355,041 | 7,510,124    | 75,744,921 |
| April 28 ...  | 47,855,665 | 92,505,951              | 14,282,424 | 7,610,985    | 76,219,951 |
| May 5 ....    | 47,855,665 | 93,093,243              | 14,325,050 | 8,087,609    | 78,214,169 |
| May 12 ....   | 47,855,665 | 91,642,498              | 14,585,626 | 7,804,977    | 75,850,592 |
| May 19 ....   | 47,855,665 | 91,675,500              | 15,225,056 | 7,638,630    | 77,351,218 |
| May 26 ....   | 48,684,730 | 91,160,518              | 15,314,532 | 7,489,637    | 75,765,740 |
| June 2 ....   | 48,684,730 | 91,197,653              | 15,397,674 | 7,553,609    | 76,343,236 |
| June 9 ....   | 48,684,730 | 92,109,097              | 15,006,155 | 7,502,568    | 77,128,789 |
| June 16 ....  | 48,633,380 | 93,100,385              | 14,978,558 | 7,452,161    | 77,894,454 |
| June 23 ....  | 48,633,380 | 94,029,425              | 14,705,629 | 7,385,653    | 79,113,135 |
| June 30 ....  | 48,633,380 | 95,573,212              | 15,641,970 | 7,394,964    | 81,903,965 |
| July 7 ....   | 48,633,380 | 97,852,491              | 15,381,093 | 7,743,069    | 85,647,249 |
| July 14 ....  | 48,833,380 | 98,521,002              | 16,576,506 | 7,515,724    | 85,664,186 |
| July 21 ....  | 48,833,380 | 99,029,147              | 15,918,999 | 7,407,086    | 82,079,590 |
| July 28 ....  | 48,833,380 | 99,083,799              | 15,920,976 | 7,409,498    | 81,625,788 |
| Aug. 4 ....   | 48,833,380 | 100,118,569             | 15,298,358 | 7,642,903    | 83,279,990 |
| Aug. 11 ....  | 48,833,380 | 100,774,209             | 15,280,669 | 7,714,401    | 83,141,320 |
| Aug. 18 ....  | 48,833,380 | 101,154,060             | 14,649,245 | 7,610,106    | 81,948,671 |
| Aug. 25 ....  | 48,833,380 | 100,604,604             | 13,326,378 | 7,582,095    | 81,278,558 |
| Sept. 1 ....  | 48,833,380 | 100,436,970             | 12,852,823 | 7,620,178    | 81,057,210 |
| Sept. 8 ....  | 48,833,380 | 100,273,733             | 12,006,625 | 7,861,143    | 80,442,478 |
| Sept. 15 .... | 48,833,380 | 99,397,009              | 12,213,240 | 7,721,825    | 80,510,306 |

The highest point reached in loans since the weekly statements commenced, a period of over two years, was on August 18th, when the total was upwards of one hundred and one millions of dollars. The highest point in specie was during the week ending February 3d, when the total was nearly seventeen-and-a-half millions of dollars. The large receipts at Sub-Treasury for duties, the shipments to all parts of the interior, to the West for the produce movement, to the South for the purchase of exchange and the protection of some of the Georgia banks now run upon, and to Canada to equalize the exchanges, have absorbed a portion of the gold, having taken up more than the total received from California, and the quantity in bank is daily diminishing. Still, the banks at New York are relatively stronger than when the weekly statement commenced, as they had then only \$9,746,452 in specie, against \$97,889,617 in loans.

The Boston banks have shown an increase in both loans and specie:—

## WEEKLY AVERAGES AT BOSTON.

|                        | August 21.   | August 27.   | September 3. | September 10. | September 17. |
|------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|
| Capital .....          | \$32,710,000 | \$32,710,000 | \$32,710,000 | \$32,710,000  | \$32,710,000  |
| Loans and discounts... | 53,683,440   | 53,683,440   | 53,763,243   | 54,242,035    | 54,209,816    |
| Specie.....            | 3,347,014    | 3,347,014    | 3,441,552    | 3,485,528     | 3,442,136     |
| Due from other banks   | 7,168,806    | 7,168,806    | 7,836,889    | 8,021,430     | 8,113,861     |
| Due to other banks..   | 5,763,171    | 5,763,171    | 5,867,499    | 6,068,681     | 6,326,850     |
| Deposits .....         | 15,241,003   | 15,241,003   | 15,918,474   | 15,961,681    | 15,650,018    |
| Circulation .....      | 7,128,563    | 7,128,563    | 7,144,870    | 7,559,765     | 7,640,147     |

The country banks of Massachusetts keep most of their specie funds at the agency appointed for the redemption of their bills. The following is the condition of the country banks September 1, 1855, compiled from the returns to the Secretary of State:—

|                       |              |                           |              |
|-----------------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------|
| Capital .....         | \$25,922,350 | Notes, bills of exchange, |              |
| Net circulation.....  | 12,243,512   | &c.....                   | \$45,886,784 |
| Deposits.....         | 6,562,828    | Specie .....              | 1,030,704    |
| Profits on hand ..... | 2,721,442    | Real estate .....         | 532,664      |
| Total.....            | \$47,450,132 | Total.....                | \$47,450,132 |

We also annex a quarterly bank statement, exhibiting the condition of the several incorporated banking institutions of the State of Ohio on the first Monday of August, 1855, as shown by their returns made under oath to the Auditor of State, as compared with the returns for the quarter ending in May:—

| RESOURCES.                            |              |              |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
|                                       | Aug., 1855.  | May, 1855.   |
| Discounts.....                        | \$12,657,226 | \$13,839,818 |
| Specie.....                           | 1,978,145    | 1,854,865    |
| Notes of other banks.....             | 1,328,422    | 1,387,665    |
| Due from other banks.....             | 1,081,487    | 958,554      |
| Eastern deposits.....                 | 2,389,664    | 1,771,903    |
| Cash items.....                       | 76,723       | 103,339      |
| Bonds of State and United States..... | 2,590,478    | 2,480,718    |
| Real estate.....                      | 401,506      | 344,282      |
| Other resources.....                  | 1,194,344    | 1,169,651    |
|                                       |              |              |
| LIABILITIES.                          |              |              |
| Capital stock.....                    | \$5,775,250  | \$5,670,750  |
| Circulation.....                      | 8,527,489    | 8,381,253    |
| Safety fund stock.....                | 1,038,109    | 1,006,303    |
| Due banks and bankers.....            | 995,625      | 1,870,125    |
| Due depositors.....                   | 6,050,934    | 5,646,450    |
| Surplus.....                          | 751,362      | 779,351      |
| Time drafts.....                      | 18,692       | 48,175       |
| Discount interest.....                | 233,213      | 29,585       |
| Dividend unpaid.....                  | 6,740        | 119,218      |
| Other liabilities.....                | 250,530      | 287,583      |

The above shows a decrease of \$1,182,692 in discounts; an increase of \$123,280 in specie; \$617,761 in Eastern deposits; \$504,500 in capital stock; \$146,236 in circulation; and \$414,484 in deposits. The variations, it is seen, are very slight. A further reduction has been made in the capital of the Ohio Life and Trust Company Bank, which is now only \$223,000, against \$311,000 in May, and \$511,000 in February. The outstanding circulation of the Miami Valley Bank is \$103,310, and of the Savings Bank of Cincinnati, \$2,855.

The receipts of gold from California continue as large as usual, but as a considerable portion of it does not find its way to the Assay Office, it is not included in any of the mint statements. The following will show the business at the New York Assay Office for the month of August:—

## DEPOSITS AT THE ASSAY OFFICE, NEW YORK, FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST.

|                                      | Gold.       | Silver.  | Total.      |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|----------|-------------|
| Foreign coins.....                   | \$3,000     | \$2,900  | \$5,900     |
| Foreign bullion.....                 | 31,000      | 1,750    | 32,750      |
| Domestic bullion.....                | 2,216,000   | 15,750   | 2,231,750   |
| Total deposits.....                  | \$2,250,000 | \$20,400 | \$2,270,400 |
| Total deposits payable in bars.....  |             |          | \$2,230,400 |
| Total deposits payable in coins..... |             |          | 40,000      |

Of the deposits of gold, \$75,000 was in California mint bars.

The Philadelphia Mint did very little business, having been closed for repairs. The following is a statement of the deposits and coinage at the Branch Mint, New Orleans, from the 1st August, 1854, to the 31st July, 1855, inclusive:—

| GOLD DEPOSITS.                           |                   |                |
|--|-------------------|----------------|
| California gold bullion .....            | \$490,990 92      |                |
| Other gold bullion.....                  | 26,189 83         |                |
|  | \$517,180 75      |                |
| SILVER DEPOSITS.                         |                   |                |
| Extracted from California gold . . . . . | \$3,449 13        |                |
| Other silver bullion .....               | 2,417,630 26      |                |
|  | 2,421,079 39      |                |
| Total gold and silver deposits .....     |                   | \$2,938,260 14 |
| GOLD COINAGE.                            |                   |                |
| Double eagles.....                       | 3,000             | \$60,000 00    |
| Eagles .....                             | 11,500            | 115,000 00     |
| Quarter eagles .....                     | 21,000            | 52,500 00      |
| Gold dollars .....                       | 50,000            | 50,000 00      |
| Three dollars .....                      | 24,000            | 72,000 00      |
|  | 109,500           | \$349,500 00   |
| SILVER COINAGE.                          |                   |                |
| Half-dollars.....                        | 3,018,000         | \$1,509,000 00 |
| Quarter dollars.....                     | 932,000           | 233,000 00     |
| Dimes .....                              | 640,000           | 64,000 00      |
| Half dimes .....                         | 1,020,000         | 51,000 00      |
|  | 5,610,000         | 1,857,000 00   |
| Pieces .....                             |                   | 1,857,000 00   |
| Total coinage .....                      | 5,719,500 pieces. | \$2,206,500 00 |

There was no coining during the months of April, May, June, and July, operations in the coining department having been suspended for the purpose of putting up a new engine.

The imports of foreign merchandise of all descriptions at the port of New York for the month of August were \$6,577,734 less than for August, 1854, and \$3,687,375 less than for August, 1853, but \$1,197,711 greater than for August, 1852. This is in accordance with the intimation given in our last number, and here we think that the comparative decline will cease. Our readers will remember that the imports, which had increased to an amount unprecedented in the history of our Commerce, began to recede in September of last year, the total for that month being \$3,025,816 less than for September, 1853, and with a single exception (February, 1855,) every month since has shown a falling off from the corresponding period of the previous twelve months. For the year ending August 31, the total imports at this port were \$46,186,914 less than for the year ending August 31, 1854, a decline far more rapid and important than the previous increase. A very considerable portion of the decline for the last month is in goods entered for warehousing, the receipts being taken for consumption as fast as landed, while last year the excess above the wants of the trade was so great that over four millions went into public store. We annex a comparative statement for the month:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR AUGUST.

|                                 | 1852.        | 1853.        | 1854.        | 1855.        |
|---------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Entered for consumption.....    | \$13,711,421 | \$16,788,352 | \$17,479,992 | \$13,899,758 |
| Entered for warehousing.....    | 464,962      | 2,226,299    | 4,123,787    | 1,356,428    |
| Free goods.....                 | 1,075 388    | 667,408      | 1,304,662    | 1,201,570    |
| Specie and bullion .....        | 56,917       | 511,715      | 175,692      | 48,643       |
|                                 | \$15,308,688 | \$20,193,744 | \$23,084,133 | \$16,506,399 |
| Total entered at the port ..... |              |              |              |              |
| Withdrawn from warehouse.....   | 1,329,991    | 1,745,864    | 3,033,056    | 2,889,884    |

The total imports at New York from foreign ports from January 1st to August 31st were \$37,363,083 less than for the corresponding eight months of last year, \$37,346,029 less than for the same time in 1853, and only \$11,216,203 greater than for the same time in 1852, as will appear from the following comparison:—

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

|                               | 1852.        | 1853.       | 1854.       | 1855.        |
|-------------------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| Entered for consumption ..... | \$72,209,450 | 110,347,159 | 102,181,103 | \$72,806,038 |
| Entered for warehousing ..... | 5,916,630    | 15,813,888  | 21,814,110  | 17,621,075   |
| Free goods .....              | 9,335,327    | 10,336,526  | 12,348,863  | 9,763,868    |
| Specie and bullion .....      | 2,085,165    | 1,611,231   | 1,781,782   | 571,794      |

|                               |              |             |             |             |
|-------------------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Total entered at the port ... | \$89,546,572 | 138,108,804 | 138,125,858 | 100,762,775 |
| Withdrawn from warehouse.     | 10,952,568   | 9,972,966   | 14,882,932  | 17,160,118  |

The entries for warehousing have materially declined, while the withdrawals from warehouse for consumption have increased. Of the decline in the imports, about one-half has been in dry goods. The total receipts of this description for August were \$3,286,840 less than for August, 1854, \$1,624,138 less than for August, 1853, but \$422,367 more than for August, 1852. This decline, as compared with the last year, extends to all descriptions of goods, but has been comparatively least in silks:—

## IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK IN AUGUST.

## ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

|                               | 1852.       | 1853.       | 1854.       | 1855.       |
|-------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Manufactures of wool .....    | \$2,528,842 | \$3,605,759 | \$3,354,380 | \$2,552,263 |
| Manufactures of cotton .....  | 1,240,071   | 1,548,745   | 1,508,019   | 806,606     |
| Manufactures of silk .....    | 2,706,702   | 2,981,048   | 3,505,467   | 3,574,030   |
| Manufactures of flax .....    | 614,686     | 712,342     | 755,333     | 507,196     |
| Miscellaneous dry goods ..... | 536,684     | 516,007     | 648,620     | 638,912     |

|                                 |             |             |             |             |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Total entered for consumption . | \$7,626,985 | \$9,363,901 | \$9,771,819 | \$8,079,007 |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|

## WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

|                               | 1852.     | 1853.     | 1854.     | 1855.     |
|-------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Manufactures of wool .....    | \$221,498 | \$345,553 | \$788,165 | \$402,640 |
| Manufactures of cotton .....  | 95,769    | 86,119    | 322,066   | 128,779   |
| Manufactures of silk .....    | 140,143   | 101,271   | 394,493   | 324,445   |
| Manufactures of flax .....    | 42,129    | 14,672    | 73,536    | 99,286    |
| Miscellaneous dry goods ..... | 21,686    | 10,699    | 33,155    | 33,016    |

|                                   |           |           |             |           |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|-----------|
| Total .....                       | \$521,225 | \$558,314 | \$1,611,415 | \$988,166 |
| Add entered for consumption ..... | 7,626,985 | 9,363,901 | 9,771,819   | 8,079,007 |

|                                |             |             |              |             |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
| Total thrown on the market ... | \$8,148,210 | \$9,922,215 | \$11,383,234 | \$9,067,173 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|

## ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

|                               | 1852.    | 1853.     | 1854.     | 1855.    |
|-------------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Manufactures of wool .....    | \$86,890 | \$270,368 | \$815,636 | \$95,269 |
| Manufactures of cotton .....  | 45,018   | 132,527   | 300,869   | 47,272   |
| Manufactures of silk .....    | 72,579   | 99,273    | 479,160   | 28,954   |
| Manufactures of flax .....    | 19,873   | 47,881    | 175,742   | 28,434   |
| Miscellaneous dry goods ..... | 28,536   | 12,436    | 45,862    | 23,312   |

|                                   |           |           |             |           |
|-----------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-------------|-----------|
| Total .....                       | \$252,896 | \$562,485 | \$1,817,269 | \$223,241 |
| Add entered for consumption ..... | 7,626,985 | 9,363,901 | 9,771,819   | 8,079,007 |

|                                 |             |             |              |             |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
| Total entered at the port ..... | \$7,879,881 | \$9,926,386 | \$11,589,088 | \$8,302,248 |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|

This leaves the total receipts of dry goods at New York, since January 1st, \$23,871,440 below the corresponding total for last year, and \$24,321,364 below the total for the first eight months of 1853, but \$152,466 greater than for the same time in 1852, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

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

| ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.               |                     |                     |                     |                     |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
|  | 1852.               | 1853.               | 1854.               | 1855.               |
| Manufactures of wool .....             | \$9,993,683         | \$18,518,981        | \$15,258,131        | \$10,417,073        |
| Manufactures of cotton.....            | 6,955,859           | 11,017,762          | 11,748,661          | 5,471,337           |
| Manufactures of silk.....              | 14,949,433          | 23,660,502          | 20,671,340          | 14,831,814          |
| Manufactures of flax.....              | 4,038,676           | 5,631,209           | 5,059,004           | 3,422,551           |
| Miscellaneous dry goods.....           | 3,029,139           | 3,872,518           | 4,084,796           | 3,423,557           |
| <b>Total .....</b>                     | <b>\$38,966,790</b> | <b>\$62,700,972</b> | <b>\$56,821,932</b> | <b>\$37,571,332</b> |
| WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.              |                     |                     |                     |                     |
|  | 1852.               | 1853.               | 1854.               | 1855.               |
| Manufactures of wool .....             | \$1,300,636         | \$1,510,207         | \$2,693,735         | \$1,945,257         |
| Manufactures of cotton.....            | 1,221,555           | 787,609             | 2,104,126           | 1,901,632           |
| Manufactures of silk.....              | 1,541,319           | 1,109,643           | 2,193,154           | 2,157,878           |
| Manufactures of flax.....              | 657,652             | 164,313             | 639,981             | 971,386             |
| Miscellaneous dry goods.....           | 260,951             | 258,242             | 295,036             | 611,761             |
| <b>Total withdrawn .....</b>           | <b>\$4,982,113</b>  | <b>\$3,830,014</b>  | <b>\$7,926,032</b>  | <b>\$7,587,914</b>  |
| <b>Add entered for consumption ...</b> | <b>38,966,790</b>   | <b>62,700,972</b>   | <b>56,821,932</b>   | <b>37,571,332</b>   |
| <b>Total thrown upon the market.</b>   | <b>\$43,948,903</b> | <b>\$66,530,986</b> | <b>\$64,747,964</b> | <b>\$45,159,246</b> |

| ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.               |                     |                     |                     |                     |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
|  | 1852.               | 1853.               | 1854.               | 1855.               |
| Manufactures of wool ... ..            | \$1,002,073         | \$1,924,619         | \$3,996,996         | \$1,357,630         |
| Manufactures of cotton.....            | 685,882             | 993,619             | 2,179,512           | 1,442,552           |
| Manufactures of silk.....              | 1,724,697           | 1,214,821           | 2,817,373           | 1,670,228           |
| Manufactures of flax.....              | 243,652             | 238,626             | 752,335             | 725,226             |
| Miscellaneous dry goods.....           | 251,081             | 275,348             | 329,933             | 559,673             |
| <b>Total.....</b>                      | <b>\$3,907,385</b>  | <b>\$4,647,033</b>  | <b>\$10,076,149</b> | <b>\$5,455,309</b>  |
| <b>Add entered for consumption....</b> | <b>38,966,790</b>   | <b>62,700,972</b>   | <b>56,821,932</b>   | <b>37,571,332</b>   |
| <b>Total entered at the port ...</b>   | <b>\$42,874,175</b> | <b>\$67,348,005</b> | <b>\$66,898,081</b> | <b>\$43,026,641</b> |

This will probably close the decline for the current year, as each month for the remainder of the season will doubtless show an advance upon the corresponding total for last year.

The exports from New York to foreign ports for the month of August, exclusive of specie, were \$601,607 less than for August, 1854, \$342,821 less than for August, 1853, but \$2,046,877 more than for August, 1852. We annex a comparative summary:—

| EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE MONTH OF AUGUST. |                    |                    |                    |                    |
|---|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
|   | 1852.              | 1853.              | 1854.              | 1855.              |
| Domestic produce.....   | \$2,340,820        | \$4,540,383        | \$4,487,619        | \$4,281,481        |
| Foreign merchandise (free).....                                 | 46,464             | 79,857             | 253,857            | 151,482            |
| Foreign merchandise (dutiabale)...                              | 220,978            | 377,720            | 515,270            | 222,176            |
| Specie .....  | 2,935,833          | 1,183,973          | 4,548,320          | 2,609,393          |
| <b>Total exports .....</b>                                      | <b>\$5,544,095</b> | <b>\$6,181,933</b> | <b>\$9,805,066</b> | <b>\$7,264,532</b> |
| <b>Total, exclusive of specie.....</b>                          | <b>2,608,262</b>   | <b>4,997,960</b>   | <b>5,256,746</b>   | <b>4,655,139</b>   |

The total exports from New York to foreign ports, exclusive of specie, for the eight months ending August 31st, were only \$2,381,553 less than for the same time last year, but \$2,640,549 more than for the same period of 1853, and \$10,435,796 more than for the same time in 1852.

The exports of specie are less than for the same time last year; but the shipments of foreign goods, and especially of free goods, has increased, as will appear from the annexed comparison:—

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

|                                   | 1852.        | 1853.        | 1854.        | 1855.        |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Domestic produce.....             | \$27,452,183 | \$34,845,630 | \$39,453,720 | \$34,579,662 |
| Foreign merchandise (free).....   | 588,442      | 1,090,526    | 1,218,460    | 3,440,596    |
| Foreign merchandise (dutiabale).. | 2,966,285    | 2,865,901    | 3,151,979    | 3,422,348    |
| Specie.....                       | 18,531,341   | 13,763,567   | 23,656,639   | 22,607,512   |
| Total exports .....               | \$49,538,251 | \$52,565,624 | \$67,480,798 | \$64,050,118 |
| Total, exclusive of specie .....  | 31,006,910   | 38,802,057   | 43,824,159   | 41,442,606   |

These large exports, in the face of a small supply of breadstuffs, have created some surprise, and shows that the export demand has been active in other descriptions of produce. We annex a comparison, showing the exports of some of the leading articles of domestic produce from that port since the opening of the year:—

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST TO SEPTEMBER 17TH:—

|                     | 1854.     | 1855.     |                         | 1854.      | 1855.      |
|---------------------|-----------|-----------|-------------------------|------------|------------|
| Ashes—pots... bbls. | 6,892     | 10,706    | Naval stores... bbls.   | 475,764    | 519,931    |
| pearls .....        | 918       | 1,872     | Oils—whale... galls.    | 157,202    | 191,121    |
| Beeswax..... lbs.   | 197,538   | 134,098   | sperm .....             | 325,231    | 580,032    |
| <i>Breadstuffs—</i> |           |           | lard .....              | 23,186     | 79,779     |
| Wheat flour . bbls. | 733,029   | 334,647   | linseed .....           | 4,336      | 8,685      |
| Rye flour .....     | 10,266    | 15,907    | <i>Provisions—</i>      |            |            |
| Corn meal .....     | 54,513    | 37,620    | Pork..... bbls.         | 75,842     | 129,596    |
| Wheat .....         | 1,552,552 | 152,313   | Beef..... .....         | 46,884     | 53,744     |
| Rye .....           | 315,158   | 12,911    | Cut meats, lbs. ....    | 15,526,570 | 14,968,952 |
| Oats .....          | 39,054    | 12,211    | Butter .....            | 1,671,407  | 603,284    |
| Corn .....          | 2,621,544 | 3,136,667 | Cheese..... .....       | 1,662,859  | 2,983,605  |
| Candles—mold. boxes | 37,236    | 39,063    | Lard..... .....         | 11,110,738 | 6,122,905  |
| sperm.....          | 5,289     | 8,955     | Rice .....              | 18,920     | 12,523     |
| Coal..... tons      | 17,957    | 7,752     | Tallow..... lbs.        | 4,324,817  | 1,138,946  |
| Cotton..... bales   | 246,104   | 200,196   | Tobacco, crude. pkgs    | 28,404     | 23,741     |
| Hay..... .....      | 3,151     | 4,174     | Do., manufactured. lbs. | 2,337,016  | 3,751,694  |
| Hops..... .....     | 978       | 8,228     | Whalebone .....         | 1,031,133  | 1,485,320  |

The above presents some interesting features, obvious, however, without any further explanation.

The receipts for cash duties at the port of New York show a much less comparative decline than the imports, owing to the increase of the total value of goods thrown upon the market from the bonded warehouse. The total for the month is only \$923,833 63 less than for August of last year, and \$455,861 66 less than for August, 1853. The receipts for duties since January 1st are \$6,620,252 51 less than for the same time last year, and \$8,176,010 65 less than for the same period of 1853, as will be seen from the annexed comparison:—

## CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

|                       | 1852.           | 1853.           | 1854.           | 1855.           |
|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| In August.....        | \$3,884,295 56  | \$4,746,657 81  | \$5,214,629 78  | \$4,290,796 15  |
| Previous 7 months..   | 17,491,100 06   | 25,807,436 65   | 23,783,706 54   | 18,087,287 66   |
| Total since Jan. 1st. | \$21,375,395 62 | \$30,554,094 46 | \$28,998,336 32 | \$29,378,083 81 |

This revenue is sufficient for the wants of the government, and if our opinion in regard to the coming imports is correct, will be more likely to increase than diminish for the remainder of the fiscal year.

We are now enabled to give a comparative statement of the imports and exports at New Orleans for the fiscal year:—

## FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW ORLEANS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.

|                         | 1853.        | 1854.        | 1855.        |
|-------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Dutiable .....          | \$8,019,029  | \$8,272,449  | \$6,939,002  |
| Free.....               | 4,272,252    | 3,876,578    | 4,297,170    |
| Specie and bullion..... | 1,362,832    | 2,253,128    | 1,687,436    |
| Total imports .....     | \$13,654,113 | \$14,402,155 | \$12,923,608 |

## EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.

|                           | 1853.        | 1854.        | 1855.        |
|---------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Domestic produce .....    | \$67,768,726 | \$60,656,785 | \$54,988,827 |
| Foreign merchandise ..... | 523,934      | 275,345      | 311,884      |
| Total exports .....       | \$68,292,660 | \$60,932,130 | \$55,300,711 |

The above shows a falling off in the imports from the last year of about eleven per cent; and in the exports, of only about nine per cent. If the promise of the foreign trade for the next year shall be fulfilled, the increase will be great both in imports and exports, but greatest in the latter, from the large shipments in breadstuffs and other produce. The shipping trade, as already stated, is now reviving; freights have rapidly improved, and the demand for vessels is daily increasing 20 per cent. Foreign exchange is still well maintained, but must come down as both cotton and grain go forward.

## NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR THE MONTH ENDING SEPTEMBER 21.

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

Our market since the close of our last report, August 24th, has declined fully three-quarters of a cent per pound on all grades. The free receipts of new cotton at the South, with a rapid advance in freights, together with weekly unfavorable advices, as regards the foreign markets and the stoppage for a time of about 175,000 spindles at the eastward, in consequence of the want of water in the various streams—these causes, with little or no complaints in regard to the growing crop, and a larger stock on hand on the 1st September than was anticipated, gave grounds for the above decline, and which was not arrested at the close of the present report. Our own spinners continue to confine their purchases to their immediate wants, and in consequence of the heavy stocks in the Eastern markets, greater inducements have been offered them there than in our own market. The amount purchased for export has been small, while the quantity shipped under advances has been rather large. For speculation there has been but little done, while a few small parcels have changed hands in transitu.

The official statement of the cotton crop for the year 1854-5, ending 31st August, shows the total receipts to have been 2,847,339 bales, which is a decrease of 82,688 bales from the previous year, and 415,543 bales decrease from the year before. The quantity of new cotton received at the shipping ports to the 1st September amounted to 34,079 bales, against 1,890 bales last year. The quantity consumed by the manufacturers north of Virginia is 593,584 bales, which is 7,000 bales less than the year previous. The estimate given for the consumption of cotton by the States south and west of Virginia is put down at 85,000 bales, against 105,000 bales for the previous year. This estimate, although

given as such and made with care, we think falls below the actual consumption of cotton in the territory mentioned above. The opening of new channels of communication in the South and West, and the establishment of various manufactories, together with the increasing and new sources for the consumption of the staple, which are opening daily, demands that a more accurate statement be prepared of the consumption of cotton south and west of Virginia than can be obtained by guessing. Correct statistics cannot be too dearly obtained, nor too highly prized. The export to Great Britain has been 1,549,716 bales, being a decrease of 54,034 bales from the previous year. To France, 409,931 bales— increase over year previous, 35,873 bales. To North of Europe, 135,200 bales—decrease, 29,972 bales. Other foreign ports, 149,362 bales—decrease, 26,806 bales. Total foreign export, 2,244,209 bales—total decrease, 74,939 bales.

For the week ending August 31st the sales were estimated at 6,000 bales. The foreign advices being favorably construed, the market closed with much firmness at:—

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 31ST FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

|                    | Upland.          | Florida.         | Mobile.          | N. O. & Texas.   |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Ordinary.....      | 10               | 10               | 10               | 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| Middling.....      | 11 $\frac{1}{8}$ | 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ | 11 $\frac{3}{8}$ | 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Middling fair..... | 12 $\frac{1}{8}$ | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 12 $\frac{3}{8}$ | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Fair.....          | 12 $\frac{3}{8}$ | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 13               | 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ |

The market for the week ending September 7th commenced to droop—there was an increased desire to sell in consequence of the stock taking on the 1st of September proving larger than anticipated. The amount being—

|                                |               |
|--------------------------------|---------------|
| On hand, unsold.....bales      | 47,469        |
| Sold, not delivered.....       | 2,224         |
| On shipboard, not cleared..... | 7,153         |
| <b>Total.....</b>              | <b>56,846</b> |

The foreign advices likewise disappointed holders, and the market closed without inquiry—sales for the week 5,000 bales, at the following nominal quotations:

PRICES ADOPTED SEPTEMBER 7TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

|                    | Upland.          | Florida.         | Mobile.          | N. O. & Texas.   |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Ordinary.....      | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  | 10               |
| Middling.....      | 11               | 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ | 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 11 $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| Middling fair..... | 12               | 12 $\frac{1}{8}$ | 12 $\frac{1}{4}$ | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Fair.....          | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 12 $\frac{3}{8}$ | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 13               |

The sales for the week ensuing did not exceed 4,500 bales. A decline of  $\frac{3}{8}$  a  $\frac{1}{2}$  cent per pound failed to induce purchasers to enter the market. Telegraphic advices from the South of heavy receipts, with positive orders to sell, gave buyers the advantage to the above extent, without imparting activity to our market, which closed extremely heavy at the following:—

PRICES ADOPTED SEPTEMBER 14TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

|                    | Upland.          | Florida.         | Mobile.          | N. O. & Texas.   |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Ordinary.....      | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  |
| Middling.....      | 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 10 $\frac{3}{8}$ | 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ | 10 $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| Middling fair..... | 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 11 $\frac{3}{8}$ | 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Fair.....          | 12               | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 13               |

The sales for the week ending September 21st were estimated at 5,000 bales, at a further decline of  $\frac{3}{8}$  cents per pound. The accounts both from the foreign and our own Southern market offered no encouragement to holders, while buyers at each decline showed less desire to purchase. The scarcity of freight was also felt upon the market, which closed nominally at the following:—

PRICES ADOPTED SEPTEMBER 21ST FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

|                    | Upland.          | Florida.         | Mobile.          | N. O. & Texas.   |
|--------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Ordinary.....      | 9                | 9                | 9                | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  |
| Middling.....      | 10 $\frac{1}{8}$ | 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ | 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 10 $\frac{5}{8}$ |
| Middling fair..... | 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 11               | 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ | 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Fair.....          | 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 11 $\frac{3}{8}$ | 12               | 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ |

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**JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.**


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**FINANCES OF THE PRINCIPAL CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES.**

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for July, 1855, (vol. xxxiii, page 93.) we published a table showing at a glance the debts, population, and value of taxable property in nineteen of the largest cities of the United States. That table was prepared by Marie & Kanz. The following facts in regard to the same cities are entitled to a record in this department:—

**NEW YORK.** The sum of \$5,171,308, accumulated as a sinking fund, (\$540,141 of which was added in 1854,) is to be deducted from the amount of the above debt. The city own wharves, real estate, markets, &c., appraised at \$22,430,250, besides the aqueduct, the cost of which was \$15,474,000—in all \$37,904,250. The revenue from the aqueduct in 1854 amounted to \$641,853. Population in 1845, 371,223; in 1850, 515,557; in 1855, about 700,000. Taxable property in 1844, \$235,960,047; in 1854, \$462,285,730.

**ALBANY.** The actual debt of the city is only \$282,016, which is provided for by a sinking fund of \$20,000 a year. The interest on \$1,550,000 is paid by three railroad companies, whose duty it is to provide also for the payment of the principal by a sinking fund. The revenue of the aqueduct is sufficient to meet the interest on \$800,000 borrowed to build it. The Western Railroad had, December 1, 1854, a sinking fund of \$397,349 to be applied to the payment of a loan of \$1,000,000, part of the above sum of \$1,550,000. Population in 1840, 41,139; in 1850, 50,763; in 1855, about 60,000.

**BALTIMORE.** The interest on \$4,800,000 is paid by various railroad companies. The current expenses in 1855 will be less than \$600,000. The payment of the interest is made subject to a deduction of a tax of 5 per cent. Population in 1850, 159,054; in 1855, about 200,000.

**BOSTON.** There are assigned to the payment of the debt:—1st. A special tax of at least \$50,000 a year—on the 1st of January the sinking fund was \$1,411,858. 2d. The product of sales of the landed property of the city, amounting to 4,370,211 square feet, within ten years the sales of 2,017,450 feet have produced \$1,366,873. 3d. The revenue of the aqueduct, the cost of which is represented by a debt of \$5,432,261, and the net revenue in 1854 was, without deducting the interest, \$137,674. 4th. The balance remaining in the treasury on April 30, of each year, which was \$157,344 in 1854. Population in 1850, 136,881; in 1855, about 160,000. Taxable property in 1844, \$118,450,300; in 1854, \$207,013,200.

**BROOKLYN.** This city and its suburbs, Williamsburg and Bushwick, were consolidated into a single municipality in January, 1855. The debt was increased \$450,000 in April. It will be reduced in July by the payment of a loan of \$200,000. The sinking fund amounts to \$400,410. The property belonging to the city is valued at \$722,554. The debt is all at 6 per cent. Population of Brooklyn, &c., in 1850, 131,357. The consolidated population is estimated by the mayor at about 200,000.

**CINCINNATI.** \$875,000 emitted for the construction of the aqueduct, \$1,130,000 in behalf of railroads. The law at present prohibits any new railroad loan. The debt has just been increased \$500,000 in payment for wharves bought of the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad. The city owns, beside the wharves, property valued at \$5,558,526; the aqueduct is \$1,000,000; railroad stock, \$1,130,000 par value; and the White Water Canal, \$400,000. Population in 1830, 24,821; 1840, 46,838; 1850, 115,436; 1855, about 150,000.

**CLEVELAND.** \$400,000 emitted for building the aqueduct and \$266,000 in behalf of railroads. The city owns \$331,000 in railroad stock, of which \$231,400 pay a dividend of 10 per cent. Population in 1840, 6,071; in 1850, 17,600; in 1853, 31,000.

**CHICAGO.** The city owned in December, 1854, property valued at \$275,424, beside the aqueduct, which cost \$400,000. Population in 1840, 4,479; in 1845, 12,088; in 1850, 28,269; in 1854, estimated at 75,000. Taxable in 1845, \$3,065,022; in 1850, \$7,220,249; in 1854, \$24,392,239.

**DETROIT.** In the debt is included the new loan of \$250,000 emitted June 11, 1855; \$500,000 in all have been emitted for the construction of the aqueduct, the revenue

from which will in four years exceed the interest on this sum. The taxable and un-taxable property of the city is appraised at \$21,790,820. No new debt for municipal objects can be incurred. A sinking fund has been provided for by which the debt will be cleared off in seventeen years. Population in 1830, 2,222; in 1840, 9,102; in 1850, 21,019; in 1854, 40,373.

**JERSEY CITY.** This loan was contracted for the construction of the aqueduct. Taxable property in 1851, \$7,761,618; in 1854, \$12,373,285. Population in 1850, 11,473; in 1854, 20,989.

**LOUISVILLE.** \$700,000 emitted for subscriptions in railroads. The city owns \$744,695 in real estate and \$863,453 in stock of various companies. A new emission of \$100,000 in favor of public schools will soon appear. The revenue on the stock and other property of the city pays the interest on \$1,062,000. The sum of \$110,773 has in the course of the year been paid into the sinking fund. Population in 1844, 34,000; in 1850, 43,184; in 1854, official estimate, 70,000. Taxable property in 1845, \$11,656,308; in 1850, \$20,452,152; in 1853, \$31,783,349; in 1854, \$35,000,000.

**MILWAUKIE.** \$823,000 issued in behalf of railroads and secured by bond, &c. The city owns \$157,557 real estate, besides about \$1,000,000 for railroad stock. Population in 1840, 1,700; in 1850, 20,061; in 1854, over 35,000. The official valuation of taxable property represents only about one-fourth of its actual value or \$18,000,000.

**NEW ORLEANS.** \$4,000,000 of this has been issued in favor of three railroads, a special tax being imposed for the payment of the dividends. \$5,621,000 in 6 per cent bonds, payable in 1892, has been issued in exchange for the bonds of the old municipalities. The obligations of this last class, not yet exchanged, amount to \$2,526,262. To insure the payment of interest on this \$8,147,262, the Municipal Council is obliged by the charter of the consolidated cities to raise annually by tax \$650,000, to be applied first to the interest on the debt, and the remainder to the redemption of the bonds. If the levy of the tax of \$650,000 be not the first act of the annual session, every subsequent becomes void. By an act of State Legislature, passed March 15th, 1855, the city is prohibited from increasing the present amount of its debt, and as soon as the debt, by the action of the sinking fund, shall be reduced to \$12,000,000, the authorities cannot under any pretext raise the debt above that figure. Population in 1840, 105,490; in 1850, 133,651; in 1855, about 160,000.

**PHILADELPHIA.** This city owns property valued at \$16,681,235, which bring in an income of \$1,088,313; of this, \$3,275,000 is in railroad stock at par value, and the aqueduct is \$1,965,000. Of this property, \$7,186,685 cannot be alienated for the payment of the debt. A tax of 5 per cent is deducted from the amount of the interest. Population in 1850, 409,045; in 1855, about 500,000.

**PITTSBURG.** \$1,800,000 issued in favor of railroads. By an act of the Legislature the municipal debt cannot exceed \$1,150,000. The property of the city includes \$1,800,000 in railroad stock, par value. Population in 1830, 12,568; in 1850, 46,601; in 1854, about 62,000.

**St. Louis.** \$1,450,000 issued to railroads, and \$308,896 for the construction of the aqueduct. The property of the city, including the aqueduct, is valued at \$2,025,000, beside \$1,450,000 in railroad stocks, par value. The city will, in addition, issue \$550,000 in favor of railroads. The sinking fund is supported, first, by a payment of \$10,000 a year; secondly, by the product of the sale of \$700,000 worth of lands; thirdly, by the dividends on railroad stock belonging to the city. Taxable property in 1846, \$15,000,000; in 1850, \$29,770,649; in 1855, \$51,223,859. Population in 1845, 63,491; in 1850, 76,860; in 1855, estimated at 115,000.

**SACRAMENTO.** Of the debt, \$285,000 has been contracted for the construction of the aqueduct. A new loan will soon appear, the product of which will be applied to the payment of the loan becoming due July 1, 1855, and to the liquidation of the floating debt. The interest on the debt will amount in 1855 to \$135,698. The ordinary expenses of the city are estimated at \$100,000. Tax on real and personal property amounts to \$160,000, and is to be applied to the payment of the debt. According to the message of the mayor the indirect imposts will be sufficient to pay the expenses of the city government. Population in 1852, 10,000; now much greater.

**SAN FRANCISCO.** Sinking fund \$50,000 a year. The most recent valuation of taxable property fixes it at \$52,000,000. The city having decided in May to consolidate the floating debt, there will soon be issued about \$1,800,000 in 6 per cent bonds.

**WHEELING.** \$500,000 issued to the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad bear the guaranty of the State; \$350,000 bear the guaranty of railroads, and \$250,000 are guarantied by a special tax for the payment of interest, and by an annual payment of \$8,000 to the sinking fund. Population in 1850, 11,438; in 1855, 14,136.

## THE UNITED STATES ASSAY OFFICE IN NEW YORK.

The following well-written description of the *modus operandi* of assaying gold, &c., at the office in Wall-street, was published in the *Evening Post* some months since under the title of "An Hour at the Assay Office." With a slight curtailment, we transfer it to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*:—

What becomes of the gold? Doubtless this is the question that some of the readers of the *Evening Post* are often puzzled to answer. They know all about the digging, grinding, and washing of it in the mountains and streams of California, and its transmission over the Isthmus till it reaches the port of New York. They hear of its safe arrival in the trusty hands of Adams's and other express companies, but after that they know nothing of it, except when they are reminded of its presence by the sight of some bright, newly-stamped five or ten dollar piece, which, however, has a proverbial facility for taking to itself wings, before the possessor has had time to reflect whence it comes or whether it goes.

If our inquisitive readers will take a walk with us to the rather venerable-looking (at least for New York) granite building adjoining the Custom-House, in Wall street, and now occupied as the United States Assay Office, they will be able to satisfy their curiosity. Mr. Butterworth, the Superintendent, of whom we make our first inquiries, informs us of the objects of the assay office, namely, the determination of the value of the gold brought into our city, and the preparation of it for coinage by the United States Mint at Philadelphia, or for transshipment, in bars, to foreign countries.

Our readers will bear in mind that the assay office, where the melting, refining, parting, and other operations upon the gold are performed, is in the rear of the building fronting on Wall-street. The latter is occupied by the Sub-Treasurer's office and weighing-room, and by the private rooms of various incumbents of government offices. But before we witness the processes referred to, let us visit the Treasurer's weighing-room, which is in the front building. Here all the deposits, whether in bars or dust, (generally, however, in dust,) are first brought, and here their original weight is ascertained. The dust, which lies in, it may be, half-peck boxes on the floor, is not, as might be inferred from the name, a fine, bright yellow powder, but looks rather like dingy, brass-colored granite, broken by a hammer into the fineness of ordinary Turk's Island salt. After weighing, the deposit is carried into the Treasurer's vault, in the assay office proper, whence it is taken and melted.

The melting is done in crucibles, containing two or three gallons, over a coal furnace heated to an intensity that would satisfy Nebuchadnezzar himself. The poor, swarthy melter, who superintends with a long-handled ladle, say ten feet in length, even at that distance turns to a most copperish hue of complexion, and has to abandon the work in a few hours for the rest of the day. There he stands, watching the boiling yellow fluid, alternately covering it up and stirring it with his long pole, until in an hour or two the contents of the crucible can be dipped out and the molten mass poured into molds, by which it is shaped into bars of about three hundred ounces each.

The gold is then returned to the vault of the melter and refiner, a cell some twelve feet square, with two iron doors, secured by four locks, and with granite walls, put together with cannon balls inserted between the stone in such a manner as to defy the most ingenious and persevering burglar. Four men are appointed to sentinel this depository at night, and a similar provision is made for the Treasurer's vault, where the gold that has gone through all the processes which are appointed for it, is placed.

On entering this vault in company with Mr. Morfit, the courteous assistant melter and refiner, we were not at first impressed with the appearance of what was there exhibited. Usually one derives his idea of such places from his readings in fairy tales and in the Arabian Nights, where we are told of caves so full of precious metals and jewels that the mind craves a little variety in the way of something more commonplace. Not so here, however. In one corner there were perhaps a couple of wheelbarrow-loads of silver, as pure and white as the goat-hunter, clambering over the hills of Potosi, pulled up with the roots of the sapling he was supporting himself by. In another corner was, perhaps, the same bulk of gold, weighing about four times as much. In such a situation it was not unnatural to think how pleasant it would be to trundle that glittering heap off for the benefit of whom it might concern, and how little one would object to its weight, if such a task were imposed. But how much it expanded one's estimate of what he saw, when informed that that diminutive pile of golden bricks was worth half a million! To what excellent uses could it not be ap-

plied! A house in Fifth Avenue, ditto at Newport, railroad stocks, reputation as a patron of philanthropic societies and foreign missions—all the possible amenities of life are suggested by that little heap in the corner. There it lay, as Hood says:—

Gold! Gold! Gold! Gold!  
 Bright and yellow, hard and cold;  
 Molten, graven, hammered, and rolled;  
 Heavy to get, and light to hold;  
 Hoarded, bartered, bought, and sold;  
 Stolen, borrowed, squandered, doled;  
 Spurned by the young, but hugged by the old  
 To the very verge of the churchyard mold;  
 Price of many a crime untold!  
 Gold! Gold! Gold! Gold!  
 Good or bad a thousand fold!

But to return to business. The gold having been, as we have seen, weighed, melted, weighed again, and deposited as bullion in the vault, is next to be assayed—that is, to have its value and fineness ascertained by a delicate chemical process. We were fortunate enough to witness the operation, as superintended by Mr. Mason, the assistant assayer. It is performed in this wise: on each deposit—which, it must be remembered, still retains with its gold the various impurities with which it first came out of the mine—two bars are selected at random, and a small shaving of a prescribed weight is cut from each. A pair of scales is employed, so delicate that the thousandth part of a grain will turn it, to weigh them separately. They are then wrapped round in a thin coating of lead, and having been put into little cups, called cupels, made of phosphate of lime—or, in plain English, of burnt bone—are subjected to an intense heat. At once the lead melts, and uniting with the copper and other foreign ingredients of the gold, assists their oxydizing, and with them is absorbed into the porous substance of the cup, leaving no sign, except a dark stain, of its presence. But the gold still shines out in the cup, inclosed by a trifling wash of silver, that for some reason or other does not like to disappear with the remaining alloys.

Now, although there is no objection to silver *per se*, the assayer would prefer that it would not inclose that beautiful round button of pure gold that remains in the cup, for the same reason that the fastidious boarder, in his Chatham-street headquarters, preferred his butter and his hairs on separate plates. This, then, is the way he separates them:—The button is placed on an anvil and flattened with a hammer to such a thinness as may make it permeable to the nitric acid in which it must now be immersed. A small long-necked bottle, called a matrass, contains this fluid, into which he drops the button. The bottle is heated over a furnace, and the acid completely absorbs the remaining alloy, leaving the gold perfectly pure, with only a slight black covering of oxydized alloy, which is removed by annealing. The adhering acids are then washed off, and all he has to do is to re weigh the two shavings of gold, and to ascertain how much they have lost by the chemical changes they have been put through. He thus discovers what proportion of pure metal is contained in a given part of a deposit, and from this judges of the fineness and value of the deposit itself. The owner then can receive its value in pure bars of other gold, and go on his way, resigning all claim to the original quantity which he brought to the office.

The assayer has now done his work, and the responsibility of the melter and refiner begins. His business is merely that of his predecessor, only on a less delicate and much larger scale; *i. e.*, to free the entire deposit from alloy, just as the assayer had cleansed his diminutive shaving of a few grains in weight from its impurities. Let us ascend one story higher in the building, and see him operate. When we reach this height we see the workmen in the granulating room sweltering over seven large furnaces along the sides, and we notice that the cement floor of the apartment is covered, about two inches deep, with iron grating, through which there gleam, at all times, small particles of refuse gold or silver, which have been carelessly or unavoidably dropped. It will not do to lose them, and so at certain periods the floor is carefully swept, and the sweepings, dirt and all, with the men's aprons, the discarded crucibles, ladles, &c., are collected, burnt, ground, and otherwise transformed, till a very considerable revenue of precious metal is obtained therefrom. What it amounts to in the assay office has not been definitely stated, but we were told that at the mint in Philadelphia it came to the handsome figure of \$50,000 a year, enough, by the way, if properly applied, to bless 25,000 families with a year's supply of the *Weekly Evening Post*.

The melter and refiner takes us to his treasury vault, and the workmen draw their small wagon loads of gold and silver into the melting room. The melting is now to

be attended to. One hundred pounds of silver to fifty of gold is placed in each crucible, the rule being two of the former to one of the latter. After an hour and a quarter the two are rendered fluid, and the man at the furnace, with his long-handled ladle, dips out the mixed metal, and swinging round the edge of a large copper vessel, pours it into the cold water contained in it. This rotatory motion has the effect of preventing the solidification in a mass of the metal, causing it to harden and sink to the bottom in the form of flakes or *grains*. Hence it is called the process of *granulation*, and the mixed metal, from the excess of silver in its composition, is called *granulated silver*. It is certainly beautifully white, looking like the oxidized silver that we see among the ornaments of a jeweler's window, as, indeed, it is the same thing. Not only has it been melted itself, but it has facilitated the melting of the other alloys of the gold, and after drawing them out and mingling with them, has completely incrustated the pure yellow metal that is concealed in it.

If, now, we can only get rid of this incrustation of silver, we shall have the genuine, unadulterated gold, that will need but little more than pressing into bars or coining to answer the purposes of Commerce, which is never sorry to witness an accession to its already enormous family of "yellow boys." To ascertain how this is accomplished, we must go up two flights of stairs higher, into the parting room, where the granulated silver is carried. Here we find four rows of eight porcelain pots, each with a capacity of from twenty to twenty-four gallons. They are placed in troughs of boiling salt-water, and into each is turned a charge of one hundred and fifty pounds of the granulated or mixed metal, over which is poured as many pounds of nitric acid. This acid, uniting with the silver, forms a solution which is called nitrate of silver, and the effect of such an alliance is to separate and sink the pure gold to the bottom of the jar. The nitrate of silver is then drawn off with a gold syphon—gold being the only metal which can withstand its action—and another charge of nitric acid is applied to complete the work. After the second charge has been in the same manner removed, we see at the bottom of the pot an unpromising sediment remaining, as black as Jersey mud. But the spectator must not be discouraged. Like a sinned cat, the sediment is better than it looks—in short, it is pure yellow gold, as will be shown by washing it a few times in warm water, so as to free it from the acid that still clings to its exterior. It now appears thoroughly pulverized, and fairly entitled to the name of gold dust.

The next operation is to solidify it by subjecting it to a pressure of two hundred tons from a hydrostatic press, when it comes out in the form of cheeses about a foot in diameter, with a thickness of three inches. Then put it on a furnace heated red-hot so as to expel the last drop of water from it, and again melt it in a crucible, from which it must also again be molded into bars of fine gold, varying, according to their size and fineness, from \$6,000 to \$800 in value. These are once more assayed at the hands of the assayer, by the process before explained, stamped to indicate their number, fineness, and weight, and committed to the vault of the Treasurer, there to await his disposal. It is only such bars that are received at the banks, who are unwilling to accept those which have been assayed without the authority of the government. Their conversion into money must be done at the mint in Philadelphia.

Our merchants also, for several reasons, prefer the gold bars to coin in making their foreign payments. In the first place, they are cheaper, as they are compelled to pay fifty cents on a hundred dollars for money, while the charge for bullion of the same value in bars is but six cents. They are, moreover, obviously more acceptable to merchants abroad than our national coin, except in those countries where coin is wanted to supply emigrants bound for our shores.

The fineness of the bars manufactured at the assay office, as shown by its operations on the last deposit of California gold, was 995 thousandths—a success not hitherto equaled by any other similar establishment. When first deposited with the assayer, it ranges on an average from 860 to 885 thousandths of pure metal. According to the requirements of Congress, our national coin must contain ten per cent of alloy, *i. e.*, one hundred parts out of every thousand. Fine bars, by the same rule, are required to consist of 889 thousandths of pure gold, with a permission to refine as much further as may be found possible.

But to complete our account, we should give a report of the fate of the silver, drawn off in solution with nitric acid from the porcelain pots which we have mentioned. All we have to say is, that it is emptied into an enormous vat, capable of swimming a tolerably sized young elephant, and nearly filled with a solution of common salt. The silver is thus precipitated—that is, sunk in a solid form to the bottom, becoming what is called chloride of silver. It is then freed from the acids adhering

to it, in the same manner as we have mentioned in the case of gold; reduced to a metallic powder by an immersion in vats containing sulphuric acid and zinc, washed, pressed, dried, and cheesed, in precisely the same way as gold, and is thus ready to be re-melted and re-employed for the purification of the more precious metal.

Such is a brief account of the processes used by the new assay office in performing the duties assigned by the government to it. Every one knows how important and necessary it is to the interests of business in an immense commercial city like New York; and it is extremely desirable not only that the designs of provincial jealousy for curtailing its usefulness should be defeated, but that its powers and responsibilities should be still further extended. It has been too recently established to enable us to present any statistics showing anything more than a probable estimate of the extent of its operation for a year. A single arrival from California, on an average, brings it a deposit of nearly a million-and-a-quarter in value, and such arrivals occur weekly. This would give a monthly accumulation of five millions. The machinery of the office is enough for the annual assay of fifty millions. Fifty men are now employed in carrying on its operations. The officers are Sam. F. Butterworth, Superintendent; John J. Cisco, Sub-Treasurer; Prof. John Torrey, Assayer, with A. Mason, Assistant; E. N. Kent, Melter and Refiner, with C. Morfit, Assistant.

#### THE NEW YORK COUNTRY BANK EXCHANGE.

We publish below the plan adopted by the country banks in the State of New York for their clearing house in the city of New York:—

##### ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION.

The several incorporated banks, banking associations, and private bankers of the State of New York who shall execute this instrument in the manner hereinafter mentioned, hereby associate together for the purpose of establishing in the city of New York a common agency for the redemption of their circulating notes, and also the circulating notes of other incorporated banks, banking associations, and individual bankers, pursuant to the provisions of the 8th section of the act of the Legislature of the State of New York, entitled "An act relating to the redemption of bank notes," passed May 4, 1840, under the following rules and regulations:—

1. The association shall be known as the "New York Country Bank Exchange."

2. The agency shall receive all the circulating notes of country banks in good credit, which shall be sent to it by an associate, at the legal discount of one-quarter of one per cent. The circulating notes of each member of the association which shall be forwarded to the agency, or otherwise redeemed by it, shall be duly assorted and returned to the bank issuing the same, at a discount of one-fifth of one per cent. Exchanges shall be made and the balances settled and paid daily. The balances due from debtor banks shall be paid by them through the bank in the city of New York, with which they shall respectively keep their account, on the draft or requisition of the manager of the agency; and the balances due to the creditor banks shall, in like manner, be paid by the manager to their credit respectively, in such bank in said city as they shall designate.

3. The association shall be in no way responsible for the exchanges, nor for the balances resulting therefrom, except so far as such balances shall have actually been paid into the hands of the manager; and in such case the responsibility of the association shall be limited to the distribution by the manager to the creditor banks of the sums received by him; and should any loss occur while such balances are in the hands of the manager, it shall be a charge only upon the specific fund hereinafter provided, to be placed in the charge of the manager.

4. Each member of the association shall appoint the manager thereof its legal agent for the redemption of its circulating notes, as required by law.

5. For the purpose of redeeming such circulating notes as shall be offered at the agency otherwise than through the associated banks, each bank, or individual banker, on becoming a member of the association, shall deposit with the manager the sum of two thousand dollars, and in case its circulation received from the Bank Department, or which it shall be authorized to issue, shall exceed one hundred thousand dollars, then such deposit shall be equal to two per cent upon such circulation; which sum shall remain on deposit with the association unimpaired so long as the bank or banker depositing the same shall continue a member thereof, and shall be returned on with-

drawing therefrom—subject, however, to any indebtedness of such bank or banker to the association, and to its liability for its proportion of the losses or expenses thereof.

6. In case the expenses of the association shall exceed its income from its business, such expenses shall be apportioned by the executive committee, and paid by the associates quarterly, in proportion to the amount of redemptions made by them respectively.

7. Each bank belonging to the association may be represented at all meetings by one or more of its principal officers, but shall be entitled to but one vote.

8. A meeting of the association shall be held at the office of the association on the second Wednesday of May in each year, at which meeting a president shall be elected by ballot. Special meetings may be called by the executive committee at their discretion, and shall be called by them on the written request of any five of the associates. Representatives from fifteen banks shall at all times constitute a quorum.

9. At every annual meeting a standing committee of five bank officers shall be elected by ballot as an executive committee, whose duty it shall be to act as a board of directors of the association, with power to procure from time to time suitable rooms for the transaction of the business of the association; to provide whatever may be necessary for the use of the agency; to appoint and remove all officers, clerks, or other persons employed, except the manager; to fix their salaries, apportion and draw for the expenses, establish rules and regulations for the conduct and management of the business in all cases not herein provided for, and generally to direct the affairs of the agency.

10. The manager shall be appointed and his salary fixed by the association. He shall give security, to be approved by the executive committee, in the sum of fifty thousand dollars, for the faithful discharge of his duties, and each clerk shall give like security in the sum of ten thousand dollars.

11. The manager, under the direction of the executive committee, shall have charge of the business at the agency, so far as it relates to the manner in which it shall be conducted, and all the clerks shall be under his direction. He shall have power to suspend any clerk or other person employed for cause, and shall report such suspension, and the reason of it, to the executive committee. He shall act as secretary at all meetings of the association and of the executive committee.

12. The executive committee shall have power to suspend the manager, whenever in their opinion the interests of the association shall require it. Upon such suspension being made, the committee shall immediately call a meeting of the association, and report the cause of such suspension, when final action shall be taken by the association.

13. In case any associate shall neglect or refuse to provide for the payment of any balance against such associate, arising from the exchanges, the manager may thereupon in his discretion return the circulating notes of the defaulting bank constituting such balance, to the bank or banks from which the same were received, and in the same proportion as sent by them, first causing each parcel of said notes so returned to be duly protested. The bank so in default shall thereupon be suspended from the association by the executive committee, or in their absence by the manager, until the final determination of the association in the matter at a meeting to be called as soon as practicable thereafter.

14. The executive committee shall designate a bank or banks in the city of New York, in which all drafts drawn for balances shall be deposited and the funds of the association kept.

15. New members may be admitted into the association at any time, with the assent of the executive committee, such new members paying an admission fee, to be fixed by the executive committee, making the deposit hereinbefore mentioned, and signifying their assent to these articles, in the same manner as the original members.

16. For cause deemed sufficient by the association at any meeting thereof, any bank may be expelled from the association, provided a majority of the whole number of associated banks shall vote in favor thereof.

17. Any member of the association may withdraw therefrom at any annual meeting, on giving thirty days' previous notice of its intention to withdraw to the executive committee—first paying its due proportion of all expenses, liabilities, and losses, if any.

18. For the purpose of organization, and until the first annual meeting shall be held, George W. Cuyler, of Palmyra, in the county of Wayne, shall be the manager of the association, at an annual salary of five thousand dollars; and George H. Mumford, of Rochester, George W. Tiff, of Buffalo, Edward B. Judson and Hamilton

White, of Syracuse, Josiah N. Starin, of Auburn, Solon D. Hungerford, of Adams, and William R. Osborne, of Binghamton, shall constitute the executive committee.

19. These articles shall be submitted to the several banks and individual bankers of the State, whose notes are not redeemed at par in the cities of New York, Albany, or Troy, for their approval and adoption. When approved by the boards of directors of the incorporated banks or banking associations, or by individual bankers, such approval shall be signified by the signatures thereto of the president, cashier, or financial officer of the bank or institution adopting the same. When fifty banks shall have adopted these articles, the agency may be put in operation.

20. Amendments of these articles may be made at any meeting of the association by a vote of two-thirds of all the members present, being not less than a majority of all the members belonging to the association.

### THE MAIN BRACE OF STATE CREDIT.

BY J. THOMPSON, BANKER, OF NEW YORK.

The stocks or certificates of indebtedness of a nation, State, or city, should be largely held directly or indirectly by its own citizens. No paper security not so held ever acquires a high standard of credit. On the contrary, all State or corporate indebtedness so held, enjoys the confidence of capitalists, wherever and whoever they are.

The payment of interest or principal to citizens is much less burdensome and far less impoverishing than such payment to non-residents.

To establish and illustrate the foregoing, look at Great Britain, with thousands of millions of debt, her stocks are considered the best in the world, and with tens of millions of annual interest, all promptly paid, without ever disturbing her finances or the regular course of exchange. These happy results arise from the fact that ninety-nine-hundredths of her debt is owing to Englishmen. Let us suppose for a moment that the British debt was held by citizens of other countries, how long would Englishmen bear the burdens of either direct or indirect taxation to provide the interest alone; and would any profound reasoner on stock or paper securities trust his money in British Consols? It is our opinion that the payment of interest on the debt of Great Britain to non-residents for only one year would cause the bankruptcy of the nation, a revulsion in Commerce, and a suspension of specie payments by every bank in the kingdom.

We could show by statistics that the credit of a State rests principally on two foundations—

- 1st. By the per centage of debt due its own citizens.
- 2d. By the character of its population.

The amount is of far less consequence than either of the foregoing. Had any considerable portion of the stocks of Mississippi, Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, or Michigan, been held by the citizens of those States, neither would ever have been classed among the non-paying.

Besides the loss of moral, political, and interested influence, there is a positive financial loss in owing non-residents. The interest semi-annually, and the principal when paid, is an export of specie or its equivalent—it is an impoverishing element.

The remarks on this subject, as well as our article on the two systems of banking, published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for September, 1855, (vol. xxxiii., pages 355-6.) have an object, namely, to show to the people of Virginia, Tennessee, and Pennsylvania, that their true interest lies in engrafting the Security System when granting banking privileges.

Stocks held by the banks of a State as a basis of currency, are to every intent held by the people of the State, and the same happy results will follow that are so prominent in the State of New York, and so apparent in Great Britain.

**REAL AND PERSONAL PROPERTY OF BROOKLYN.**

We give below a statement of the assessed or taxable value of property in the different wards of the city of Brooklyn, (Long Island, New York,) for the years 1854 and 1855:—

| Wards.     | 1854.       |             |             | 1855        |             |             |
|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|            | Real.       | Personal.   | Total.      | Real.       | Personal.   | Total.      |
| 1.....     | \$4,685,551 | \$1,058,733 | \$5,744,284 | \$4,937,900 | \$1,569,997 | \$6,507,897 |
| 2.....     | 2,851,833   | 1,423,463   | 4,275,296   | 2,956,850   | 1,681,688   | 4,638,538   |
| 3.....     | 7,151,230   | 2,628,425   | 9,779,955   | 7,310,750   | 2,891,650   | 10,203,400  |
| 4.....     | 4,580,522   | 892,300     | 5,472,822   | 4,685,750   | 878,200     | 5,563,950   |
| 5.....     | 2,598,053   | 15,000      | 2,613,053   | 2,806,225   | 37,600      | 2,843,825   |
| 6.....     | 12,275,798  | 1,293,940   | 13,569,729  | 9,373,550   | 1,564,950   | 10,938,450  |
| 7.....     | 6,599,526   | 91,000      | 6,640,526   | 6,806,965   | 92,300      | 6,899,265   |
| 8.....     | 3,022,532   | 225,300     | 3,247,832   | 4,240,863   | 235,350     | 4,476,163   |
| 9.....     | 5,156,415   | 162,620     | 5,259,035   | 5,274,250   | 59,000      | 5,333,250   |
| 10.....    | 8,211,735   | 229,600     | 8,431,335   | 8,138,916   | 243,100     | 8,381,116   |
| 11.....    | 7,581,531   | 234,500     | 7,816,431   | 8,007,245   | 235,000     | 8,242,245   |
| 12.....    | .....       | .....       | .....       | 3,350,415   | 3,000       | 3,353,415   |
| Total..... | 64,665,117  | \$8,184,881 | 72,849,998  | 67,889,779  | \$9,591,735 | 77,481,515  |

We also add the figures of Williamsburg and Bushwick, which now form part of the city of Brooklyn:—

|               |             |             |             |             |             |             |
|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1 (13th)..... | \$6,180,265 | \$1,184,559 | \$7,364,824 | \$6,911,750 | \$359,000   | \$7,270,750 |
| 2 (14th)..... | 2,958,980   | 414,000     | 3,372,980   | 3,345,085   | 390,604     | 3,725,689   |
| 3 (15th)..... | 2,103,499   | 16,400      | 2,119,419   | 1,628,352   | 14,000      | 1,642,352   |
| 16.....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | 1,653,245   | 95,000      | 1,662,745   |
| Total.....    | 11,242,664  | \$1,614,559 | 12,857,223  | 13,538,432  | \$1,731,104 | 14,311,536  |
| 17.....       | 3,106,860   | 109,000     | 3,215,360   | 2,488,100   | 399,000     | 2,528,000   |
| 18.....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | 1,559,387   | 82,000      | 1,641,387   |

The Seventeenth and Eighteenth Wards constitute what was known as Bushwick before the consolidation.

**COINAGE OF GOLD AND SILVER IN MINTS OF MEXICO FROM 1521 TO 1852.**

A document has been published in Mexico, under the title "Foreign Commerce of Mexico since the Conquest," which contains interesting statistics concerning the amount of gold and silver yielded by the mines of that country. The entire worth of gold and silver stamped by the different mints of Mexico from 1521 to 1852, together with manufactures from the precious metals, amounts to \$3,562,205,000, as follows:—

|   |                 |                 |
|---|-----------------|-----------------|
| Silver coined in the city of Mexico.....  | \$2,248,165,000 |                 |
| Gold coined in the city of Mexico.....    | 111,806,000     |                 |
|   |                 | \$2,359,971,000 |
| Silver coined in other Mexican towns..... | \$359,621,000   |                 |
| Gold coined in other Mexican towns.....   | 15,113,000      |                 |
|   |                 | 374,734,000     |
| Gold and silver manufactures.....         |                 | 827,500,000     |
| Total.....                                |                 | \$3,562,205,000 |

The whole of this sum, with the exception of about \$100,000,000, has been, it is supposed, exported. In the year 1690, the amount of silver coined in the city of Mexico was \$5,286,000; in the following year it was \$6,214,000. From 1691 until 1700, the quantity decreased until it amounted to only \$3,379,000. After the latter year it steadily rose until it reached, in 1809, its highest point, viz.: \$24,708,000. In 1810, only \$17,951,000 were coined; in 1811, but \$8,956,000, and so on till 1837, when but 516,000 silver dollars were issued by the Mexican Mint. In 1838, \$1,089,000 were coined, and the quantity again began to increase. In 1852, it amounted to \$2,770,000.

## THE BANK OF ENGLAND AND ITS NOTES.

The Bank of England has recently changed its plan of printing bank notes. The object is to prevent counterfeiting. An elaborate account of the old and new modes is given in the last number of the *Bankers' Magazine*. If, says the writer, we examine forms of notes printed by typography, we shall observe that the notes of the Bank of France and the Belgian notes are so produced; but, in these cases, the character of the note is adapted to the style of printing, and even there the number printed is so small as to appear insignificant when compared with the number issued by the Bank of England. At the former establishment about 300 impressions are printed every day; at the latter nearly 30,000 are produced, as 9,000,000 notes are issued per annum, representing nearly £300,000,000.

A paper-mill is in operation in Hampshire, England, which is used exclusively for the manufacture of bank-note paper. The first ever issued was made in these mills, in about the year 1719, and it has ever since been produced on the same premises. From an analysis lately made by an eminent chemist, it has been ascertained that the water of this river is well adapted for the purposes for which it is required in this establishment. The building, the machinery, and, indeed, the entire premises, have undergone very considerable alterations and improvements of late, (in fact, they are not yet brought to completion,) in order to adapt them to the perfect execution of the paper used for the new bank note, the issue of which is to commence on New Year's day.

These mills are used exclusively for the making of bank-note paper, and at the present time about 50,000 notes are made daily. The artisans and work-people live mostly in neat and picturesque cottages, adjoining the premises, and are occupants of the same dwellings formerly occupied by their great-grandfathers.

The quality and water-mark of the bank-note paper have, in the new note, (now on the point of being issued to the public,) been brought to a high degree of excellence. The molds from which the paper is made are executed by Mr. Brewer, who, with Mr. Smith, patented a very valuable invention, which was rewarded by a medal at the Great Exhibition of 1851. Suffice it to say that, in thus improving and endeavoring to perfect the bank-note paper, the authorities of the bank have had entirely in view the protection of the public from fraud and loss.

## COINAGE OF THE BRITISH MINT.

The annual account of the moneys coined at the Royal Mint of Great Britain during the year 1854, has been laid before the House of Commons. It states the total value of the gold coinage to have been £4,152,183, including 921,890.478 ounces weight, and 3,589,611 pieces of sovereigns, and 144,480.840 ounces weight, and 1,125,144 pieces of half-sovereigns, the value of which latter was, of course, one-half, or £562,572. No double-sovereigns were coined. The total value of the silver coinage amounted to £140,480, including 550,413 florin pieces, of 200,150.200 ounces in weight and £55,041 in value; 552,414 shilling pieces, of 100,439 ounces weight and £27,620 in value; 840,116 sixpenny pieces, 76,374.200 ounces weight and £21,002 in value; 1,096,613 groats, of 66,461.450 ounces in weight and £18,276 in value; 4,158 fourpenny pieces, of 252 ounces in weight and £69 6s. in value; 1,471,754 threepenny pieces, of 66,897 ounces in weight and £18,396 in value; 4,752 twopenny pieces, of 144 ounces weight and £39 12s. in value; and 7,920 silver penny pieces, of 120 ounces in weight, and £33 in value. The total value of the copper coinage was £61,538, including 6,827,520 pennies, of 127 tons in weight and £28,448 in value; 12,461,568 half-pennies, of 115 tons in weight and £25,961 in value; 6,504,960 farthings, of 30 tons in weight and

£6,776 in value; and 677,376 half-farthings, of 1 ton 11 cwts. 2 qrs. in weight and £352 16s. in value. It is worthy of mention that no crowns or half-crowns were coined in 1854. The gross total value of the gold, silver, and copper coinage of 1854 amounted to £4,354.201.

#### BANK OF MUTUAL REDEMPTION.

The following act of the Legislature of New Hampshire authorizes banks in that State to hold stock in the Bank of Mutual Redemption to be located in Boston. This act was passed at the last session of the New Hampshire Legislature, and approved July 14th, 1855. The act takes effect from and after its passage:—

AN ACT AUTHORIZING BANKS IN THIS STATE TO HOLD STOCK IN THE BANK OF MUTUAL REDEMPTION.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in General Court convened,* That any banking corporation in this State may subscribe for, and hold in its own name, shares in the capital stock of the Bank of Mutual Redemption, to be located in Boston, Massachusetts, to an amount not exceeding 5 per cent of the capital stock of the bank subscribing therefor; and such subscription shall be made only when authorized by the unanimous vote of the directors making the same.

### COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

#### OF IMPORTATIONS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM THE BRITISH PROVINCES.

The Secretary of the Treasury (James Guthrie) has issued the following circular to collectors and other officers of the customs, in relation to merchandise entitled to free entry and liable to duty under the existing revenue laws:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, July 31, 1855.

The following decisions on questions submitted to this Department, arising on importations into the United States from the British provinces of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward's Island, being the product of said provinces, under the Reciprocity Treaty with Great Britain of June 5, 1854, are communicated for your information and government:—

#### ENTITLED TO FREE ENTRY.

Animals of all kinds; ashes, comprehending pot and pearl ashes; black salts and salts of lye; bags, barrels, or other original packages, containing flour, wheat, or other free product; barley; bark of hemlock or other trees; beams, when rough hewn or sawed only; beans; boards, when rough hewn or sawed only; bran; breadstuffs of all kinds, not further manufactured than flour and meal; broom-corn; burr-stones, hewn or wrought, or unwrought; butter; Canada Balsam, collected from a species of pine tree, as turpentine; castoreum, a product of the beaver; cattle tails, if undressed; cheese; clap boards, if rough hewn or sawed only; coal; corn, Indian, or maize; cotton wool; dried fruits; dyestuffs; fish of all kinds, products of fish and of all other creatures living in the water, the exemption from duty to extend to the fisheries of Newfoundland and Labrador; fish, wholly or partly cooked, in cans hermetically sealed; fire-wood; flax, unmanufactured; flour of all kinds; fresh meats; fruits, dried or undried; fruits, preserved, in cans hermetically sealed; furs, undressed; grain of all kinds; grindstones, hewn or wrought, or unwrought; gypsum, ground or unground; hair, on the hide or skin or tail thereof, undressed; hair seal skins, undressed; hemp, unmanufactured; hides, undressed; horns; horn-tips; hubs for wheels, knees for vessels, lasts, last-blocks, and laths, if rough hewn or sawed only; lard; linseed; lumber of all kinds, round, rough hewn or sawed only; manures; marble, in its crude or unwrought state; meals of all kinds; meats, fresh, smoked, or salted; meats, wholly or partly cooked, preserved without oil or spirits, in cans hermetically sealed; middlings, as flour; mill-feed, as flour; nuts; oats; oatmeal; oil, from fish; ores of metals, of all kinds; palings, pickets, posts, &c., if rough hewn or sawed only; pates or scraps of

raw hides or skins; pearl and pot ash; peas; pelts; pitch; plants; potatoes; poultry; poultry, cooked wholly or partly, preserved in cans hermetically sealed; products of fish and all other creatures living in the water; provender, from wheat or other grain; rags; railroad ties, rough hewn or sawed only; raw hides and skins, or parts thereof; rice; rotten wood; salted meats; salts of lye and black salts, (see ashes;) sausages and sausage-meat; saw-logs; scantling, rough hewn or sawed only; screenings from grain; seeds; shingles, shingle-bolts, and shingle-wood, rough hewn or sawed only; shrubs; skins or tails, undressed; skins, or parts thereof, undressed; shipstuffs, as breadstuffs; slate; spars, round and sawed only; spokes of wheels, if rough hewn or sawed only; stone, in its crude or unmanufactured state; tails, undressed; tallow; tar; timber of all kinds, round, rough hewn or sawed only; tobacco and tow, unmanufactured; trees; turpentine; vegetables; vegetables, wholly or partly cooked, preserved in cans hermetically sealed; venison; wool, unmanufactured.

LIABLE TO DUTY UNDER THE EXISTING REVENUE LAWS.

Beams, (see timber and lumber;) bear's grease; beeswax; boards, (see timber and lumber;) biscuit; bread; cakes; fellos for wheels, (see timber and lumber;) grease of all kinds, except butter, tallow, and lard; hay; hops; hubs for wheels, knees for vessels, lasts, and last-blocks, (see timber and lumber;) lime; milk; oil-cake; palings, pickets, posts, railroad ties, scantlings, shingles, shingle-bolts, shingle-wood, spars, and spokes for wheels, (see timber and lumber;) spirits of turpentine.

TIMBER OR LUMBER. Articles of wood entered under these or any other designations, remain liable to duty under the existing tariff, if manufactured in whole or in part by planing, shaving, turning, or riving, or any process of manufacture other than rough hewing or sawing.

It having been represented to the Department that in some of the frontier collection districts, compensation has been demanded by officers of the customs for preparing the papers of claimants under the Reciprocity Treaty with Great Britain, it becomes necessary to remind such officers that the laws having fixed the salaries of all officers of the customs, they cannot legally demand extra compensation for any services rendered in connection with their several offices; and that the exactions complained of cannot be made without subjecting them to the heavy penalties provided in the 17th section of the act, "Further to establish the compensation of officers of the customs, &c." approved May 7th, 1822.

Questions in relation to the charge of *fees* on the entry of free goods having been submitted to the Department, in special reference to importations under the Reciprocity Treaty, it is thought proper to state, that the 7th section of the act "To provide for obtaining accurate statements of the foreign Commerce of the United States," approved February 10th, 1820, requiring the regular entry and examination of all *free* goods, the fee to the collector of 20 cents "for permit to land goods," as provided in the 2d section of the compensation act of March 2, 1799, is legally chargeable in each case of landing free goods; all such fees, however, as well as all others received by the collectors on our Northern, North-eastern, and North-western frontier, to be accounted for to the Treasury in the form prescribed by law, the salaries of such collectors, allowed by the act "To regulate the foreign and coasting trade, &c.," approved March 2, 1831, modified in some instances by subsequent acts, being in lieu of all fees, salaries, emoluments, or commissions, allowed prior to the date of said act.

JAMES GUTHRIE, Secretary of the Treasury.

THE VALUE OF MERCHANDISE MUST BE INDORSED ON THE BOND.

By a regulation of the United States Treasury Department, when a special penal bond is given, it is the duty of collectors to indorse on the bond the estimated value and the date of importation of the merchandise before it is delivered. This duty is to be carefully performed, and will require a constant and faithful supervision.

If anything occurs to excite doubt of the continued sufficiency of the principal or sureties, the collector requires either a new bond in the same form with adequate security, or in case the parties fail to give it, an adequate bond on each importation, as in cases where no special penal bond is given. If the estimated value of the merchandise exceed one-half of the penalty of the bond, in no case can it be suffered to be delivered to, or remain in possession of the parties subject to this bond.

**DUTIES OF OFFICERS IN CHARGE OF UNITED STATES WAREHOUSES.**

All bonded warehouses, whether public or private, as well as the stores occupied by the appraisers, where there are such, are placed by the collector in the custody of officers designated for the purpose, to be known as storekeepers, who always keep the keys thereof in their own possession, and personally superintend the opening and closing of the doors and windows. They are required to be in constant attendance at the stores from seven o'clock, A. M., to sunset, from April 1st to October 1st, and for the residue of the year from eight o'clock, A. M., to sunset, except the time necessary for their meals, not over one hour at noon, when the stores are closed. They are prohibited from allowing any goods to be received, delivered, sampled, packed, or repacked, except in their presence or the presence of some person designated as an assistant by the collector, and they are required to keep accurate accounts of all goods received, delivered, and transferred, and of all orders for sampling, packing, repacking, &c. They are also required to make daily returns of all goods received and delivered, and inform the Superintendent of any infraction of the warehouse rules and regulations by inspectors or other persons. These officers are also required to keep exact accounts of all the labor performed on merchandise sent to such stores, whether unclaimed or in bond, and their returns to the custom-house of its receipt must certify the nature and amount of such charges. They must also keep rolls of all persons employed in such warehouses, which rolls must exhibit the names of such persons, the number of days employed, the rate of compensation, and the total amount earned, to be received for by the person to whom due, and paid weekly or monthly, according to the custom of the port, by the proper disbursing officer of the custom-house, on certificates or tickets signed by the officer in charge, and setting forth that the person named has been employed for the number of days stated, at the rate of compensation stated, that the amount specified therein is due to him, and that he has signed the pay-rolls therefor. At the close of the quarter these rolls are to be returned by the officer in charge to the collector, to be compared with the certificates or tickets before described, and on which the payments have been made, and to accompany such collector's account with the vouchers for disbursements on account of public stores and warehouses.

**CERTIFICATE TO CANCEL BOND.** On receiving the permit for the deposit of merchandise in store from the collector, certified by the storekeeper that the goods designated in the permit, with the exception of such as have been ordered to the appraiser's store, have been deposited in the store, and on the same examination being had as is required by law on importations of merchandise from foreign ports, it is the duty of the collector, if satisfied that the goods so deposited and examined are the identical goods described in the entry and invoice received by him from the collector at the port of withdrawal, to immediately furnish the party making entry with a certificate, countersigned by the naval officer, where there is one, of their delivery in the proper form, and is also required to transmit a duplicate of such certificate to the collector at the port of withdrawal.

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**SEIZED AND UNCLAIMED GOODS.**

By a regulation of the United States Treasury Department, unclaimed and seized goods can be stored in stores of the third class on the order of the collector; and the proprietor or occupant must look to the goods for the storage and charges, at the usual and customary rates, and is liable for the safe-keeping of the merchandise as for other storage. The collector can give no permit to withdraw such goods without the payment of the legal duties and charges; and if the goods are sold, must cause the storage and charges to be paid out of the proceeds of the sale.

**THE DUTY OF SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC WAREHOUSES.**

In all ports where the nature and extent of business may require such an officer, it is the duty of the collector to designate, with the approbation of the Treasury Department, some suitable person, to be styled the Superintendent of Warehouses, whose duty it will be to superintend all the public and private bonded warehouses in such ports, visiting them daily, where the number of warehouses will admit, or, if not, as often as may be, to ascertain whether the officers are prompt and regular in their attendance, the books correctly kept, the merchandise properly stored, and all the regulations prescribed by the department and the collector faithfully observed and diligently enforced. It is also his duty, when required by the collector, to examine and inspect such stores as may be offered to be bonded as private warehouses, and make report thereon to the collector, and generally to perform such duties in relation to the care of warehouses, and the custody of the goods deposited therein, as may be necessary to their security and the protection of the revenue.

He will also superintend, with the officer of the store, all silks withdrawn for printing, dyeing, &c., as provided in these instructions, taking an account of the same. And it is also the duty of the person or persons withdrawing such goods for dyeing, &c., to notify the collector that the Superintendent may be present at the place and time required.

Such Superintendent is to be stationed where most convenient, and is required to make a daily report to the collector of every violation of the warehouse instructions and rules, and of all other matters coming under his observation. It is intended that this officer, under the directions of the collector, shall have a general supervision of the warehouse business in the several warehouses, to see that the laws and regulations are faithfully observed by the officers in charge of each store, and the importer or agent having joint custody. He is also charged with the superintendence of the cartage, drayage, or lighterage of all merchandise sent to warehouse under bond, or withdrawn therefrom for transportation or exportation; and also the cartage, drayage, or lighterage of all merchandise ordered to the appraiser's office for examination, or the public stores for custody, and is required to take care that the work is promptly and faithfully performed, that the necessary receipts for merchandise are returned in due season to the officers sending or delivering the same, and that the regulations for the government of this branch of the service are in all respects complied with, and every infraction of the same promptly reported to the collector.

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**DELIVERY OF GOODS SOLD AT AUCTION, ETC.**

The United States Treasury Department directs that immediately after the sale by an auctioneer of any goods—such as unclaimed goods with the duty unpaid, remaining in a public store one year, and duly bonded merchandise, remaining stored for the space of three years from the date of importation—the collector shall proceed to deliver them to the several purchasers, the lots or parcels belonging to them, on due payment to him of the sum or sums for which sold. This delivery shall be made on a general permit, to be countersigned by the naval officer, if there be any at the port. The duties of the auctioneer are to be limited to selling the goods, and his charge for such service, which in no case shall exceed the usual commission at the port, and all other expenses properly chargeable on the goods which may have accrued, must be presented and paid within ten days of date of sale. These expenses must be proportioned *pro rata* on the different lots and parcels, and a statement must be made giving the gross proceeds, the amount of duty, storage, and other expenses, and the net proceeds of each lot of goods in the sale.

#### BONDS MAY BE GIVEN BY AN IMPORTER TO AN INTERIOR PORT.

It is stated in the *Union*, on the authority of the United States Treasury Department, that in order to facilitate the transmission of merchandise in bond from a port of entry to any interior port of delivery, under the act of 28th March, 1854, the importer of any goods, wares, or merchandise, residing at an interior port of delivery, and desiring to have the merchandise transported in bond, can produce his invoice to the surveyor or designated collector of the interior port, take the oath or oaths required by law, and execute the transportation bond according to the prescribed form, with proper sureties, before the surveyor or collector of the port, who is required to certify on said bond a sufficiency of the sureties, and transmit the bond to the collector of the port of importation; and the bond so taken is as valid and binding as though executed in the office of the collector where the entry is made. The invoice, with the oath attached, can be transmitted by the importer to his agent or attorney at the port where the goods are expected to arrive; who, upon their arrival, is to present the transportation entry, with bill or bills of lading therefor, in the form and setting forth the particulars required; after which, the same proceedings are to be had as in other entries for transportation under bond from one port to another in the United States.

PORTS WHERE SUCH BONDS CAN BE EXECUTED. The interior ports of delivery at which bonds can be so executed, and goods transported under them, are Pittsburg, Pennsylvania; Cincinnati, Ohio; Louisville and Paducah, Kentucky; Nashville, Memphis, and Knoxville, Tennessee; St. Louis, Missouri; Wheeling, Virginia; Evansville, Jeffersonville, and New Albany, Indiana; Alton, Cairo, Galena, and Quincy, Illinois; Burlington, Keokuk, and Dubuque, Iowa; and Tuscumbia, Alabama.

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#### TIME OF TRANSPORTATION BOND IN UNITED STATES.

If the port to which the merchandise is to be transported be not more than one hundred miles distant by the route proposed, the time inserted in the bond shall be twenty days; if over one hundred, and less than two hundred and fifty miles, thirty days; if over two hundred and fifty, and less than five hundred miles, sixty days; and if over five hundred miles, ninety days; but if the distance be over two hundred and fifty miles, the collector may, at the instance of the party, allow thirty additional days.

Nine months will be allowed for transportation of merchandise in bond between the Atlantic and Pacific ports of the United States around Cape Horn, and four months by other routes between these ports. If the transportation within the time prescribed is retarded by accident or other unavoidable cause, on regular protest and due proof of the accident or other unavoidable cause, the collector may receive the goods, or any part thereof, within a reasonable time thereafter.

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#### THE STOREKEEPER OF A PORT IN THE UNITED STATES.

The deputy collector is the *ex officio* storekeeper of the port, and has the general superintendence of the warehouse business. The warehouse superintendent and storekeeper at the several stores, with the clerks employed on the store accounts, and on the warehouse business generally, are under his immediate direction, subject, however, to the control and supervision of the collector of the port.

In order to enforce a proper responsibility on the part of collectors for merchandise in bond, these officers are required to account for the duties arising on merchandise entered at their respective districts for warehousing or re-warehousing with the same particularity as to details as they are now required to account for the duties on goods entered for consumption.

## REGULATIONS AT FRONTIER PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

On the arrival of merchandise at a frontier port, and the due delivery of the manifest or manifests by the master or conductor, the collector or other proper officer of the customs is required immediately, if the goods be forwarded under locks, to remove such lock or locks from the car or cars, and carefully inspect and examine the packages by the manifest or manifests, to ascertain whether they agree with the description contained therein, and whether they have been in any way violated. The same comparison and examination will also be required of the cording, sealing, and branding, to see that no alteration or fabrication of the seals or brands has taken place. Should the goods be found not to agree with the manifest, or should there be any reason to believe that any violation, alteration, or fabrication has occurred, the collector must take immediate possession of the goods, and send a statement of the case to the department, at the same time notifying the collector of the port from which the goods were forwarded. If the packages, however, be found to agree in all respects with the manifests, the cords, seals, and brands unbroken and intact, the collector or other officer will permit the same to be sent forward without detention to their destination in the province designated. Should the merchandise arrive at the frontier port before the receipt of the triplicate entry, it will not be detained there for that reason, but will be inspected and checked by the manifest. When the entry shall have been received it will be compared with the manifest or manifests, and if it shall appear that all the packages described therein have passed inspection, and been duly delivered to be forwarded to their final destination, the collector shall furnish to the exporter or his agent a certificate of the same.

## TRANSPORTATION ROUTES FOR MERCHANDISE IN BOND.

The following routes for the transportation of merchandise in bond from one port of entry to another port of entry, or delivery, have been authorized by the Treasury Department:—From the ports of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, to Pittsburg, Wheeling, Cincinnati, Louisville, St. Louis, Nashville, Natchez, Evansville, New Albany, Burlington, (Vermont,) Sackett's Harbor, Rochester, Oswego, Lewiston, Buffalo, Ogdensburg, Plattsburg, Cape Vincent, Erie, Toledo, Sandusky, Cleveland, Detroit, Michilimackinac, Chicago, and Milwaukie, by canal, railroad, river, or lake, wholly or in part, as the party may select in his entry. Also, from a port or ports on the Atlantic to any other port on the Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico, or the Pacific, or *vice versa*, by such route or conveyance as the party in his entry may select. Also, from the port of New Orleans to any port of entry or delivery on the Mississippi and its tributaries, and by such conveyance and route as the party selects in his entry. Also, from the ports of Charleston and Savannah to the ports of Knoxville, Nashville, and Memphis, by such conveyance and route as may be designated on the entry. Whatever mode of transportation may be adopted, whether by land or water, or partly by land and partly by water, the route is required to be set forth and particularly described in the entry.

## RATES OF LABOR AND STORAGE IN THE PUBLIC STORES.

The charge for storing goods deposited in the public stores must be at the usual rate at that port, and the charge for labor at these stores must be at a rate that will remunerate the government. If collectors fail to demand and receive the amounts due for the storage and labor accruing in public stores, or the pay of an officer required in private stores, they will be charged with such sums in their quarterly accounts by the commissioner of customs.

#### PACKING AND REPACKING MERCHANDISE.

All merchandise in public or private bonded warehouses in the United States may be examined at any time during the business hours of the port by the importer, consignee, or agent, who shall have liberty to take samples of his goods in quantities according to the usage of the port; make all needful repairs of packages, and to repack the same, provided the original contents are placed in the new package, and the original marks and numbers placed thereon, in the mode prescribed in the seventy-fifth section of the act of 2d March, 1799, and thirty-second section of the act of 1st March, 1823; provided that no samples shall be taken, nor shall any goods be exhibited or examined, unless under the immediate supervision of an inspector of the customs, and by order of the importer, owner, or consignee, at his expense; nor shall any package be repaired, or goods repacked, without a written order from the collector of the port.

**PENALTY.** The penalty for failure to transport and deliver bonded merchandise, withdrawn from warehouse for transportation in the United States, within the time limited in the transportation bond provided for by the sixth section of the act of 28th March, 1854, is deemed and taken to be an additional duty of 100 per cent on the invoice or appraised value of the merchandise so withdrawn. Thus, if the value of the merchandise be \$400, and the rate of duty 25 per cent, the duty to be secured by the bond will be \$100, and the additional duty of 100 per cent, \$400—making the sum of \$500 to be collected in case of non-compliance with the condition of the obligation in the bond.

#### PENALTIES IF GOODS ARE RELANDED IN THE UNITED STATES.

By the fourth section of the act of August 30, 1852, authorizing the exportation of merchandise in bond by certain routes to Mexico, it is provided that no goods, wares, or merchandise exported out of the limits of the United States, according to the provisions of that act, shall be voluntarily landed and brought into the United States; and that if landed or brought into the United States, they shall be forfeited, and the same proceedings will be had for their condemnation and the distribution of the proceeds as in other cases of forfeiture of goods illegally imported; and all persons concerned in the voluntary landing or bringing such goods into the United States, shall be liable to a penalty of \$400.

It will be necessary to maintain a great vigilance along the frontier of the Rio Grande to prevent the illegal introduction of merchandise into the United States. In all cases of this description that are discovered, the full penalties of the law will be rigorously enforced.

#### EXPORTS TO CANADA AND OTHER BRITISH PROVINCES.

Merchandise intended for exportation to the adjacent British provinces can be forwarded from the ports of importation in the United States by way of any of the following designated ports:—Rouse's Point, Ogdensburg, Cape Vincent, Suspension Bridge, Lewiston, Buffalo, Oswego, Rochester, Dunkirk, and Plattsburg, New York; Burlington, Swanton, Alburg, and Island Pond, Vermont; Detroit, Michigan; Eastport, Maine; and Pembina, Minnesota.

#### WAREHOUSE AND TRANSPORTATION ENTRY.

The *Union* states, on the authority of the Treasury Department, that on the arrival from any foreign port of goods destined for immediate transportation to other ports of the United States, the warehousing and transportation may be combined in one entry; the oaths to be the same as prescribed in the warehouse entry.

**CARTAGE, DRAYAGE, OR LIGHTERAGE OF GOODS IN BOND.**

All goods in bond, whether passing from the vessel or other conveyance in which imported to the warehouse, or from one vessel or conveyance to another vessel or conveyance, or from the warehouse, on permits of transportation or exportation, all unclaimed goods, and all goods ordered to the appraiser's store for examination, are carted, drayed, or lightered, by the custom-house cartmen, draymen, or lightermen unemployed, and at all ports by persons specially authorized by the collector or other chief revenue officer. The intention is, that bonded goods shall at all times be in the custody of the officers of the customs, or their authorized agents. Such persons are subject to the orders of the collector, and are held to a strict compliance with all the warehouse rules and regulations. The officers are in all cases required, whether at the vessel or warehouse, to give the cartmen, &c., a ticket descriptive of the merchandise delivered to them, and designating the store, vessel, or other place to which it is to be taken, which ticket is to be returned to the officer from whom the merchandise was received, duly receipted by the officer to whom the merchandise was delivered. The cartmen, draymen, and lightermen are held responsible for the safe conveyance of all merchandise delivered to them, and for the good condition of all delivered by them. If they neglect or refuse to convey all merchandise required of them to the public stores or elsewhere as soon as it is ready, on report to the collector, they are subject to dismissal from further employment.

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**ENTRY OF MERCHANDISE FOR CONSUMPTION.**

The entry for consumption must state in full all the particulars required, together with the invoice and bill of lading, and must be presented at the collector's office to the clerks charged with the duty of examining it. When examined, if found correct, it is the duty of the clerks to estimate the duties on the invoice value and quantity, certify to the invoice, and make out a permit in the form prescribed in the act of 1799. The entry and accompanying papers are then taken to the naval officer, who makes a like examination, and if it is found to be correct, checks the entry, invoice, and permit. The papers are then taken to a deputy collector, who administers the oath, designates the package or packages to be sent to the appraiser's store for examination, marking the same on the invoice, entry, and permit. If the importer desires to avail himself of the privilege given by the act of May 28, 1830, and obtain possession of his goods by giving the bond required by the fourth section of that act, he must give this bond, pay the duties as estimated, and send his permit to the vessel in which his goods were imported; but if he prefers to await the examination by the appraisers, it is the duty of the collector, after having administered the oath and directed what packages are to be examined, to issue an order to the officer on board the vessel, and send the invoice by a messenger to the appraiser's store.

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**IMPORTERS' BOND FOR MERCHANDISE.**

Merchants receiving frequent importations may, to obviate inconveniences which would be felt in giving the penal bond prescribed in the fourth section of the act of the 28th of May, 1830, for each importation, give one in lieu thereof running for a period not exceeding six months.

In each case it is the duty of the collector to see that the security provided by the bond is substantial with regard to the pecuniary ability of the obligors. Great care is required to be taken by the collectors and other officers of the customs in the proceedings in the importations, so as to insure beyond doubt the sufficiency of the bond should the United States be compelled to resort to it.

## THE RETURN OF CUSTOM-HOUSE APPRAISERS.

The appraisers, in every case, are required to make their report or return of appraisal in writing, and to sign the same, not by the initials of their names, but in full. The report or return is to be written on the invoice, if practicable. If not, on a separate paper to be permanently attached to the invoice. The return of the appraisers is to describe, in all cases, the character or class of the merchandise, as nearly as possible, in the terms of the tariff, and state under what schedule, in their opinion, it falls, for the information of the collector or naval officer.

## POSTAL DEPARTMENT.

## MODIFICATION OF PRUSSIAN-AMERICAN POSTAL TREATY.

The rates of postage for the correspondence between the United States and foreign countries, passing through the German Postal Union, under the Prussian-American Postal Convention, have undergone some slight modification since the publication of the foreign postage table of March 1, 1855, and the following list embraces all the countries and places to which letters and newspapers may be forwarded in said closed mail, with the necessary alterations.

Postmasters should compare this with, and note the alterations upon, the postage table above referred to.

## PREPAYMENT OPTIONAL.

|  |    |                   |    |
|--|----|-------------------|----|
| German-Austrian Postal Union, States of, viz.:—Prussia, all other German States, and the whole Austrian Empire, by the Prussian closed mail, via London and Ostend.....cents |    |                   | 30 |
| Alexandria.....cents   | 38 | Norway.....       | 46 |
| Altona.....  | 33 | Papal States..... | 35 |
| Beyrout.....   | 40 | Parma.....        | 33 |
| Candia.....  | 40 | Poland.....       | 37 |
| Cesme.....   | 40 | Rhodes.....       | 40 |
| Constantinople.....  | 40 | Russia.....       | 37 |
| Dardanelles, the.....  | 40 | Salonica.....     | 40 |
| Denmark.....   | 35 | Samsum.....       | 40 |
| Galatz.....  | 40 | Sardinia.....     | 38 |
| Gallipoli.....   | 40 | Smyrna.....       | 40 |
| Greece.....  | 42 | Sweden.....       | 42 |
| Ibralia.....   | 40 | Switzerland.....  | 35 |
| Ionian Islands.....  | 38 | Talcha.....       | 40 |
| Italy.....   | 33 | Trebizonde.....   | 40 |
| Larnæa.....  | 40 | Tuloza.....       | 40 |
| Lauenburg.....   | 33 | Tuscany.....      | 35 |
| Lombardy.....  | 33 | Varna.....        | 40 |
| Modena.....  | 33 |                   |    |

## PREPAYMENT REQUIRED.

|  |  |    |
|--|--|----|
| China, except Hong Kong, via Trieste.....cents   |  | 62 |
| East Indies, English possessions in, via Trieste.....  |  | 38 |
| East Indies, and all other countries in and beyond the East Indies, via Trieste.   |  | 70 |
| Hong Kong, via Trieste.....  |  | 38 |
| Egypt, except Alexandria.....  |  | 38 |
| Turkey, Wallachia, Moldavia, Servia, Levante, and Turkish Islands in the Mediterranean, via Trieste, except Alexandretta, Antivari, Beyrout, Bourghas, Caifa, Candia, Canea, Cesme, Constantinople, Dardanelles, Durazzo, Galatz, Gallipoli, Ibralia, Ineboli, Jaffa, Larnæa, Latakia, Mersina, Mytelene, Prevesa, Rhodes, Salonica, Sinope, Smyrna, Tenedos, Trebizonde, Talcha, Tuloza, Valona, Vara, and Volo, by Prussian closed mail..... |  | 30 |

Alexandretta, Antivari, Bourghas, Caifa, Durazzo, Ineboli, Jaffa, Latakia, Mer-  
sina, Mytelene, Prevesa, Sinope, Tenedos, Valona, and Volo, via Trieste, by  
Prussian closed mail ..... 40

The rates above mentioned are the full postage through to destination, with the ex-  
ception of "Turkey, Wallachia, Moldavia, Servia, Levant, and Turkish Islands in the  
Mediterranean," as requiring the prepayment of 30 cents a letter, which is the United  
States and Prussian postage.

Newspapers to be sent in the Prussian closed mail must be prepaid six cents each,  
which is the full United States and Prussian postage. If to go through said closed  
mail to the British possessions in the East Indies, or to Hong Kong, they must be pre-  
paid ten cents, and if to other points in China, or to countries beyond the East Indies,  
thirteen cents each. But to the East Indies and China it is believed that the cheapest  
route for newspapers is in the British mail via Southampton, four cents each, to be  
prepaid, being the full United States and British Postage.

With reference to the Prussian closed mail, we are desired to remark, also, that in  
many instances, letters which should come in this mail, particularly from the southern  
part of Germany, are received in the open mail generally via France, thus rendering  
them subject to additional and much higher rates of postage; and it is suggested that  
writers would aid greatly toward correcting this irregularity by requesting their cor-  
respondents in Germany to inform themselves as to the correct rates of postage, and  
to mark their letters specially to be forwarded in the "Prussian closed mail via Ostend  
and London."

It should also be observed that a prepayment in either country of less than the  
combined rate of thirty cents on a single letter goes for nothing, no account being  
taken of partial payments.

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#### ACCOUNTS AND RETURNS OF POSTMASTERS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Every postmaster, according to the *Union*, speaking on the authority of the Post-  
Office Department, is required to make up his accounts and forward *transcripts* of  
them to the third Assistant Postmaster-General, at the end of every quarter, which is  
on the last days of March, June, September, and December. In case of death, resig-  
nation, or removal of a postmaster, or the discontinuance of an office, or in case of the  
giving of a new official bond in consequence of a change in the name of an office, the  
expiration of the term for which the postmaster may have been appointed, or other-  
wise, the accounts are required to be made up to the day (though it is not the end of  
a quarter) in which the office ceases to operate, or the new appointment, or the new  
bond, as the case may be, takes effect. Many postmasters have been in the habit of  
forwarding to the department their *original accounts*, keeping no duplicate or copy.  
This is contrary to the regulations of the department, and will not be permitted. The  
department requires, in all cases, *transcripts or copies only* to be sent, and the original  
accounts to be carefully preserved for inspection.

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#### POSTAGE ON BACK NUMBERS OF NEWSPAPERS.

Back numbers of newspapers, if addressed to a regular subscriber, are chargeable  
with a postage of one cent each, payable either at the office of publication or the  
office of delivery; but if sent to a person not a subscriber, they are considered trans-  
ient papers, and as such are chargeable with one cent each if prepaid, and with two  
cents if not prepaid. None but regular subscribers to newspapers are entitled to the  
benefit of quarterly or yearly prepayment.

**PUBLICATIONS SENT TO THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS AND SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.**

The fifth section of the act of Congress, approved 3d March, 1855, extending the right to send books, maps, and charts, or other publications entered for copyright, and which, under the act of August 10, 1846, are required to be deposited in the Library of Congress and in the Smithsonian Institute, by mail, free of postage, does not conflict with the provisions of the third section of the act approved 30th August, 1852, which provides "that there shall be no word or communication printed on the same after its publication, or upon the cover or wrapper thereof, nor any writing or marks upon it, nor upon the wrapper thereof, except the name and address. There shall be no paper or other thing inclosed in or with such printed matter;" and "if such conditions are not complied with, such printed matter shall be subject to letter postage."

The written notification from the author or publisher of works to be entered for copyright should be forwarded by mail prepaid, as the right to receive maps, charts, or other publications, free of postage, does not embrace written letters accompanying them, though the letters may relate exclusively to the subject.

**THE DUTIES OF POSTMASTERS IN REGARD TO WASTE PAPER.**

JAMES CAMPBELL, the Postmaster-General, has made the following important order in regard to waste paper:—

"It shall be the duty of the postmaster, or of one of his assistants, in all cases immediately before the office is swept or otherwise cleared of rubbish, to collect and examine the waste paper which has accumulated therein, in order to guard against the possibility of loss of letters or other mail matter, which may have fallen on the floor, or have been intermingled with such waste paper during the transaction of business. The observance of this rule is strictly enjoined upon all postmasters, and its violation will constitute a grave offense. Postmasters must be careful to use, in mailing letters or packets, all wrapping paper fit to be used again; and the sale of any such paper is strictly forbidden by the regulations of the Department."

**REGISTRATION OF LETTERS.**

In the new system of registration for the greater security of valuable letters sent by mail, with each letter bill sent from the mailing office a blank letter bill is sent, which is denominated the *return* letter bill, and which should be filled up at the office of delivery according to instructions, and returned to the mailing office from which it was received. We are informed that several postmasters, disregarding the general instructions with which they have been furnished, and misunderstanding the instructions printed on the bill received from the mailing office, (which is, to return to "this office,") are in the habit of returning these bills to the Department. We are advised that postmasters at distributing offices, in making their entries in their account of distributed registered letters sent, should treat such letters precisely as if not registered, taking no account whatever of the registration fee. No distribution commission is allowed them on the registration fee.

**LOST DRAFTS OR WARRANTS.**

The Washington *Union* learns from the Postmaster-General, that in all cases where application is made for the issue of a duplicate draft or warrant, upon the allegation that the original is lost, every such application must be addressed to the Auditor for the Post-Office Department, and must be accompanied by a statement, or

oath, or affirmation by the applicant, or by the person who is the legal holder thereof, showing the time, place, and all the circumstances attending the loss or destruction of the draft or warrant, with its number, date, and amount; in whose favor it was issued, and if assigned, to whom made payable; together with any other particulars relating to it within the knowledge of the applicant. The applicant must also produce a letter or certificate from the officer or person on whom the draft or warrant may have been drawn, showing that it has not been paid, also that payment of the same will not thereafter be made to the owner or any other person whatever.

## COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

### IMPORT OF CLOTHS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

The following tabular statement, compiled from the Treasury Reports, shows the comparative import of cloths and cassimeres into the United States from Holland, Belgium, France, England, &c., for each of the years from 1839 to 1854. It will be seen that the cloths of Germany and France have been rapidly gaining on England in the American market:—

#### IMPORT OF CLOTHS AND CASSIMERES INTO THE UNITED STATES.

|           | Hanse Towns<br>and Holland. | Belgium. | France.   | England.    | Total.      |
|-----------|-----------------------------|----------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| 1840..... | \$16,612                    | \$93,185 | \$89,767  | \$4,490,830 | \$4,696,529 |
| 1841..... | 18,171                      | 141,153  | 180,478   | 4,597,145   | 4,942,867   |
| 1842..... | 16,268                      | 203,046  | 295,689   | 3,475,022   | 3,995,577   |
| 1843..... | 5,879                       | 60,240   | 92,998    | 1,195,970   | 1,350,628   |
| 1844..... | 43,877                      | 350,123  | 594,548   | 3,784,456   | 4,777,940   |
| 1845..... | 66,955                      | 277,078  | 1,244,325 | 3,815,853   | 5,411,850   |
| 1846..... | 198,210                     | 298,194  | 1,330,701 | 2,354,394   | 4,192,310   |
| 1847..... | 274,409                     | 338,370  | 1,703,573 | 2,207,821   | 4,527,742   |
| 1848..... | 716,031                     | 396,712  | 2,466,302 | 2,777,612   | 6,364,145   |
| 1849..... | 810,463                     | 896,710  | 1,173,250 | 2,113,439   | 4,995,957   |
| 1850..... | 1,000,231                   | 769,799  | 1,639,706 | 2,771,282   | 6,184,190   |
| 1851..... | 1,411,282                   | 478,532  | 1,988,181 | 3,785,070   | 7,669,520   |
| 1852..... | 1,326,062                   | 444,987  | 1,735,530 | 3,401,892   | 6,908,471   |
| 1853..... | 2,474,082                   | 542,497  | 2,233,478 | 5,821,436   | 11,071,906  |
| 1854..... | 3,681,139                   | 494,735  | 1,771,432 | 7,692,965   | 13,159,833  |

### SHIPS OF THE WORLD.

We give in this number of the *Merchants' Magazine* a tabular statement of the number of vessels, with their tonnage, included in the commercial marine of the world, except those of China, Japan, and the East, concerning which little is known.

Most of the figures, as will be seen, are given from official reports of the various governments, at different dates from 1848 to 1854, with the estimates of increase from the date of reports to 1854, founded on past rates of increase and their present commercial activities, so that the table presents a tolerably correct view of the shipping of the world in 1854. For the figures we are indebted in part to a long and able article in the *London News* of April 12th, 1855. The number of Bremen vessels in the table may be that of arrivals of their own ships rather than the actual number owned in that city. The number of American vessels is not given in the report, but it will be seen that our tonnage is about one-ninth more than the British, including our steamboats and small fishing craft. Adding one-ninth to the number of their vessels we have about 40,500 as the number of our own:—

## SHIPPING OF THE WORLD IN 1854.

|  | Vessels. | Tonnage.   |
|--|----------|------------|
| United States in 1854.....   | 40,500   | 5,661,416  |
| Great Britain and colonies in 1854.....  | 35,960   | 5,043,270  |
| France, official, in 1850.....   | 14,354   | 688,130    |
| Increase to 1854.....  | .....    | 28,000     |
|  |          | <hr/>      |
| Spain and colonies in 1850.....  | 7,606    | 361,401    |
| Increase at 5 per cent in 1854.....  | 380      | 18,020     |
|  | <hr/>    | <hr/>      |
|  | 7,986    | 379,421    |
| Portugal in 1848.....  | 789      | 80,525     |
| Increase at 7 per cent to 1854.....  | 47       | 5,631      |
|  | <hr/>    | <hr/>      |
|  | 836      | 86,156     |
| Sardinia, Tuscany, Naples, Sicily, and the Papal States to 1854, supposed..... | 17,066   | 546,021    |
| Austria in 1849.....   | 6,083    | 259,583    |
| Increase at 5 per cent to 1854.....  | 1,520    | 64,895     |
|  | <hr/>    | <hr/>      |
|  | 7,603    | 324,447    |
| Greece in 1854.....  | 3,970    | 264,981    |
| Turkey in 1854.....  | 2,220    | 182,000    |
| Egypt in 1854.....   | 230      | 38,790     |
| Belgium in 1850.....   | 149      | 30,577     |
| Increase to 1854.....  | ...      | 5,423      |
|  | <hr/>    | <hr/>      |
|  | 149      | 36,000     |
| Holland in 1850.....   | 1,793    | 396,924    |
| Increase at 15 per cent to 1854.....   | 297      | 59,538     |
|  | <hr/>    | <hr/>      |
|  | 2,090    | 456,462    |
| Hanover and Oldenburg in 1854 may have....                                     | 500      | 40,000     |
| Hamburg in 1852.....   | 369      | 119,884    |
| Lubeck.....  | 70       | 9,380      |
| Bremen.....  | 500      | 160,000    |
| Mecklenburg.....   | 150      | 40,000     |
| Prussia in 1849.....   | 1,531    | 283,638    |
| Increase at 30 per cent to 1854.....   | 459      | 85,091     |
|  | <hr/>    | <hr/>      |
|  | 1,990    | 368,729    |
| Denmark in 1852.....   | 4,695    | 189,190    |
| Increase at 2 per cent to 1854.....  | 94       | .....      |
| Tonnage at 10 per cent.....  | ...      | 18,919     |
|  | <hr/>    | <hr/>      |
|  | 4,789    | 208,109    |
| Norway in 1851.....  | .....    | 368,632    |
| Sweden in 1852.....  | 886      | 147,928    |
| Russia less than.....  | 800      | .....      |
| Mexico, Brazil, and all the States of Central and South America.....           | 1,530    | 193,735    |
| Sandwich and Society Islands.....  | 100      | 3,000      |
|  | <hr/>    | <hr/>      |
|  | 139,148  | 14,457,977 |
| Giving Norway 852 vessels, which is less than her tonnage would warrant.....   | 852      |            |
|  | <hr/>    |            |
| We have as the shipping of the world.....                                      | 145,500  |            |
| Giving to Russia.....  |          | 105,509    |
|  |          | <hr/>      |
| And we have as the tonnage of the world.....                                   |          | 15,500,000 |

At \$50 the ton, the shipping of the world is worth the enormous amount of \$775,000,000. Of this fifteen and a half millions of tonnage, more than ten and a half millions belong to the English race; more than twelve and a half millions belong to Protestant nations, including that of France; more than thirteen millions of this "abundance of the sea" is in part already "converted to the Church." It presents at the present hour the great barrier to the conquest of the world by military absolutism, and a great bulwark of civil and religious liberty.

COMPARATIVE NAVIGATION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES.

The following table shows at a glance the comparative tonnage entering the ports of Great Britain and the United States at different periods, from the commencement of the present century to 1854, inclusive. It will be seen by this table that Great Britain was in 1854 nearly 2,000,000 tons ahead of the United States; but in a few years, with the same ratio of increase, the United States will become the first commercial power in the world:—

| Years.    | ENTERED GREAT BRITAIN. |           |           | ENTERED UNITED STATES. |           |           |
|-----------|------------------------|-----------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|-----------|
|           | Great Britain.         | Foreign.  | Total.    | United States.         | Foreign.  | Total.    |
| 1800..... | 922,594                | 780,155   | 1,702,749 | 682,871                | 123,882   | 806,753   |
| 1807..... | 907,764                | 680,144   | 1,487,407 | 1,089,876              | 47,572    | 1,237,548 |
| 1814..... | 1,290,248              | 399,287   | 1,889,535 | 59,626                 | 48,302    | 107,928   |
| 1820..... | 1,668,060              | 477,611   | 2,115,671 | 801,252                | 79,204    | 880,457   |
| 1830..... | 2,180,042              | 758,828   | 2,938,070 | 870,299                | 134,419   | 1,004,718 |
| 1840..... | 2,807,867              | 1,298,840 | 4,106,207 | 1,576,946              | 712,363   | 2,209,309 |
| 1850..... | 4,078,544              | 2,035,152 | 6,113,696 | 2,573,016              | 1,775,623 | 4,348,839 |
| 1852..... | 4,267,815              | 2,462,354 | 6,730,169 | 3,235,522              | 2,057,358 | 5,292,880 |
| 1853..... | 4,513,207              | 3,284,343 | 7,797,550 | 4,004,013              | 2,277,930 | 6,281,943 |
| 1854..... | 4,789,986              | 3,109,756 | 7,899,742 | 3,752,115              | 2,132,224 | 5,884,339 |

EXPORTS OF TEA FROM CHINA TO THE UNITED STATES.

We have received from a correspondent at Hong Kong, the *China Mail*, containing full statistics of the tea trade for each year from June 30, 1845, to June 30, 1854, and from June 30, 1854, to June 10, 1855, from which we condense the exports to the United States (years ending in June) as follows:—

| Years.    | Vessels. | Total green. | Total black. | Total lbs. |
|-----------|----------|--------------|--------------|------------|
| 1845..... | ..       | 13,812,099   | 6,950,459    | 20,762,558 |
| 1846..... | 40       | 14,236,082   | 4,266,166    | 18,502,288 |
| 1847..... | 37       | 13,853,132   | 4,318,496    | 18,171,625 |
| 1848..... | 38       | 15,345,030   | 3,993,617    | 19,338,640 |
| 1849..... | 37       | 13,818,700   | 4,853,600    | 18,672,300 |
| 1850..... | 44       | 14,396,400   | 7,361,400    | 21,757,800 |
| 1851..... | 64       | 15,215,700   | 13,545,100   | 28,760,800 |
| 1852..... | 68       | 20,937,300   | 13,396,700   | 34,334,000 |
| 1853..... | 72       | 26,489,800   | 14,484,700   | 40,974,500 |
| 1854..... | 47       | 18,280,300   | 9,587,200    | 27,867,500 |

The total export of tea from the undermentioned ports from 1st of July, 1854, to 10th June, 1855, has been as follows:—

|             |           |               |        |              |           |
|-------------|-----------|---------------|--------|--------------|-----------|
| Canton..... | 2,400,000 | Shanghai..... | 19,610 | Fuhohan..... | 4,850,000 |
|-------------|-----------|---------------|--------|--------------|-----------|

IRON IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES IN 1850-54.

The following statement, exhibiting the quantity and value of railroad iron imported into the United States from June 30, 1850, to June 30, 1854, inclusive; and also the quantity in bond on the 30th of June, 1854, is derived from a report made by F Bigler, Register of the Treasury:—

| Year ending—             | Tons.     | Cwt. | Value.       | Duty.           | Cost per ton. |
|--------------------------|-----------|------|--------------|-----------------|---------------|
| June 30, 1851.....       | 188,625   | 16   | \$4,901,452  | \$1,470,435 60  | \$25 98       |
| 1852.....                | 245,625   | 10   | 6,228,794    | 1,868,638 20    | 25 36         |
| 1853.....                | 298,995   | 04   | 10,426,037   | 3,127,711 10    | 34 87         |
| 1854.....                | 282,866   | 19   | 12,020,309   | 3,606,092 70    | 49 49         |
| Total.....               | 1,016,113 | 09   | \$33,576,592 | \$10,072,977 60 | .....         |
| In bond June 30, 1854... | 47,732    | 18   | 1,986,184    | .....           | \$41 61       |

**WOOL IMPORTED INTO GREAT BRITAIN.**

We give below a statement of the quantity of wool imported into Great Britain in each of the last fifteen years—that is, from 1840 to 1854, inclusive:—

| Years.    | Total.<br>Pounds. | Germany.<br>Pounds. | Australia.<br>Pounds. |
|-----------|-------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 1840..... | 49,436,284        | 21,812,664          | 9,725,243             |
| 1841..... | 56,170,974        | 20,959,375          | 12,390,362            |
| 1842..... | 45,881,639        | 15,613,269          | 12,979,956            |
| 1843..... | 49,243,093        | 16,805,448          | 17,433,780            |
| 1844..... | 65,713,761        | 21,847,684          | 17,632,247            |
| 1845..... | 76,813,755        | 18,484,736          | 24,177,217            |
| 1846..... | 65,255,452        | 15,888,705          | 21,789,346            |
| 1847..... | 62,592,598        | 12,673,814          | 26,056,815            |
| 1848..... | 70,864,847        | 14,429,161          | 30,018,221            |
| 1849..... | 76,768,647        | 12,750,011          | 35,879,171            |
| 1850..... | 74,326,778        | 9,166,731           | 39,018,221            |
| 1851..... | 83,311,975        | 8,219,236           | 41,810,917            |
| 1852..... | 93,761,458        | 12,765,253          | 43,297,402            |
| 1853..... | 119,396,549       | 11,584,800          | 47,076,010            |
| 1854..... | 106,121,995       | 11,448,518          | 47,489,650            |

THE IMPORTS FROM OTHER COUNTRIES INCLUDED IN THE ABOVE FIGURES, ARE:—

|   | 1840.     | 1854.      |
|---|-----------|------------|
| From South Africa.....                                      | 741,741   | 8,223,598  |
| East Indies.....  | 2,441,370 | 14,965,191 |
| South America.....  | 4,387,274 | 5,134,334  |
| Continent of Europe, exclusive of Germany<br>and Spain..... | 8,441,264 | 14,481,483 |
| Other foreign countries.....                                | 513,823   | 2,954,921  |
| Spain.....  | 1,266,905 | 424,300    |

**JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.****THE COAL FIELDS AND PRODUCTS OF THE OHIO VALLEY.**

BY MR. SMITH, OF THE CINCINNATI RAILROAD RECORD.

The coal trade is likely to increase so rapidly and become so large an element of railway traffic, that it is worth while to look into the sources of supply and demand. The first thing that strikes us is the remarkable and most important fact, that the Ohio Valley contains (proportionally) the largest coal field in the world. A second fact, scarcely less remarkable, is that, including the natural water courses, and the existent and probable artificial lines of Commerce, it has the largest means of inter-communication. A third striking fact is, that in the abundance of food and the great quantity and variety of minerals, it has the greatest inducements for the consumption of coal in manufacturing.

In this article we shall consider the first branch of this subject, the coal fields and products of the Ohio Valley.

1. What is the Ohio Valley? The Ohio Valley comprehends all that space of country penetrated and watered by the Ohio River and its tributaries. It comprehends Western Pennsylvania, Western Virginia, all of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, up to the narrow rim of the Lakes, and the States of Kentucky and Tennessee. It comprehends a surface of about 230,000 square miles; and on that surface the coal basins, or, in other words, the surface which is underlaid with coal is, according to the best authorities, as follows:—

|                            | Surface.             | Coal surface.        |
|----------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Western Pennsylvania ..... | 20,000 square miles. | 10,000 square miles. |
| Western Virginia.....      | 25,000 "             | 18,000 "             |
| Ohio.....                  | 35,000 "             | 10,000 "             |
| Indiana.....               | 33,000 "             | 7,500 "              |
| Illinois.....              | 40,000 "             | 35,000 "             |
| Kentucky.....              | 40,000 "             | 13,500 "             |
| Tennessee.....             | 40,000 "             | 5,000 "              |
| Aggregate.....             | 233,000 "            | 99,000 "             |

The above surfaces are not those of the States named, but of that part in the Valley of the Ohio. We see, then, the extraordinary fact that more than one-third the Valley of the Ohio is underlaid with coal! That we may see clearly the immense advantage enjoyed by the Valley of the Ohio in this particular, we subjoin a table of proportionable coal surfaces in the most civilized nations:—

|                     | Whole surface. | Coal surface. | Per cent. |
|---------------------|----------------|---------------|-----------|
|                     | Sq. miles.     | Sq. miles.    |           |
| Great Britain ..... | 120,304        | 12,000        | 10        |
| France.....         | 213,838        | 2,000         | 1         |
| Belgium.....        | 10,000         | 500           | 5         |
| United States.....  | 3,300,000      | 200,000       | 6         |
| Ohio Valley.....    | 233,000        | 99,000        | 42        |

Here, then, we find that one-half the coal surface of the United States is in the Ohio Valley; and that it is six times greater than all the coal fields of Great Britain, France, and Belgium! To illustrate this still further, we give a table of distances from the principal towns in the Ohio Valley to the nearest workable bed of coal:—

|                         | Miles. |                       | Miles. |
|-------------------------|--------|-----------------------|--------|
| Pittsburgh, Penn.....   | 0      | Lexington, Ky.....    | 50     |
| Steubenville, Ohio..... | 0      | Louisville.....       | 120    |
| Wheeling, Va.....       | 0      | New Albany, Ind.....  | 120    |
| Zanesville, Ohio.....   | 0      | Indianapolis.....     | 55     |
| Marietta.....           | 20     | Terre Haute.....      | 10     |
| Chillicothe.....        | 30     | La Fayette.....       | 60     |
| Columbus.....           | 40     | Vincennes.....        | 40     |
| Dayton.....             | 110    | Springfield, Ill..... | 50     |
| Cincinnati.....         | 110    | St. Louis, Mo.....    | 10     |
| Covington, Ky.....      | 110    | Knoxville, Tenn.....  | 10     |
| Newport.....            | 110    | Nashville.....        | 20     |

It will be noted in the above table, that no place in the Valley of the Ohio is more than from 100 to 120 miles from coal banks. If sinking shafts were resorted to and under ground mining, as in England, it is possible no place is more than 50 miles. But 100 miles carriage is no objection to the consumption of coal. On the contrary, it can be carried for five cents per bushel, and then be cheap enough.

Let us now look at what the production of coal is in the Ohio Valley, and what it will be. The present production of coal in the Ohio Valley is, after careful investigation, supposed to be as follows:—

|   |       |            |
|---|-------|------------|
| Consumption of Pittsburgh for all purposes..... | bush. | 22,300,000 |
| Exportation from Pittsburgh.....                |       | 14,400,000 |
| Consumption of Wheeling.....                    |       | 2,000,000  |
| Product of Pomeroy and vicinity.....            |       | 7,000,000  |
| Received at Cleveland from Ohio mines.....      |       | 3,000,000  |
| Product of Nelsonville.....                     |       | 1,200,000  |
| “ other places in Ohio.....                     |       | 3,000,000  |
| “ Kentucky.....                                 |       | 2,000,000  |
| “ Indiana.....                                  |       | 1,500,000  |
| “ Illinois.....                                 |       | 1,000,000  |
| “ Tennessee.....                                |       | 1,000,000  |
| Aggregate.....                                  |       | 58,400,000 |

In round numbers, we produce sixty millions of bushels of bituminous coal in the Valley of the Ohio. But what is that in comparison with the consumption in other countries, and compared with what it will be? Let us look at the consumption and population of other countries and compare it with our own.

|                     | Population. | Consumption.<br>Bushels. | Ratio.              |
|---------------------|-------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| Great Britain ..... | 27,000,000  | 825,000,000              | 34 to 1             |
| France .....        | 36,000,000  | 105,000,000              | 3 to 1              |
| Belgium .....       | 5,000,000   | 125,000,000              | 25 to 1             |
| Prussia .....       | 12,000,000  | 3,500,000                | $\frac{1}{3}$ to 1  |
| United States ..... | 24,000,000  | 230,000,000              | $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 |
| Ohio Valley .....   | 6,000,000   | 60,000,000               | 10 to 1             |

This shows that the consumption of coal in the Ohio Valley now is not more than one-third in proportion to that of France, England, or Belgium, although the coal banks there are not one-sixth part, in proportion, what they are here.

This is owing to the cheapness of wood, and the want of capital to develop the mines. But these obstacles are rapidly passing away. Wood is becoming dear in the commercial towns, and capital is fast learning that mining is a profitable business. It is quite obvious that the time is not far off in which the proportion of coal consumed will be quite as high in the States of the Ohio Valley as in Belgium. Beside this, it must increase likewise with the increase of population. Combining these so as to advance the ratio in the proportion of the increased population for the next thirty years, and we have the increase of coal consumed as follows, viz. :—

|               | Population. | Ratio. | Con. of coal. |
|---------------|-------------|--------|---------------|
| In 1850 ..... | 5,000,000   | 10     | 60,000,000    |
| In 1860 ..... | 8,000,000   | 13     | 104,000,000   |
| In 1870 ..... | 10,600,000  | 17     | 180,000,000   |
| In 1880 ..... | 14,200,000  | 23     | 326,000,000   |

This will probably be much below the results; for the rapid increase of manufacture consequent on the opening of the Central Western mines of coal, iron, copper, zinc, and lead, will increase population at a more rapid rate than is above stated; and the same cause will also increase more rapidly the ratio of consumption to population.

In fine, when we regard coal as the great motive power of all machinery, as the principal fuel for domestic purposes, and then look at the vast, inexhaustible amounts which are piled up in all the hills, mountains, and vales of the Central West, we must regard it as the great element in its future growth, and as securing, in the language of Johnson, "wealth beyond the dreams of avarice."

#### STATISTICS OF BREWERIES IN THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

There are about two thousand brewers in the British Islands, and the number of victualers who brew their own ale is set down at 28,000. In London there are about one hundred wholesale brewers. In 1850, there were 21,668 tons of hops grown in England, paying a duty of £270,000, or \$1,350,000. *Blackwood* sets this down as probably a larger quantity than is furnished by all the rest of the world together. Of this amount only 98 tons were exported, and on the other hand 320 tons were imported. The English boast of their cultivation of the hop, and extol "this branch of farming as the most liberal, the most remarkable," and the most expensive of any in England. In the same year (1850) the barley and bere crops of Ireland stood thus:

|              | Acres.  | Quarters of 8 bushels. |
|--------------|---------|------------------------|
| Barley ..... | 263,350 | 1,299,835              |
| Bere .....   | 57,811  | 208,291                |

## NEW PROCESS OF TANNING LEATHER.

On the 18th of July, 1855, a patent was granted to Roswell Enos, for tanning sole leather by a new process, and from specimens of leather produced placed in our hands for examination by the patentee, as well as from reading the specification, we are convinced that the process is a good one. No new substances are employed, those which the patentee uses having been long known to tanners; he only employs them in a different manner from that which has been practiced heretofore:—

“The hair is first removed from the hides in any usual manner, and the hides thoroughly cleansed in either pure water or in a solution of salt and water. A batch of fifty sides are then placed in a liquor composed by steeping forty pounds of Sicily sumac, or one hundred and fifty pounds of unground native sumac, in two hundred and fifty gallons of water, and adding twenty-five pounds of salt thereto. The sides remain in said liquor from twelve to twenty-four hours—the length of time depending upon the temperature of the said liquor and the condition of the sides. About blood heat is the best temperature for the aforesaid liquor. After the sides have remained the aforesaid length of time in the salted infusion of sumac, the liquor is strengthened by adding thereto somewhere about two hundred gallons of strong oak or hemlock liquor, and fifteen pounds of salt, and the sides allowed to remain in this strengthened liquor for the space of from twelve to twenty-four hours. The sides should then be withdrawn, and placed in about the same quantity of a strong cold oak or hemlock liquor, containing twenty pounds of salt in solution, and allowed to remain in it for five or six days. They are then withdrawn and placed in the same quantity and quality of liquor—save that it should be of about blood-warm temperature, are allowed to remain therein five or six days, which latter operation should be repeated for six or seven times, when the side will generally be found to be completely tanned. While passing through each stage of this said tanning process the sides should be repeatedly handled, as all tanners are fully aware.”

This is a description of the process. Practical tanners will perceive that neither acids nor alkalis are used for raising the hides, but that the salt sumac liquor is employed for the preparatory, and the common tan liquor for the finishing process. The inventor is an old experienced tanner, and he says:—

“The salt sumac liquor enters at once into the pores to the very heart of the sides, and so acts upon them as to give them an exceedingly pliable yet firm basis, and so prepares them that the strongest liquors of oak or hemlock, &c., may afterwards be applied without binding or injuring the hides.”

Tanning is a chemical process, and consists in applying such substances to the skins of animals as will combine with them, and form a compound firm, pliable, and insoluble in water, which we term “leather.” It is easy to make leather, but there are as many qualities of it as there are of cloth. The tanning processes, to make good leather, are tedious and expensive, requiring months to complete all the operations. To shorten the time required in the process, many plans have been employed, and numerous substances used to bloat the hides, so as to allow the tanning to combine rapidly with their gelatine. Some of these have, indeed, shortened the process, but at the expense of the quality of leather, it being rendered very brittle; hence, a general, and perhaps a just, prejudice exists among practical tanners against new processes in this art. No such prejudice can exist against this new process, as no new substances are used. The sole leather which we have seen made by it will bear the most severe scrutiny. We have also been assured that the sole leather made by this process, from sweated Buenos Ayres hides, will make sewed work equally as well as the lined slaughter hides. The leather is also tough and strong. The length of time required for tanning a dry Buenos Ayres hide is ninety days, with 75 per cent gain. The time required for tanning an Oronoco hide is much less, with a gain of 80 or 85 per cent. This method will tan slaughter sole leather in thirty days; harness or upper leather in the rough in twenty days, and calf-skins in from six to twelve days.

We believe the public is more deceived, and gets less real value for their money, in common boots and shoes than any other article used as parts of human covering. The lighter kinds of shoes especially, sold in the stores, are a disgrace to the trade, both as it respects the sewing and the leather. The uppers are generally made of glazed sheep-skin, about as thick and strong as old-fashioned brown paper, and the sewing, which is now performed in many instances by machines, is so carelessly executed as to bring into disrepute—unjustly, we think—the character of those machines. In conversation, a few days ago, with a journeyman carpenter, in our city, who has a family of five children, he declared it impossible for him to keep his family in such shoes as were sold at the stores. He had, from necessity, been compelled to learn the art of making boots and shoes for his children, and one pair of his own making, he assured us, lasted four times as long as a “market pair.” This should not be, for we are convinced that the lighter as well as the heavier kinds of leather can be made far better than most of that which is now generally used, and we hope this new process of tanning will be the means of effecting a total reformation in the character of the material for making common boots and shoes.

### THE COAL TRADE OF PENNSYLVANIA:

#### ITS PAST, ITS PRESENT, AND ITS FUTURE.

The mineral wealth of Pennsylvania, says the *Inquirer* of that State, may be estimated by millions. It is one of the most invaluable resources of the State. Its history and progress are quite extraordinary. But the other day, comparatively speaking, and the first ton of coal was sent to the Philadelphia market—now, the aggregate per annum amounts to millions of tons!

In the year 1820 the entire amount of coal sent to market from the various regions of Pennsylvania was 365 tons. In 1854 it was 5,847,151. And the total since 1820 is 48,907,800 tons. The trade, too, is constantly increasing. Coal is almost daily being applied to new uses, and thus new demands are continually arising. The capital invested in the various works, such as the Reading Railroad, the Lehigh Canal, the Schuylkill Canal, and the various subordinate railroads, amounts in the aggregate to many millions of dollars. But we cannot conceive of any mode of investment more laudable.

The coal in the mines is, comparatively speaking, valueless; but, dug from the bowels of the earth and sent over the various railroads and canals, and thence again to more distant towns and cities by means of vessels, it becomes a truly important article not only of manufacture, but of Commerce; and while it imparts heat to the homes of thousands and tens of thousands of the community, it affords employment in the various operations of mining, transporting, and manufacturing, to a very large class of the children of industry.

The history of the coal trade, so far as Pennsylvania is concerned, possesses the deepest interest to all who have paid the slightest attention to the development of national resources and the progress of human events. How many fortunes have been won and lost by speculations connected with railroads! How many farms, which a few years ago were regarded as valueless in a great measure, are now considered as precious as some of the mines in California! And yet, we repeat, the trade is in its infancy.

We are only beginning to realize the true importance of this feature of the mineral wealth of Pennsylvania. It is true, that the future may, in some degree, be measured by the past; and yet it is difficult to persuade, even the most sanguine, that such will be the case.

**THE MANUFACTURE OF WATCHES.**

A watch is no longer, as it was formerly, an object of luxury, destined exclusively for the rich; it has become an article of the first necessity for every class in society, and as, together with the increased perfection of this article, its value has in the same time considerably diminished, it is evident that a common watch, which will exactly indicate the hour of the day, is actually, by its low price, within the reach of almost every individual, who will likewise feel anxious to possess one.

For this reason, and in proportion as commercial and maritime relations are extended and emancipated from the trammels in which the great central marts of Commerce have involved them, so will distant nations become civilized; and it may be fairly anticipated that the art of watch-making will form a part of the great current of improvement.

The number of watches manufactured annually in Neuchatel may be calculated to be from 100,000 to 120,000, of which about 35,000 are in gold, and the rest in silver.

Now, supposing the first, on an average, to be worth \$30, and the others \$4, it would represent a capital of \$1,390,000, without taking into consideration the sale of clocks and instruments for watch-making, the amount of which is very large.

The United States of America consume the largest quantity of those watches. With the exception of gold and silver for the manufacture of the watch-cases, the other materials for the construction of the works or mechanism of the Neuchatel watches are of little value, consisting merely of a little brass or steel. The steel is imported from England, and is reckoned the best that can be procured; the brass is furnished by France.

With respect to gold and silver, the inhabitants of Neuchatel have had for a long time no other resource but to melt current money, until they received gold from England, which the English merchants received from California.

The number of workmen who are employed in watch making is estimated at from 18,000 to 20,000, but it is difficult to arrive at the exact number, as the population employed carry on the business in their own houses.

The spirit of adventure is very strong among the inhabitants of the Jura Mountains. A great many of them have traveled into very remote countries, whence some have returned with considerable fortunes.

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**COTTON MANUFACTURE IN THE SOUTH.**

An able writer, in a Northern periodical, says a Southern cotemporary, has taken up this subject, and shows very conclusively that the Southern States ought to become the manufacturers, as well as producers, of cotton for the world. From facts furnished by this writer, it appears that the cotton manufacture makes up nearly one-half of the external trade of the British kingdom. The United States furnish four-fifths of the six hundred millions of pounds imported into Great Britain. The writer proves, by statistics and figures, that the British manufacturer receives five times as much for converting the cotton into cloth as the farmer for producing the raw material, and both employ the same amount of capital. It appears that the same disproportion exists between the profits of the Southern planter and the Northern manufacturer. The writer then sets forth the great advantage possessed by the Southern planter for manufacturing, and shows that the mere saving in the transportation would go largely to the payment of the manufacture. He urges that instead of increasing the product, already too great, the true Southern policy is to enter largely into the manufacture, and thus withdraw a portion of the labor engaged in the production, and employ it in the more profitable mode of manufactures.

## PROGRESS OF IRON MANUFACTURES IN OHIO.

Iron manufactures have of late years made gratifying progress in Ohio, as the following statistics of the interest in that State, gathered in the year 1853, will show:—

## PIG IRON.

|                              |         |                                |             |
|------------------------------|---------|--------------------------------|-------------|
| Furnaces.....                | 35      | Bushels coke and charcoal..... | 5,428,000   |
| Tons of iron ore used.....   | 140,610 | Operatives employed.....       | 2,415       |
| Tons of pig iron made.....   | 22,658  | Capital invested.....          | \$1,600,000 |
| Bushels of coal consumed.... | 605,000 | Value of products.....         | 2,000,000   |

## IRON CASTINGS.

|                                |         |                            |             |
|--------------------------------|---------|----------------------------|-------------|
| Factories.....                 | 183     | Coke and charcoal used.... | 355,120     |
| Pig metal, iron, and ore used. | 41,000  | Operatives employed.....   | 2,758       |
| Castings made.....             | 38,000  | Capital invested.....      | \$2,000,000 |
| Coal consumed.....             | 840,000 | Value of products.....     | 3,200,000   |

## WROUGHT IRON.

|                             |         |                           |           |
|-----------------------------|---------|---------------------------|-----------|
| Factories.....              | 17      | Operatives employed.....  | 708       |
| Pig metal used.....         | 3,675   | Wrought iron produced.... | 14,416    |
| Blooms.....                 | 2,900   | Capital invested.....     | \$700,000 |
| Coal consumed.....          | 600,000 | Value of products.....    | 1,500,000 |
| Coke and charcoal used..... | 466,900 |                           |           |

This exhibits a total of 235 establishments, producing to the value of \$6,700,000, with a capital of \$4,300,000, and employing 5,881 operatives.

## SALT MANUFACTURE AT SYRACUSE.

The manufacture of salt at the salt springs in Onondaga County, New York, is carried on but seven months in the year. The average annual product of solar and fine salt is about five-and-a-half millions of bushels, though the Syracuse *Journal* thinks the amount manufactured the present year will reach six million bushels. Any one who owns a "block," or "vats," as the works are called, can get the salt-water from the State for one cent a bushel of salt made, which includes cost of inspection. Certain rules are observed among those engaged in the manufacture of salt, so as to prevent competition, dull prices, &c. No manufacturer is allowed to make more than 20,000 bushels per annum, and the minimum price is fixed at \$1 25 per barrel of five bushels. The present price is \$1 39 per barrel. A committee, chosen by the manufacturers, act as selling agents; each party's salt is sold by turn, and the whole details are equitably and eminently for self-interest. There is more salt manufactured at these springs than the aggregate manufacture of all other parts of the country. Some of the salt wells are sunk directly through the fresh waters of Onondaga Lake, but most of the springs are on its borders. The salt is of a far superior quality, and generally finds a good market; if, however, sales are small, the price never falls below \$1 25 per barrel.

## PRICES OF BOILER TUBES.

Thomas Prosser & Son, in a circular dated June 15th, 1855, furnish the price list of their boiler tubes and free-joint iron tubes for crow-bars, railings, awning-frames, leaders, &c. The following is their list of prices for boiler tubes:—

| Diam. inches.         | Per ft. cts. | Diam. inches.         | Per ft. cts. | Diam. inches.         | Per ft. cts. | Diam. inches. | Per ft. cts. |
|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..... | 22           | 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..... | 35           | 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..... | 55           | 5.....        | 140          |
| 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ ..... | 25           | 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ ..... | 39           | 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ ..... | 65           | 6.....        | 200          |
| 1 $\frac{7}{8}$ ..... | 28           | 2 $\frac{7}{8}$ ..... | 43           | 4.....                | 84           | 7.....        | 250          |
| 2.....                | 32           | 3.....                | 48           |                       |              |               |              |

## FREE-JOINT IRON TUBES.

|                       |    |                       |    |                       |    |                       |    |
|-----------------------|----|-----------------------|----|-----------------------|----|-----------------------|----|
| $\frac{3}{4}$ .....   | 3  | 2.....                | 12 | 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..... | 16 | 3.....                | 20 |
| 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..... | 10 | 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ ..... | 14 | 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ ..... | 18 | 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ ..... | 22 |

## THE MANUFACTURE OF PAPER IN THE UNITED STATES.

There are in the United States 750 paper-mills in actual operation, having 3,000 engines, and producing in the year 270,000,000 pounds of paper, which is worth, at 10 cents per pound, \$27,000,000. To produce this quantity of paper, 405,000,000 pounds of rags are required,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  pounds of rags being necessary to make one pound of paper. The value of these rags, at 4 cents per pound, is \$16,200,000. The cost of labor is  $1\frac{3}{4}$  cents upon each pound of paper manufactured, and is therefore \$3,375,000. The cost of labor and rags united is \$19,575,000 a year. The cost of manufacturing, aside from labor and rags, is \$4,050,000, which makes the total cost \$23,625,000 of manufacturing paper worth \$27,000,000. We import rags for this manufacture from twenty-six different countries, and the amount in 1853 was 22,766,000 pounds, worth \$982,837. Italy is the greatest source of supply, being more than one-fifth of the whole amount, but the supply has been gradually falling off every year. From England we imported 2,666,005 pounds in 1853. The cost of imported rags has been as follows:—1850, 3.61 cents; 1851, 3.46 cents; 1852, 3.42 cents; 1853, 3.46 cents. The consumption of paper in the United States is equal to that of England and France together.

## CARPET MANUFACTURE.

At the anniversary dinner of the Society of Arts, Mr. Crossley, M. P., the great carpet manufacturer, stated some circumstances of interest with regard to the effect of the Great Exhibition on that particular trade. He mentioned that prior to 1854 his house had been unsuccessfully competing with America in carpets, but through the Exhibition, he said, they discovered that the excellence of American carpets arose from their being manufactured by machinery, and his firm having spent a very large sum in procuring machinery, they were enabled to manufacture for  $2\frac{1}{2}$ d. a yard that which formerly cost them in labor 14d., while their workmen earned better wages, worked fewer hours, and a corresponding reduction in price was made to the consumer.

The machinery referred to by Mr. Crossley was invented by Mr. Bigelow, of Clinton, Massachusetts. Many of our readers will recollect that we gave some account of the manufacture of Brussels carpets by the machinery invented by that gentleman, and a sketch of his life, in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine*.

## WHAT IS AMONDTILLADO SHERRY ?

The author of "*Notes and Queries*" thus answers the question. He says the peculiar flavor is caused by a process of fermentation, over which the growers have no control, and for which they cannot account. Sometimes only one or two butts in a vintage will be affected, and in other years none at all. Those which some mysterious influence designs for Amondillado produce a kind of vegetable weed after having been put in the cask; it is long and stringy, like some of our freshwater weeds, but with very fine fibers, and bears a very minute white flower. Immediately after shedding these flowers, the whole plant dies away, and never again appears, but it leaves that peculiar flavor. I have had this description positively stated and verified by those who have visited the Spanish wine districts.

## FIRST WOOLEN MANUFACTURES IN AMERICA.

E. D. KELLOGG, Esq., in a recent lecture before the woolen manufactures of Berkshire, Massachusetts, claimed for that county the honor of having manufactured the first American broadcloth, in 1804. He was not, probably, aware that in 1794, a

woolen factory was built at the Falls of Parker River, in Newbury, by an incorporated company. The first fulling-mill in America was erected by John Pearson, clothier, in 1643, on Mill River, in Rowley, Massachusetts. The first fine broadcloth was undoubtedly made in Pittsfield, from the fleeces of imported Merinoes, by Arthur Scholfield. In 1808, he manufactured a piece of thirteen yards, which was presented to President Madison, who wore a suit made from it when he was inaugurated.

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#### THE MANUFACTURES OF LOWELL.

The capital invested in the manufactories of Lowell on the 1st of January, 1855, amounted to over \$14,000,000. There are fifty-two mills, running 371,838 spindles, and 11,407 looms. At these and other departments of the woolen and cotton manufacture, 8,723 females and 4,542 males are employed. This working force produce weekly 2,280,000 yards of cotton cloth, 30,000 yards of woolen, 25,000 yards of carpeting, and 50 rugs, consuming therefor 735,000 lbs. of cotton and 90,000 lbs. of wool.

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## JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

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### LAW OF LIFE ASSURANCE.

#### OF THE INTEREST IN THE LIVES OF ONE'S RELATIONS OR FRIENDS.

A father cannot insure the life of his child, or one relation or friend the life of another, unless the party has some pecuniary interest in such life, or would suffer some pecuniary loss by the death of such relation or friend. This is the only safe rule. If persons could insure the lives of their relations or friends, merely on the ground of friendship, or the sorrow experienced on their loss, it would tend to all the evils of wager policies, and be the more dangerous because persons, united by these ties, are naturally thrown off their guard, and much more exposed to the fraudulent designs of those who are inclined to take advantage of such a situation; and the guilty party is more likely to escape detection, for the apparent friendship tends to ward off suspicion. Therefore, where a father had insured the life of his son in which he had no pecuniary interest, it was held that he was not entitled to recover; and it being stated that the offices were in the habit of taking such assurances, Lord Tenterden said that, "if a notion prevailed that such assurances were valid, the sooner it was corrected the better."

Mr. Ellis states that the offices in England are in the custom of paying upon policies, without regard to interest; and that so general has this custom become that, in a case where the executor of a party who had purchased a policy, in which the interest had or was about to expire, brought an action to recover back the purchase money, the court admitted evidence of such custom, and held that, although the defendant had no interest, in point of law, and the payment of the policy could not be enforced, yet, though the law would not enforce such payment, there may be reasonable expectation that it would be paid; and, therefore, if there was no improper concealment of facts, or fraud, to vitiate the sale, the purchaser could not recover.

It has been held, however, that a wife insuring the life of her husband, need not prove her interest in his life; for in *Reed vs. Royal Exchange Assurance Company*, when the plaintiff's counsel were proceeding to prove that Reed was entitled to the interest of a large sum of money, which went from him at his death, and, therefore, that the plaintiff was interested in his life, Lord Kenyon said it was not necessary, as

it must be presumed that every wife had an interest in the life of her husband. So, also, a single woman, dependent on her brother for support and education, has a sufficient interest in his life to entitle her to insure.

In New York a special statute has been passed on this subject; thus it was enacted, that "it shall be lawful for any married woman by herself, and in her name, or in the name of any third person, with his assent, as her trustee, to cause to be insured, for her sole use, the life of her husband, for any definite period, or for the term of his natural life; and in case of her surviving her husband, the sum or net amount of the insurance becoming due and payable, by the terms of the insurance, shall be payable to her, to and for her own use, free from the claims of the representatives of her husband, or of any of his creditors; but such an exemption shall not apply where the amount of premium annually paid shall exceed three hundred dollars. In case of the death of the wife before the decease of her husband, the amount of the insurance may be made payable, after her death, to her children, for their use, and to their guardian, if under age."

In Vermont, a statute has been enacted, which is a literal transcript of the one in New York, with an additional clause, allowing unmarried women to insure the lives of their fathers or brothers to the same extent. A law of similar character has been passed in Rhode Island.

These statutes, so far as regards the interest, cannot be considered as extending the right of effecting assurances, but merely as doing away with proof of the pecuniary interest in the assurances authorized by such statutes; for an insurance by one relation or friend of the life of another, where the person for whose benefit the assurance is effected is supported by the person whose life is the subject of the assurance, would be legal. In all such cases, however, not coming under the statute, it would be necessary to prove the pecuniary interest, *i. e.*, that they were supported by the persons whose life is the subject of the assurance.

An assurance, also, in such cases, would not be valid beyond the amount of pecuniary aid received; whereas, in the cases provided for by statute, the assurance would be valid to the extent allowed, although the aid received might be less than the amount of the assurance effected.

#### OF WARRANTY IN GENERAL AND ITS EFFECT.

A warranty is a stipulation inserted in writing on the face of the policy or on a paper referred to therein, on the literal truth or fulfillment of which the validity of the entire contract depends.

The law in regard to warranty is very strict, and the least breach of one, however unimportant, releases the assurer from all liability, for it is a well-settled principle of insurance law, that when a thing is warranted to be of a particular nature or description, it must be exactly what it is stated to be, and it makes no difference whether the thing be material or not. This principle has been followed in all the English and American cases.

Therefore, should the assured die from some other cause not in the least connected with the breach of the warranty, yet the assurer is none the less discharged. It therefore becomes of the utmost importance to both parties to know what declarations on the part of the assured are to be construed as warranties, so as to apply to such declarations the strict construction and severe effect incident to a warranty.

#### OF THE CLAUSE THAT THE ASSURED IS "IN GOOD HEALTH."

Under the clause that the assured is "in good health" at the time of effecting the assurance, a party will be entitled to recover, though he may be afflicted with some

infirmity, if his life be in fact a good one and he be in a reasonable state of health and such as to be insured on common terms. Thus, in an action on a policy made on the life of Sir James Ross for one year, from October, 1759, to October, 1760, warranted in good health at the time of making the policy, the fact was that Sir James had received a wound in his loins at the battle of La Feldt, in the year 1747, which had occasioned a partial relaxation or palsy, so that he could not retain his urine or fœces, and which was not mentioned to the insurers. Sir James died of a malignant fever within the time of the assurance. All the physicians and surgeons who were examined for the plaintiff swore that the wound had no sort of connection with the fever, and that the want of retention was not a disorder which shortened life, but he might, notwithstanding that, have lived to the common age of man; and the surgeon who opened him said that his intestines were all sound. There was one physician examined for the defendant who said the want of retention was paralytic; but being asked to explain, he said it was only a local palsy arising from the wound, but did not affect life. But, on the whole, he did not look upon him as a good life. Lord Mansfield said:—

“The question of fraud cannot exist in this case. When a man makes insurance upon a life generally, without any representation of the state of the life insured, the insurer takes all the risk, unless there was some fraud in the person insuring, either by his suppressing some circumstance which he knew, or by alleging what was false; but if the person knew no more than the insurer, the latter takes the risk. In this case there is a warranty, and whenever that is the case, it must at all events be proved that the party was a good life, which makes the question on a warranty much larger than that on a fraud. Here it is proved that there was no representation at all as to the state of life, nor any question asked about it, nor was it necessary. Where an insurance is upon a representation, every material circumstance should be mentioned, such as age, way of life, &c.; but where there is a warranty, then nothing need be told, but it must in general be proved, if litigated, that the life was in fact a good one, and so it may be though he have a particular infirmity. The only question is, Whether he was in a reasonably good state of health, and such a life as ought to be insured on common terms?”

The jury upon this direction, without going out of court, found a verdict for the plaintiff.

Again, in an action on a policy on the life of Sir Simeon Stuart, Bart., from the 1st of April, 1779, to the 1st of April, 1780, and during the life of Eliza Edgly Ewer; the policy contained a warranty that Sir Simeon was about fifty-seven years of age, and in good health at the time the policy was underwritten. It was proved on the trial that although the insured was troubled with spasms and cramps from violent fits of the gout, yet he was in as good health when the policy was underwritten as he had been for a long time before; and also that the underwriters were told that the insured was subject to the gout.

Dr. Heberden and other physicians who were examined, proved that spasms and convulsions were symptoms incident to the gout. Lord Mansfield said: “The imperfection of language is such, that we have not words for every different idea; and the real intention of parties must be found out by the subject matter. By the present policy the life is warranted to some of the underwriters, in health—to others, in good health; and yet there was no difference intended in point of fact. Such a warranty can never mean that a man has not the seeds of disorder. We are all born with the seeds of mortality in us. A man subject to the gout is a life capable of being insured, if he has no sickness at the time to make it an unequal contract.” Verdict for the plaintiff.

In an action on a policy of insurance, dated 22d November, 1802, whereby the defendants, for a certain consideration, insured the life of the plaintiff's wife, then warranted in good health, and of the description set forth in a certain certificate signed and dated 9th November, 1802, it was held that declarations made by the wife, while lying in bed apparently ill, as to the bad state of her health, and her apprehensions that she could not live ten days longer, were admissible in evidence to show her opinion, who best knew the fact of the ill state of her health, at the time of effecting this policy.

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## STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE. &c.

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### NEW SCUTCHING MACHINE FOR FLAX.

We have received from Paris, says the *Belfast Mercantile Journal and Statistical Register*, a letter from Mr. C. Merteus, of Gheel, in Belgium, commending to our notice a new self-acting machine for breaking and scutching flax, which he has invented and patented. He states in his communication, which is too long for us to translate and publish *in extenso*, that this machine is calculated to supply a want that has been felt for a long time past, in all flax-growing districts, of a machine capable of breaking and scutching flax straw without the assistance of skilled hands. The expense of employing trained workmen for this purpose is a serious item in the preparation of flax, and even these have become scarce. The rapid extension of the new systems of steeping flax, on a large scale, in *retteries*, renders more important than ever the introduction of a self-acting machine, doing a large quantity of work, independent of workmen. This new break and scutching machine accomplishes all the objects required. Being double, it is perfectly self acting, merely requiring the flax straw to be put in on one side, without being broken, and the finished flax taken out at the other. From the moment the flax enters the machine, no further attention is necessary; the machine does all, and delivers it out perfectly scutched. The single machine is employed with the same economy, and does not require more hands or more proportionally than the double machine. The only assistance necessary is one person to put in the flax, another to take it out, and some children to hand the flax to and from these persons. All clasps or holders for fastening the flax, or breaking machines, are dispensed with, so that the work is of the simplest possible kind, the attendants being all of the class of ordinary laborers, and the cost of scutching is thus largely diminished. The double machine will do, in the day of twelve hours, from forty-five to fifty-five stone, (of sixteen pounds each,) according to the quality of the flax. The single machine does the half of that quantity. They are adapted for all kinds of straw flax, whether hard or soft, and can be altered in a moment to suit different qualities. The flax is scutched with perfect safety to the fiber, leaving the reed whole from end to end. It is evident the yield of fiber from a given quantity of straw flax must be greater than in any of the ordinary modes of scutching. Hardly any tow and no dust is produced by the machine. The power required for driving the double machine is four-horse, and half the power for the single machine.

One of these machines is at the Industrial Exhibition in Paris, and may be seen there at work, by any of our spinners or flax merchants who are desirous of inspecting it. It is not for us to say whether it is superior in any respect to the machines at present in use, but we are always glad to have the opportunity of bringing forward any improvement calculated to advance the interests of the great staple trade upon which the prosperity of our province is so materially dependent.

## CORN CROP OF EACH COUNTY IN THE STATE OF OHIO.

TABULAR STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE NUMBER OF ACRES OF LAND IN EACH COUNTY OF THE STATE OF OHIO CULTIVATED IN CORN DURING THE YEARS 1850, 1851, 1852, AND 1853, TOGETHER WITH THE NUMBER OF BUSHELS YIELDED IN EACH COUNTY, AND THE AVERAGE YIELD PER ACRE, AS ASCERTAINED BY THE TOWNSHIP ASSESSORS, ACCORDING TO LAW.

|                 | ACRES SOWN. |        |        |        | BUSHELS GATHERED. |           |           |           | AV. YIELD OF BUSHELS PER ACRE. |       |       |       |
|-----------------|-------------|--------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
|                 | 1850.       | 1851.  | 1852.  | 1853.  | 1850.             | 1851.     | 1852.     | 1853.     | 1850.                          | 1851. | 1852. | 1853. |
| Adams.....      | .....       | 23,724 | 27,167 | 28,414 | .....             | 757,248   | 723,024   | 860,388   | ....                           | 31.9  | 26.8  | 30.3  |
| Allen.....      | 10,272      | 11,326 | 11,957 | 13,636 | 330,811           | 442,126   | 325,039   | 529,603   | 32.2                           | 39.1  | 27.1  | 38.9  |
| Ashland.....    | 14,708      | 12,205 | 15,363 | 15,807 | 560,512           | 367,897   | 437,192   | 664,310   | 38.1                           | 30.1  | 26.4  | 42.0  |
| Ashtabula.....  | .....       | 8,592  | 3,931  | 9,926  | .....             | 325,588   | 128,900   | 403,570   | ....                           | 37.8  | 32.7  | 40.7  |
| Athens.....     | 19,323      | 15,455 | 16,684 | 17,676 | 683,341           | 515,638   | 516,952   | 641,967   | 35.3                           | 33.3  | 30.9  | 36.3  |
| Auglaize.....   | 9,503       | 9,105  | 11,060 | 12,068 | 280,217           | 308,655   | 304,573   | 462,385   | 29.4                           | 33.8  | 27.5  | 38.3  |
| Belmont.....    | 26,669      | 25,219 | 24,996 | 27,910 | 991,215           | 753,934   | 984,713   | 1,055,613 | 37.1                           | 29.8  | 39.3  | 37.8  |
| Brown.....      | 37,536      | 38,237 | 39,571 | 39,870 | 1,314,741         | 1,170,730 | 1,306,349 | 1,467,088 | 35.0                           | 30.6  | 33.0  | 36.8  |
| Butler.....     | 62,031      | 54,640 | 57,763 | 62,470 | 2,646,353         | 2,696,182 | 2,446,123 | 2,406,733 | 42.6                           | 49.3  | 42.3  | 38.5  |
| Carroll.....    | 10,107      | 9,940  | 8,627  | 9,084  | 316,999           | 264,835   | 163,371   | 276,691   | 31.3                           | 26.6  | 18.9  | 30.4  |
| Champaign.....  | 27,680      | 28,239 | 30,874 | 23,824 | 954,609           | 1,266,020 | 979,544   | 1,292,327 | 34.4                           | 44.8  | 31.7  | 44.8  |
| Clark.....      | 24,591      | 25,328 | 24,117 | 25,797 | 799,489           | 1,067,673 | 675,304   | 1,142,847 | 32.5                           | 42.1  | 28.0  | 44.5  |
| Clermont.....   | .....       | 35,979 | 35,397 | 32,682 | .....             | 1,346,631 | 1,185,770 | 1,234,442 | ....                           | 37.4  | 33.4  | 37.8  |
| Clinton.....    | 33,116      | 33,603 | 36,506 | 42,269 | 1,313,375         | 1,504,280 | 1,258,977 | 1,528,246 | 39.6                           | 44.7  | 34.4  | 36.2  |
| Columbiana..... | 14,457      | 12,727 | 12,107 | 15,126 | 516,821           | 328,003   | 291,790   | 528,439   | 35.7                           | 25.7  | 24.1  | 34.9  |
| Coshocton.....  | 25,882      | 25,753 | 23,988 | 27,019 | 962,646           | 881,551   | 981,469   | 1,089,867 | 37.1                           | 34.1  | 40.9  | 40.3  |
| Crawford.....   | 15,907      | 14,780 | 14,499 | 17,295 | 489,151           | 487,054   | 442,015   | 716,870   | 30.7                           | 32.9  | 30.4  | 41.5  |
| Cuyahoga.....   | 12,018      | 10,928 | 4,169  | 9,223  | 396,922           | 325,570   | 133,097   | 383,069   | 33.0                           | 29.7  | 31.9  | 41.5  |
| Darke.....      | .....       | 23,809 | 23,096 | 25,154 | .....             | 919,155   | 661,019   | 952,555   | ....                           | 39.4  | 28.6  | 37.9  |
| Defiance.....   | 4,175       | 3,352  | 4,979  | 4,954  | 136,983           | 82,635    | 143,565   | 187,120   | 32.8                           | 24.6  | 28.8  | 37.3  |
| Delaware.....   | .....       | 22,110 | 21,946 | 33,890 | .....             | 756,323   | 846,422   | 1,212,647 | ....                           | 34.2  | 38.5  | 35.8  |
| Erie.....       | 14,569      | 10,657 | 13,149 | 11,811 | 615,122           | 306,113   | 477,893   | 439,479   | 42.2                           | 28.7  | 36.3  | 37.2  |
| Fairfield.....  | 41,130      | 40,115 | 42,324 | 45,409 | 1,569,313         | 1,412,776 | 1,763,030 | 2,066,021 | 38.1                           | 35.2  | 41.6  | 45.5  |
| Fayette.....    | 32,080      | 32,798 | 37,061 | 39,047 | 1,331,927         | 1,570,114 | 1,519,721 | 2,123,221 | 41.5                           | 47.8  | 41.0  | 54.4  |
| Franklin.....   | 51,842      | 49,074 | 49,045 | 55,697 | 1,984,929         | 2,068,376 | 2,346,295 | 2,544,408 | 38.2                           | 42.1  | 47.8  | 45.7  |
| Fulton.....     | 5,309       | 4,231  | 5,073  | 5,738  | 170,680           | 94,387    | 136,892   | 246,998   | 32.1                           | 22.3  | 27.0  | 43.0  |
| Gallia.....     | 19,363      | 16,884 | 15,680 | 16,070 | 674,655           | 489,368   | 382,122   | 392,385   | 34.8                           | 28.9  | 24.3  | 24.4  |
| Geauga.....     | 8,579       | 6,846  | 6,931  | 7,061  | 310,583           | 205,427   | 175,139   | 296,176   | 36.2                           | 30.0  | 25.2  | 42.0  |

|            |        |        |        |        |           |           |           |           |      |      |      |      |
|------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------|------|------|------|
| Greene     | 53,177 | 29,340 | 31,969 | 33,347 | 1,170,543 | 1,361,965 | 927,289   | 1,457,846 | 35.2 | 46.4 | 29.0 | 43.7 |
| Guernsey   | 25,056 | 17,578 | 11,757 | 18,760 | 851,181   | 424,390   | 576,071   | 614,882   | 33.9 | 24.1 | 48.9 | 32.8 |
| Hamilton*  | .....  | 24,677 | 24,040 | 13,593 | .....     | 1,050,412 | 891,953   | 590,715   | .... | 42.5 | 37.1 | 43.5 |
| Hancock    | 16,138 | 14,642 | 18,822 | 19,410 | 533,249   | 403,014   | 517,136   | 757,690   | 23.0 | 27.5 | 27.4 | 39.0 |
| Hardin     | 6,989  | 7,232  | 8,233  | 10,224 | 199,300   | 211,558   | 272,696   | 419,477   | 28.5 | 29.2 | 33.1 | 41.0 |
| Harrison   | 16,166 | 13,484 | 14,131 | 15,040 | 609,010   | 466,400   | 463,087   | 545,919   | 37.6 | 34.5 | 32.7 | 36.3 |
| Henry      | .....  | 2,500  | 3,298  | 3,309  | .....     | 63,788    | 199,405   | 118,265   | .... | 27.5 | 33.2 | 35.7 |
| Highland   | 48,615 | 42,425 | 44,329 | 50,833 | 1,604,618 | 1,699,554 | 1,446,889 | 1,889,814 | 33.0 | 40.0 | 32.6 | 37.1 |
| Hocking    | 14,319 | 12,212 | 13,315 | 14,433 | 461,343   | 355,234   | 360,751   | 461,684   | 32.2 | 29.0 | 27.0 | 32.0 |
| Holmes     | 11,481 | 9,518  | 9,518  | 11,754 | 389,550   | 200,710   | 200,710   | 445,980   | 33.9 | 21.0 | 21.0 | 37.9 |
| Huron      | 22,806 | 19,041 | 21,759 | 23,316 | 878,143   | 517,186   | 674,428   | 847,367   | 38.5 | 27.1 | 30.9 | 36.3 |
| Jackson    | 15,680 | 17,767 | 17,649 | 17,712 | 439,850   | 428,313   | 353,318   | 332,789   | 28.0 | 24.1 | 20.0 | 18.7 |
| Jefferson  | 14,923 | 12,623 | 12,939 | 12,943 | 568,732   | 447,134   | 458,413   | 518,646   | 38.1 | 35.4 | 35.2 | 40.0 |
| Knox       | 22,111 | 18,196 | 21,498 | 21,018 | 762,906   | 547,835   | 682,651   | 922,067   | 34.5 | 30.1 | 31.2 | 43.9 |
| Lake       | 7,403  | 6,621  | 7,739  | 7,236  | 286,750   | 250,711   | 231,706   | 306,187   | 38.8 | 37.8 | 29.9 | 42.3 |
| Lawrence   | 16,110 | 15,605 | 31,267 | 14,332 | 532,571   | 441,559   | 457,210   | 443,506   | 33.0 | 28.2 | 14.6 | 30.8 |
| Licking    | 38,241 | 36,083 | 39,027 | 41,252 | 1,527,734 | 1,210,316 | 1,485,143 | 1,637,848 | 39.9 | 33.5 | 38.0 | 39.7 |
| Logan      | 16,926 | 22,242 | 22,040 | 22,098 | 734,376   | 760,921   | 709,928   | 858,453   | 43.3 | 34.2 | 32.2 | 38.8 |
| Loran      | 12,925 | 9,604  | 9,688  | 12,374 | 446,224   | 293,386   | 311,838   | 510,794   | 34.5 | 30.5 | 32.1 | 41.3 |
| Lucas      | .....  | 3,002  | 3,212  | 3,891  | .....     | 73,508    | 104,532   | 123,100   | .... | 24.4 | 32.5 | 31.6 |
| Madison    | 19,278 | 20,403 | 24,885 | 27,470 | 610,930   | 822,826   | 943,696   | 1,230,065 | 31.6 | 40.3 | 37.9 | 44.8 |
| Mahoning   | 11,902 | 10,908 | 9,248  | 11,317 | 412,810   | 351,505   | 249,547   | 486,242   | 34.6 | 32.2 | 26.9 | 42.9 |
| Marion     | 22,254 | 16,096 | 21,329 | 24,205 | 791,584   | 605,266   | 826,528   | 1,307,111 | 35.5 | 37.6 | 38.7 | 42.9 |
| Medina     | 12,646 | 11,041 | 11,483 | 13,790 | 416,063   | 346,805   | 367,078   | 582,380   | 32.9 | 31.4 | 31.9 | 42.2 |
| Meigs      | .....  | 10,505 | 10,771 | 11,456 | 264,841   | 327,434   | 317,278   | 347,909   | .... | 31.1 | 29.4 | 30.4 |
| Mercer     | 8,395  | 9,199  | 9,501  | 11,602 | 214,838   | 314,103   | 573,526   | 391,631   | 25.5 | 34.1 | 28.7 | 33.8 |
| Miami      | 31,891 | 35,610 | 35,020 | 36,937 | 1,183,335 | 1,611,038 | 1,097,625 | 1,672,486 | 37.1 | 45.2 | 31.3 | 45.3 |
| Monroe     | 23,357 | 16,903 | 18,031 | 18,209 | 728,242   | 403,052   | 520,821   | 587,235   | 31.1 | 25.1 | 28.8 | 32.3 |
| Montgomery | 36,454 | 35,367 | 32,602 | 32,474 | 1,359,179 | 1,660,119 | 886,782   | 1,332,416 | 37.2 | 46.9 | 27.2 | 41.0 |
| Morgan     | 34,032 | 13,825 | 16,202 | 17,909 | 834,998   | 469,372   | 541,455   | 680,630   | 34.7 | 33.9 | 33.4 | 38.0 |
| Morrow     | 16,154 | 14,877 | 16,483 | 21,344 | 583,318   | 449,067   | 501,331   | 802,733   | 36.1 | 30.1 | 30.4 | 37.6 |
| Muskingum  | 32,079 | 29,210 | 31,164 | 30,168 | 1,249,456 | 1,063,914 | 1,157,133 | 1,198,176 | 38.9 | 36.4 | 37.1 | 39.7 |
| Noble      | .....  | 15,796 | 20,294 | 19,956 | .....     | 469,644   | 571,138   | 699,926   | .... | 29.7 | 28.1 | 35.0 |

\* In Hamilton County only seven townships made report.

TABULAR STATEMENT—(CONTINUED.)

|                 | ACRES SOWN. |           |           |           | BUSHEL8 GATHERED. |            |            |            | AV. YIELD OF BUSHEL8 PER ACRE. |       |       |       |
|-----------------|-------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------------------|------------|------------|------------|--------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
|                 | 1850.       | 1851.     | 1852.     | 1853.     | 1850.             | 1851.      | 1852.      | 1853.      | 1850.                          | 1851. | 1852. | 1853. |
| Ottawa.....     | 2,483       | 2,279     | 2,190     | 2,504     | 76,764            | 70,259     | 79,698     | 95,768     | 30.9                           | 30.8  | 36.3  | 38.3  |
| Paulding.....   | 1,532       | 1,074     | 1,728     | 2,071     | 59,054            | 32,595     | 49,470     | 82,090     | 38.5                           | 30.3  | 28.6  | 39.6  |
| Perry.....      | 21,267      | 19,580    | 18,679    | 19,183    | 752,982           | 451,869    | 547,827    | 667,563    | 35.4                           | 23.0  | 29.3  | 34.8  |
| Pickaway.....   | 65,860      | 65,755    | 67,034    | 53,703    | 2,627,727         | 3,007,410  | 3,039,418  | 2,845,999  | 39.8                           | 45.7  | 45.3  | 52.8  |
| Pike.....       | 22,957      | 20,470    | 22,841    | 22,825    | 902,611           | 881,026    | 692,415    | 959,763    | 39.3                           | 43.0  | 30.3  | 42.0  |
| Portage.....    | 10,426      | 9,405     | 7,701     | 9,191     | 329,539           | 293,659    | 204,255    | 431,956    | 31.5                           | 31.2  | 26.5  | 47.0  |
| Preble.....     | 34,927      | 29,400    | 29,316    | 32,156    | 1,167,548         | 1,283,743  | 1,097,187  | 1,172,423  | 33.4                           | 43.6  | 37.4  | 36.5  |
| Putnam.....     | 6,354       | 5,481     | 7,069     | 8,773     | 210,002           | 158,639    | 222,976    | 348,315    | 33.0                           | 28.9  | 31.5  | 39.7  |
| Richland.....   | 16,300      | 16,180    | 16,576    | 18,083    | 563,320           | 424,457    | 416,441    | 694,195    | 34.5                           | 26.2  | 25.0  | 38.4  |
| Ross.....       | 69,520      | 76,070    | 75,464    | 75,257    | 2,918,958         | 3,460,486  | 2,971,500  | 3,399,800  | 41.9                           | 45.4  | 39.3  | 45.2  |
| Sandusky.....   | 10,651      | 9,323     | 10,950    | 10,613    | 339,531           | 201,307    | 265,850    | 377,592    | 31.8                           | 21.4  | 24.2  | 35.6  |
| Sciota.....     | .....       | 22,812    | 23,624    | 19,920    | .....             | 1,023,540  | 966,762    | 813,934    | .....                          | 44.8  | 40.9  | 40.9  |
| Seneca.....     | 17,940      | 15,671    | 17,566    | 19,997    | 649,943           | 492,026    | 531,952    | 814,413    | 36.2                           | 31.3  | 30.2  | 40.7  |
| Shelby.....     | 15,974      | 15,767    | 15,647    | 17,545    | 521,792           | 576,536    | 406,835    | 673,449    | 32.6                           | 36.5  | 26.0  | 38.5  |
| Stark.....      | 18,245      | 15,946    | 15,282    | 18,407    | 651,328           | 475,457    | 390,106    | 729,823    | 35.6                           | 29.8  | 25.5  | 39.6  |
| Summit.....     | 10,256      | 9,557     | 9,263     | 10,162    | 366,446           | 302,209    | 311,022    | 412,864    | 35.7                           | 31.6  | 33.5  | 40.6  |
| Trumbull.....   | 11,595      | 11,118    | 9,020     | 11,270    | 413,598           | 383,969    | 232,443    | 426,322    | 35.6                           | 34.5  | 25.7  | 37.8  |
| Tuscarawas..... | 19,003      | 18,694    | 18,336    | 18,924    | 669,008           | 559,475    | 612,048    | 695,553    | 35.2                           | 29.9  | 33.3  | 36.8  |
| Union.....      | 16,413      | 17,451    | 17,946    | 20,700    | 525,732           | 589,002    | 596,083    | 870,193    | 32.0                           | 33.7  | 33.2  | 42.0  |
| Van Wert.....   | 3,436       | 3,337     | 4,077     | 5,170     | 92,544            | 72,941     | 110,698    | 192,321    | 26.9                           | 21.8  | 27.0  | 37.2  |
| Vinton.....     | 11,013      | 11,195    | 11,839    | 12,967    | 345,470           | 346,334    | 279,190    | 427,042    | 31.3                           | 30.9  | 23.5  | 32.9  |
| Warren.....     | 42,322      | 41,062    | 41,991    | 38,217    | 1,757,409         | 2,001,048  | 1,566,165  | 1,627,679  | 41.5                           | 48.7  | 37.2  | 42.6  |
| Washington..... | 20,017      | 14,627    | 15,750    | 17,331    | 684,184           | 449,838    | 541,364    | 565,977    | 34.1                           | 30.7  | 34.3  | 32.7  |
| Wayne.....      | .....       | 15,481    | 17,400    | 19,310    | .....             | 293,030    | 427,577    | 810,771    | .....                          | 18.9  | 24.5  | 42.0  |
| Williams.....   | .....       | 3,181     | 4,000     | 6,895     | .....             | 64,732     | 120,000    | 216,370    | .....                          | 20.3  | 30.0  | 31.4  |
| Wood.....       | .....       | 5,333     | 7,552     | 8,713     | .....             | 163,774    | 250,924    | 299,166    | .....                          | 30.7  | 33.2  | 34.3  |
| Wyandot.....    | .....       | 9,790     | .....     | 12,917    | .....             | 289,591    | .....      | 517,321    | .....                          | 29.5  | ..... | 40.0  |
| Total.....      | 1,537,947   | 1,664,427 | 1,730,188 | 1,836,493 | 56,619,608        | 61,171,282 | 58,165,517 | 73,436,090 | 36.8                           | 36.7  | 33.6  | 40.0  |

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

THE IMMIGRATION SINCE 1790: A STATISTICAL ESSAY.

BY LOUIS SCHADE, ESQ., OF WASHINGTON, D. C.

It will, probably, be of much interest, in the present political struggle, to have an exact idea of what the immigration to this country has been, and what it has amounted to. There have been very many opinions advanced in relation to our immigration, and some of its statistics, although the works of men enjoying a reputation amongst us as statisticians, have been of such a character that they rather seemed intended to flatter political party spirit than to diffuse knowledge and correct ideas on the subject. The writer has, therefore, with great labor and care, attempted to redress this evil, by a compilation of tables, made up in the only way possible to ascertain the real state of our immigration since the first census of the United States in 1790. By comparing the result obtained with official statistics of other countries, every doubt of the correctness and reliability of this work will be removed.

In 1790, the population of the United States, including white and free colored persons, was 3,231,930. If all increase from immigration had been cut off, the surplus of births over deaths would have constituted the only growth in our population. If we take, now, the census returns for 1850, we shall find the number of births to be 548,835, and the number of deaths 271,890—confining ourselves to the white and free colored population. The difference being 276,945, was the increase of population for 1850, from the excess of births over deaths. The whole population in 1850 of white and free colored persons was 19,987,573. The increase, therefore, from the excess of births over deaths, was one per cent and thirty-eight hundredths. To show that this per centage furnished by the returns in 1850 is reliable, we give a table, carefully made out, showing the per centage in a number of countries from which we have official returns. The table is as follows:—

TABLE SHOWING THE INCREASE OF POPULATION BY THE SURPLUS OF BIRTHS OVER DEATHS.

| Year. | Country.          | Inhabitants. | Births.   | Deaths.   | Increase<br>p. cent. |
|-------|-------------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|----------------------|
| 1850  | United States*    | 19,987,573   | 548,835   | 271,890   | 1.38                 |
| 1850  | England and Wales | 17,927,609   | 593,422   | 368,986   | 1.25                 |
| 1851  | France            | 35,783,170   | 943,061   | 784,433   | 0.44                 |
| 1835  | Russia            | 59,000,000   | 2,173,055 | 1,731,834 | 0.74                 |
| 1849  | Prussia           | 16,331,187   | 691,562   | 498,862   | 1.17                 |
| 1850  | Holland           | 3,056,591    | 105,338   | 67,588    | 1.23                 |
| 1850  | Belgium           | 4,426,202    | 120,107   | 92,820    | 0.61                 |
| 1849  | Portugal          | 3,473,758    | 114,331   | 88,992    | 0.72                 |
| 1852  | Saxony            | 1,987,832    | 80,322    | 58,739    | 1.08                 |

As might be expected, it is seen that the excess of births over deaths in the United States is larger than in any other country, and hence we have no hesitation in adopting the per centage of annual increase of one and thirty-eight hundredths as reliable. This furnishes us a rule to solve the problem before stated. The population in 1790

\* The United States census of 1850 gives the births and deaths of the white and free colored population in one column, without any separation. Therefore, it has become necessary to include the free colored population in all other tables hereafter given. As to the slave population, the writer sees for his purpose no necessity to mention anything of it at all, as it has no connection whatever with the immigration.

was 3,231,930. Excluding all immigration, the increase of population each year would be at the rate of 1.38 per cent. This increase added each year to the aggregate of the preceding year, down to 1850, will give us the population of the United States in 1850, as it would have been upon the illiberal policy of excluding all immigration. In the following table will be also shown what our population in 1850 would have amounted to if immigration had been stopped in 1800, 1810, 1820, 1830, or 1840. The calculation is a long and tedious one, but the result is mathematically certain:—

TABLE SHOWING THE INCREASE OF THE WHITE AND FREE COLORED POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, IF WITHOUT IMMIGRATION, SINCE THE RESPECTIVE YEARS 1790 TO 1850, AFTER THE RATIO OF INCREASE IN 1850.

| Years. | Annual increase of the white and free colored population, if without immigration since 1790. | Annual surplus of births. | Annual increase of the white and free colored population, if without immigration since 1800. | Annual surplus of births. |
|--------|--|---------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| 1790   | 3,231,930  | .....                     | .....  | .....                     |
| 1791   | 3,276,530  | 44,600                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1792   | 3,321,746  | 45,216                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1793   | 3,367,586  | 45,840                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1794   | 3,414,058  | 46,472                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1795   | 3,461,172  | 47,114                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1796   | 3,508,936  | 47,764                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1797   | 3,557,359  | 48,423                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1798   | 3,606,450  | 49,091                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1799   | 3,656,219  | 49,769                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1800   | 3,706,674  | 50,455                    | 4,412,884  | .....                     |
| 1801   | 3,757,826  | 51,152                    | 4,473,781  | 60,897                    |
| 1802   | 3,809,684  | 51,858                    | 4,535,519  | 61,738                    |
| 1803   | 3,862,257  | 52,573                    | 4,598,109  | 62,590                    |
| 1804   | 3,915,556  | 53,299                    | 4,661,562  | 63,453                    |
| 1805   | 3,969,590  | 54,034                    | 4,725,991  | 64,329                    |
| 1806   | 4,024,358  | 54,768                    | 4,791,209  | 65,218                    |
| 1807   | 4,079,895  | 55,537                    | 4,857,327  | 66,118                    |
| 1808   | 4,136,197  | 56,302                    | 4,924,358  | 67,031                    |
| 1809   | 4,193,279  | 57,079                    | 4,992,314  | 67,956                    |
| 1810   | 4,251,143  | 57,867                    | 5,061,207  | 68,893                    |
| 1811   | 4,309,808  | 58,665                    | 5,131,051  | 69,844                    |
| 1812   | 4,369,283  | 59,475                    | 5,201,859  | 70,808                    |
| 1813   | 4,429,579  | 60,296                    | 5,273,644  | 71,785                    |
| 1814   | 4,490,707  | 61,128                    | 5,346,409  | 72,765                    |
| 1815   | 4,552,678  | 61,971                    | 5,420,189  | 73,780                    |
| 1816   | 4,615,504  | 62,826                    | 5,494,990  | 74,801                    |
| 1817   | 4,679,197  | 63,693                    | 5,570,820  | 75,830                    |
| 1818   | 4,743,769  | 64,572                    | 5,647,697  | 76,877                    |
| 1819   | 4,809,233  | 65,464                    | 5,724,733  | 77,036                    |
| 1820   | 4,875,600  | 66,367                    | 5,803,734  | 79,001                    |
| 1821   | 4,942,883  | 67,283                    | 5,883,825  | 80,091                    |
| 1822   | 5,011,094  | 68,211                    | 5,965,021  | 81,196                    |
| 1823   | 5,080,247  | 69,153                    | 6,047,333  | 82,317                    |
| 1824   | 5,150,354  | 70,107                    | 6,130,791  | 83,453                    |
| 1825   | 5,221,428  | 71,074                    | 6,215,295  | 84,504                    |
| 1826   | 5,293,473  | 72,055                    | 6,301,066  | 85,771                    |
| 1827   | 5,366,522  | 73,049                    | 6,388,020  | 86,954                    |
| 1828   | 5,440,580  | 74,058                    | 6,476,174  | 88,154                    |
| 1829   | 5,515,659  | 75,079                    | 6,565,545  | 89,371                    |
| 1830   | 5,591,775  | 76,116                    | 6,656,149  | 90,604                    |
| 1831   | 5,668,941  | 77,166                    | 6,748,003  | 91,854                    |
| 1832   | 5,747,172  | 78,231                    | 6,841,127  | 93,122                    |
| 1833   | 5,826,482  | 79,310                    | 6,935,532  | 94,407                    |
| 1834   | 5,906,887  | 80,405                    | 7,031,242  | 95,710                    |
| 1835   | 5,988,402  | 81,515                    | 7,128,273  | 97,031                    |

| Years. | Annual increase of the white and free colored population, if without immigration since 1790. | Annual surplus of births. | Annual increase of the white and free colored population, if without immigration since 1800. | Annual surplus of births. |
|--------|--|---------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| 1836   | 6,071,041  | 82,639                    | 7,226,643  | 98,370                    |
| 1837   | 6,154,821  | 83,780                    | 7,326,470  | 99,727                    |
| 1838   | 6,239,757  | 84,936                    | 7,427,576  | 101,106                   |
| 1839   | 6,325,865  | 86,108                    | 7,530,076  | 102,500                   |
| 1840   | 6,413,161  | 87,296                    | 7,633,991  | 103,915                   |
| 1841   | 6,501,662  | 88,501                    | 7,739,340  | 105,349                   |
| 1842   | 6,591,384  | 89,722                    | 7,846,142  | 106,802                   |
| 1843   | 6,682,345  | 90,961                    | 7,954,418  | 108,276                   |
| 1844   | 6,774,561  | 92,216                    | 8,064,188  | 109,770                   |
| 1845   | 6,868,049  | 93,488                    | 8,175,473  | 111,285                   |
| 1846   | 6,962,828  | 94,779                    | 8,288,294  | 112,821                   |
| 1847   | 7,059,115  | 96,287                    | 8,402,672  | 114,378                   |
| 1848   | 7,156,530  | 97,415                    | 8,518,628  | 115,956                   |
| 1849   | 7,255,800  | 98,770                    | 8,636,185  | 117,557                   |
| 1850   | 7,355,423  | 100,123                   | 8,755,364  | 119,179                   |

| Years. | Annual increase of the white and free colored population, if without immigration since 1810. | Annual surplus of births. | Annual increase of the white and free colored population, if without immigration since 1820. | Annual surplus of births. |
|--------|--|---------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| 1810   | 6,048,450  | .....                     | .....  | .....                     |
| 1811   | 6,131,918  | 83,468                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1812   | 6,216,538  | 84,620                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1813   | 6,302,326  | 85,788                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1814   | 6,389,298  | 86,972                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1815   | 6,477,470  | 88,172                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1816   | 6,566,859  | 89,389                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1817   | 6,657,481  | 90,622                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1818   | 6,749,354  | 91,873                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1819   | 6,842,495  | 93,141                    | .....  | .....                     |
| 1820   | 6,936,921  | 94,426                    | 8,100,093  | .....                     |
| 1821   | 7,032,650  | 95,729                    | 8,211,874  | 111,781                   |
| 1822   | 7,129,700  | 97,050                    | 8,325,197  | 113,323                   |
| 1823   | 7,228,089  | 98,389                    | 8,440,184  | 114,987                   |
| 1824   | 7,327,836  | 99,747                    | 8,556,658  | 116,474                   |
| 1825   | 7,428,970  | 101,124                   | 8,674,739  | 118,081                   |
| 1826   | 7,531,479  | 102,519                   | 8,794,449  | 119,711                   |
| 1827   | 7,635,413  | 103,934                   | 8,915,802  | 121,353                   |
| 1828   | 7,740,781  | 105,368                   | 9,038,840  | 123,038                   |
| 1829   | 7,847,603  | 106,822                   | 9,163,575  | 124,735                   |
| 1830   | 7,955,899  | 108,296                   | 9,290,032  | 126,457                   |
| 1831   | 8,065,691  | 109,792                   | 9,418,234  | 128,202                   |
| 1832   | 8,176,997  | 111,306                   | 9,548,205  | 129,971                   |
| 1833   | 8,404,238  | 114,399                   | 9,678,970  | 130,765                   |
| 1834   | 8,520,216  | 115,978                   | 9,812,539  | 133,569                   |
| 1835   | 8,637,794  | 117,578                   | 9,947,952  | 135,413                   |
| 1836   | 8,756,995  | 119,201                   | 10,085,233   | 137,281                   |
| 1837   | 8,877,841  | 120,846                   | 10,224,409   | 139,176                   |
| 1838   | 9,000,355  | 122,514                   | 10,365,505   | 141,096                   |
| 1839   | 9,124,559  | 124,204                   | 10,508,548   | 143,043                   |
| 1840   | 9,250,477  | 125,918                   | 10,653,565   | 145,017                   |
| 1841   | 9,378,133  | 127,656                   | 10,800,584   | 147,019                   |
| 1842   | 9,507,551  | 129,418                   | 10,949,632   | 149,048                   |
| 1843   | 9,638,755  | 131,204                   | 11,100,727   | 151,104                   |
| 1844   | 9,771,769  | 133,014                   | 11,253,917   | 153,190                   |
| 1845   | 9,906,619  | 134,850                   | 11,409,221   | 155,304                   |
| 1846   | 10,043,330   | 136,711                   | 11,566,668   | 157,447                   |
| 1847   | 10,182,927   | 138,597                   | 11,726,288   | 159,620                   |
| 1848   | 10,323,451   | 140,524                   | 11,888,110   | 161,822                   |
| 1849   | 10,465,914   | 142,463                   | 12,052,165   | 164,055                   |
| 1850   | 10,610,343   | 144,429                   | 12,218,484   | 166,319                   |

## Statistics of Population, etc.

| Years. | Annual increase of the white and free colored population, if without immigration since 1830. | Annual surplus of births. | Annual increase of the white and free colored population, if without immigration since 1840. | Annual surplus of births. |
|--------|--|---------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| 1830   | 10,856,977   | .....                     | .....  | .....                     |
| 1831   | 11,006,803   | 149,826                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1832   | 11,158,696   | 151,893                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1833   | 11,312,686   | 153,990                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1834   | 11,468,801   | 156,115                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1835   | 11,627,070   | 158,269                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1836   | 11,787,523   | 160,453                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1837   | 11,950,190   | 162,667                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1838   | 12,115,102   | 164,912                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1839   | 12,282,290   | 167,188                   | .....  | .....                     |
| 1840   | 12,451,785   | 169,495                   | 14,581,998   | .....                     |
| 1841   | 12,623,619   | 171,834                   | 14,733,229   | 201,231                   |
| 1842   | 12,797,824   | 174,205                   | 14,985,237   | 202,008                   |
| 1843   | 12,974,333   | 176,509                   | 15,192,033   | 206,796                   |
| 1844   | 13,153,378   | 179,045                   | 15,401,683   | 209,650                   |
| 1845   | 13,334,874   | 181,496                   | 15,614,226   | 212,543                   |
| 1846   | 13,518,895   | 184,021                   | 15,829,701   | 216,476                   |
| 1847   | 13,705,455   | 186,560                   | 16,048,151   | 218,449                   |
| 1848   | 13,895,590   | 189,135                   | 16,269,615   | 221,464                   |
| 1849   | 14,086,335   | 191,745                   | 16,494,135   | 224,520                   |
| 1850   | 14,280,726   | 194,391                   | 16,721,674   | 227,539                   |

To these are to be added the results for Louisiana, (1803;) Florida, (1821;) California, New Mexico, Texas, and Oregon. Louisiana had, in 1803, 77,000 inhabitants, of which 53,000 were slaves. Florida, in 1821, had about 10,000. California and New Mexico, at the time of their acquisition, had about 60,000. Texas and Oregon only brought back into the Union citizens who had emigrated thither but a short time before. If we put them down in 1850, after the above scale, with 200,000 white and free colored persons, the writer thinks he has done them more than ample justice.

## RECAPITULATION—THE UNITED STATES WOULD HAVE IN 1850.

|   |            |            |
|---|------------|------------|
| If without immigration since 1790 .....     | 7,355,423  |            |
| Addition for Louisiana, Florida, &c.....    | 200,000    | 7,555,423  |
| If without immigration since 1800 .....     | 8,755,364  |            |
| Addition for Louisiana, Florida, &c.....    | 200,000    | 8,955,364  |
| If without immigration since 1810 .....     | 10,610,343 |            |
| Addition for Florida, &c .....              | 100,000    | 10,710,343 |
| If without immigration since 1820 .....     | 12,218,484 |            |
| Addition for Florida, &c .....              | 100,000    | 12,318,484 |
| If without immigration since 1830 .....     | 14,280,726 |            |
| Addition for New Mexico and California..... | 50,000     | 14,330,726 |
| If without immigration since 1840 .....     | 16,721,674 |            |
| Addition for New Mexico and California..... | 50,000     | 16,771,674 |
| They have actually, however.....            |            | 19,987,573 |

This will be to many an astonishing result, but the author is well assured of the correctness of his statement. There may be a difference of some hundreds or thousands, but the millions cannot be altered. And in order to show how well the above estimates correspond with the increase of other countries, and to remove any doubt of their correctness, the following table has been compiled:—

INCREASE OF VARIOUS EUROPEAN NATIONS SINCE THE LAST DECENNARY OF THE 18TH CENTURY.

|                                |            |                           |
|--------------------------------|------------|---------------------------|
| England and Wales in 1790..... | 8,675,000  | } Increase 2.06 per cent. |
| “ “ 1851.....                  | 17,922,768 |                           |
| Austria 1792.....              | 23,500,000 | } “ 1.55 “                |
| “ 1851.....                    | 36,514,466 |                           |
| France 1789.....               | 26,000,000 | } “ 1.37 “                |
| “ 1851.....                    | 35,783,170 |                           |
| Prussia 1797.....              | 8,660,000  | } “ 1.88 “                |
| “ 1849.....                    | 16,331,187 |                           |
| Spain 1797.....                | 10,351,075 | } “ 1.33 “                |
| “ 1849.....                    | 14,216,219 |                           |
| Sweden 1790.....               | 2,150,493  | } “ 1.54 “                |
| “ 1849.....                    | 3,316,535  |                           |
| Sardinia, (Island,) 1790.....  | 456,990    | } “ 1.19 “                |
| “ “ 1848.....                  | 547,948    |                           |
| United States 1790.....        | 3,231,930  | } “ 2.33 “                |
| Without immigrat'n, 1850.....  | 7,555,423  |                           |

This table clearly proves the above estimates of the population of the United States, without immigration since 1790, to be not only a correct one, but even exhibiting a higher increase than any other country. England, the highest among them all, is still 27 on the hundred behind the United States.

The immigrants and their descendants number in 1850 since—

|            |            |           |           |           |           |
|------------|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1790.      | 1800.      | 1810.     | 1820.     | 1830.     | 1840.     |
| 12,432,150 | 11,032,109 | 9,277,230 | 8,669,089 | 5,656,847 | 3,265,899 |

To speculate on these astounding results is not the object of the author, and he leaves this to all those who feel an interest in these statistics, as he is convinced, that in the present political struggle his statements will be regarded and appreciated by all parties. His point of view is not so much a political as a scientific one, and therefore he hopes that by all statisticians these calculations will be honored with a thorough examination.

## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

### BRAZILIAN REGULATIONS IN RELATION TO SIGNALS.

SIGNALS FROM FLAG-STAFF NEAR LIGHT HOUSE AT POINT ATALAIÁ.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, September 11, 1855.

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

SIR:—The Brazilian Government having communicated to the Minister of the United States at Rio de Janeiro a copy of the “Regulations in relation to signals which will be made from the flag-staff near the light-house at Point Atalaia, to vessels which arrive at that point, in want of a pilot, for the port of the city of Belem, the capital of the Province of Para,” the said copy was transmitted to this Department for general information.

A translation of these regulations has been prepared by the Department with a view to its official publication, but as no newspaper is of such universal circulation in shipping circles as your own valuable magazine, I have deemed it best for parties interested to place the translation at your disposal for publication.

I am, Sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. L. MARCY.

## [TRANSLATION.]

Regulations in relation to the signals which will be made from the flag-staff near the light-house at Point Atalaia, to vessels which arrive at that Point, in want of a pilot for the port of the city of Belem, the capital of the Province of Para :—

1. A white flag, with a blue cross through it.
2. A flag, upper half red, lower half white.
3. A flag, all blue.
4. A flag, all red.

No. 2 signifies that there is a pilot, and a boat to convey him to the vessel wanting him.

Nos. 1 and 2. The vessel in want of a pilot will be on the lookout for him, as he is on the point of leaving immediately.

Nos. 1 and 3. The vessel must wait, because it is not a suitable time for the pilot to go out.

Nos. 1 and 4. The pilot requested will leave before noon.

Nos. 2 and 1. The pilot requested will leave in the afternoon.

Nos. 2 and 3. The pilot requested will leave before midnight.

Nos. 2 and 4. The pilot requested will leave after midnight.

Nos. 3 and 1. The vessel in want of a pilot is to send a boat for him if it knows the place.

Nos. 3 and 2. There is no pilot ready, and therefore you must be on the lookout for the signal to be made when one arrives.

Nos. 3, 4, 3 and 4, and 4 and 3, are not included in this scheme, because they are to be employed in the signal regulations for vessels in distress, burning, &c., announced on the 6th of December, 1848.

A white flag with a blue cross through it is a signal to show that the signals from Salinas are perceived at Atalaia.

A flag, inner half white, outer half red, is the signal which a vessel wanting a pilot must hoist at the head of the prow.

A flag, red and white chequered is the signal which the pilot must make to the vessel that wants him.

Regulations for the signals which are to be made from the town of Salinas towards Atalaia, where the flag-staff is placed :—

1. A flag, all white.
2. A flag, inner half white, outer half red.

No. 1 signifies that there is a pilot and a boat to take him on board the vessel.

No. 2. There is a pilot, but no boat to take him on board.

Nos. 1 and 2. There is no pilot.

Regulations for the signals which are to be made by night from Salinas to Atalaia :

## SHIPS' LANTERNS WITH UNCOLORED GLASSES.

Two lights placed diagonally signifies there is a pilot.

Two lights placed one above the other signifies there is a pilot, but no boat.

Two lights placed on a line signifies there is no pilot.

Night signals to be made at Atalaia to a vessel wanting a pilot :—

## SHIPS' LANTERNS WITH RED GLASSES.

Two lights placed diagonally signifies there is a pilot.

Two lights placed one above the other signifies there is a pilot, but no boat.

Two lights placed on a line signifies there is no pilot at present.

One red light is the manner in which to acknowledge at Atalaia a signal made to it from Salinas by night.

One white light is the signal by night which a vessel arriving at Atalaia, and wanting a pilot, must hoist at the head of the prow.

## REMARKS.

1st. Those vessels which arrive at Atalaia Point, in quest of a pilot for the port of the city of Belem, the capital of the Province of Para, shall hoist at the head of the prow the flag which has been designed, and ordered to be used for that purpose by the proclamation of the 18th of January, 1850.

2d. When the signal is made from Atalaia that it is not a suitable time for the pilot to go out, the vessel in want of him shall endeavor to bring to, (never attempting to cast anchor within six and seven fathoms of water,) leaving the light-house to the S. E., sailing off and on, when the water is at high tide, and keeping from the land when the tide is low.

3d. The vessel desiring a pilot, in order to obtain him as speedily as possible, will endeavor to keep itself N. W. and S. E. from the light-house.

4th. Masters of vessels who want a pilot are to understand that it is the custom of the pilots to leave the interior of the harbor of the town of Salinas at high tide, which occurs, according to the lunar days, on shore at half past seven—and at the place where they are accustomed to anchor at fifteen minutes past eight.

5th. The same masters of vessels must be careful to look out for the signals which may be made to them from Atalaia, and not those which are made from the town of Salinas for that place, keeping well in mind that the night signals from Atalaia are of a red light, and those of Salinas are uncolored.

6th. The master of a vessel to whom signals are made from Atalaia ought to be provided with a yard, because in calm and fair weather signal flags are most conspicuous therefrom.

7th. When a vessel, in stormy or foggy weather, (day or night,) arrives at a place which she suspects or knows from some indications or other to be in front of Salinas or Atalaia, in order to call a pilot she will fire a gun, which will be answered at Atalaia by another discharge. This response will be understood to mean that the vessel which fired the gun will wait until an opportunity offers to send her a pilot.

A true copy,

FRAN. X. BOMTEMPO.

## IRON LIGHT-HOUSES FOR THE FLORIDA COAST.

An iron light-house to be put up on Coffin's Patches, on the Florida coast, has been constructed in Philadelphia, under the superintendence of Lieut. George C. Mead, of the United States Topographical Corps, who has charge of the light-house operations upon that dangerous coast. This light-house is one of the chain projected which when complete, will greatly improve the navigation of the Florida coast, as the navigator will have a succession of lights to guide him, so located that one will always be in sight.

The entire height of this structure is about 150 feet. The light-house is entirely of iron, and consists of eight posts surrounding a central post. The lower sections of these posts are twelve inches in diameter, and each weighs about four tons. They are pointed at the ends, and will be driven by means of a pile-driver into the coral reef for eight or ten feet, affording a substantial foundation. The light-keeper's house is located within the third section, and from that to the lantern, which is above the seventh section, a spiral staircase winds around the center post, the whole being inclosed with boiler plate iron. The stairway is lit by windows in each section. The lantern is to contain a Fresnel light of the first order, and the structure, when complete, will be the largest iron light-house in the world.

## RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

## RAILROADS IN GERMANY.

The following table, exhibiting the names of roads, time of their completion, length in German miles, dividends in 1850 and 1851, and gross receipts in 1852, was compiled from official sources for the Department of State:—

| Names of railroads.               | When completed.  | Length in German mls. | Dividends. |        | Receipts in 1852. Thalers. |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|------------|--------|----------------------------|
|                                   |                  |                       | 1850.      | 1851.  |                            |
| Berlin Potsdam .....              | August 7, 1846   | 19.6                  | 3          | 3½     | 863,230                    |
| Berlin Anhalt .....               | 10, 1841         | 30.8                  | 5          | 6      | 963,902                    |
| Berlin Hamburg .....              | Dec. 15, 1846    | 39.5                  | 4½         | 4½     | 1,498,000                  |
| Berlin Stettin .....              | August 15, 1843  | 14.8                  | 5 1-5      | 7¾     | 766,848                    |
| Breslau Schwednitz Freiburg.      | October 29, 1843 | 8.8                   | 3½         | 3¾     | 219,581                    |
| Bonn Cologne .....                | Feb. 15, 1844    | 3.9                   | 6          | 5      | 113,000                    |
| Bergish-Markische .....           | Dec. 29, 1848    | 7.7                   | ..         | 1      | 276,092                    |
| Dusseldorf Elberfeld .....        | August 3, 1841   | 3.5                   | 4½         | 3      | 230,579                    |
| Cologne Minden .....              | October 15, 1847 | 36.8                  | 5½         | 5 7-12 | 2,375,482                  |
| Magdeburg Leipsic .....           | August 18, 1840  | 15.7                  | 15         | 16     | 750,042                    |
| Magdeburg Halberstadt .....       | July 16, 1843    | 7.7                   | 8          | 9      | 348,158                    |
| Munster Hamm .....                | May 26, 1848     | 4.6                   | 3½         | 2      | 87,935                     |
| Magdeburg Wittenberge .....       | August 5, 1849   | 14.2                  | ..         | 4      | 240,492                    |
| Lower Silesia line .....          | 1, 1846          | 51.7                  | 3½         | 4      | 2,026,555                  |
| Lower Silesia branch line .....   | August 3, 1846   | 9.5                   | ..         | ..     | 88,916                     |
| Neisse Brieg .....                | Nov. 26, 1848    | 5.8                   | 2 1-10     | 2¾     | 71,538                     |
| Upper Silesia line .....          | October 3, 1846  | 26.3                  | 7          | 8      | 1,302,347                  |
| Prince Wilhelm's line .....       | October 1, 1847  | 4.3                   | ..         | ..     | 98,184                     |
| Rhenish line .....                | October 15, 1843 | 11.4                  | 2½         | 3½     | 780,646                    |
| Ruhrort Crefeld .....             | October 5, 1849  | 5.5                   | ..         | ..     | 87,703                     |
| Stargard Posen .....              | August 10, 1848  | 22.6                  | 3½         | 3½     | 277,144                    |
| Thuringian line .....             | June 20, 1846    | 25.1                  | 3          | 3      | 903,500                    |
| Wilhelm's line .....              | Jan. 1, 1847     | 7.1                   | 4          | 5 1-6  | 223,684                    |
| Florins.                          |                  |                       |            |        |                            |
| Emperor Ferdinand's N. line ..... | Jan. 6, 1838     | 55.8                  | 7          | 10½    | 6,953,578                  |
| Vienna-Gloggnitz .....            | May 29, 1841     | 11.3                  | 7          | 8      | 1,972,921                  |
| Vienna-Bruck .....                | Sept. 13, 1846   | 5.6                   | 7          | 8      | 152,417                    |
| Taunus line .....                 | Sept. 11, 1839   | 5.8                   | 5          | 5 2-5  | 497,113                    |
| Palatine Ludwig's line .....      | August 1, 1849   | 15.7                  | ..         | ..     | 715,821                    |
| Thalers.                          |                  |                       |            |        |                            |
| Westphalian line .....            | October 1, 1850  | 10.1                  | ..         | ..     | 155,150                    |
| Leipsic Dresden .....             | April 7, 1839    | 15.6                  | 6          | 8      | 756,552                    |
| Frederick Wilhem's N. line .....  | March 30, 1848   | 19.2                  | ..         | ..     | 303,407                    |
| Mecklenberg .....                 | May 1, 1847      | 19.3                  | ..         | ..     | 273,646                    |
| Altona-Kiel .....                 | Sept. 9, 1844    | 14                    | 5          | 5½     | 842,364                    |
| Gluckstadt-Elmshoim .....         | July 19, 1845    | 2.2                   | ..         | ..     | 36,336                     |
| Rendsburg Neumunster .....        | Sept. 18, 1845   | 4.4                   | ..         | ..     | 114,346                    |
| Lubeck-Buch .....                 | October 16, 1851 | 6                     | ..         | ..     | 109,646                    |

For the year ending the 30th of November, 1852, the traffic and receipts on the Vienna-Gloggnitz line have been, passengers, 1,601,668; centimes of goods, 5,613,744; and receipts, 2,089,610 florins. On the Vienna-Gloggnitz line for the year ending 30th November, 1851—passengers, 1,437,553; centimes of goods, 5,360,620; receipts, 1,913,566 florins.

On the Vienna-Bruck line for the year ending 30th November, 1852—passengers, 146,055; centimes of goods, 691,349; receipts, 166,124 florins. On the Vienna-Bruck line for the year ending November 30th, 1851—passengers, 130,444; centimes of goods, 623,104; receipts, 155,799 florins.

A German mile is equal to 4.60 English miles; a thaler is equal to 69 cents; and a florin is equal to 46 cents.

## DISCIPLINE ON BOARD STEAMERS AND SHIPS.

Taking our accustomed ease one morning some weeks ago, says a correspondent, in our barber's shop, we overheard the following, as it fell from the lips of one of our most distinguished American poets:—

"I am of the firm opinion that if there had been on board the Arctic—as I contend should be the case on every steamship that crosses the Atlantic—the discipline of a man-of-war, that dreadful calamity, at least in part, might have been avoided.

"It was the lack of authoritative concert between the captain and his officers, and the officers and the crew, which at the outset led to the deplorable event.

"When the steamer Princeton, Captain Stockton, had made a portion of a pleasure excursion down the Potomac, you will remember that in firing a salute with the 'big gun,' it burst, and destroyed several precious lives, among others that of the then Secretary of the Navy. Now, I have it from the very best authority—that of Commodore Stockton himself—that when the gunners had fired the piece and witnessed its terrible effects, they resumed their position amidst the carnage it had created, nor did they move from it until ordered to do so by their commander. Can it be doubted that obedience and discipline such as this might have saved our unfortunate ocean steamer?"

"But," interposed the hearer, "is it certain that any discipline could have saved all the passengers?"

"I don't know what others may think, but for myself I have not the slightest doubt of it. Let me mention a circumstance which once occurred on Lake Champlain, and of which I myself was an eye-witness:—

"I was on board the steamer Burlington—this was some twenty-five or thirty years ago—commanded by Capt. Sherman, one of the most careful, the most methodical, the most exact captains that ever trod a steamer's deck. Everybody knows, who ever traveled with him, that there never was seen a speck of dirt about his boat as big as a pea; that his directions were given in a tone so low that they were seldom heard save by those to whom they were especially addressed; and generally they were indicated by a merely subdued hiss or whistle.

"On the occasion of which I speak, the steamboat had approached the middle of the widest part of the lake, somewhere, if I recollect rightly, in the neighborhood of Plattsburg, when a circle of smoke was seen issuing from around the smoke-pipe. The alarm instantly arose: 'The boat is on fire! the boat is on fire!'

"I rushed to the saloon, where several ladies who were of the pleasure party to which I myself was attached, were assembled in a state of great fear. Ladies, I said, don't be alarmed; I know Capt. Sherman, and his prudence, energy, and determination so well, that although it is certain that the boat has caught fire, yet I consider your lives as safe as if you were in your own parlors.

"Meantime there was no bustle, no loud orders, no shouting or disorder upon the deck; and when I returned to it, I found two lines of men, all of the crew, passing full, and receiving empty buckets in return, and in fifteen minutes the fire, which had reached considerable headway, was entirely extinguished. An hour or two after, when all excitement in relation to the fire had subsided, as I met the captain on deck I ventured to ask him: Captain Sherman, will you tell me how it was that you were enabled to preserve such perfect order among your crew, and to put out a fire so speedily which had gained such headway?"

"Oh, yes!" replied the captain; "the whole thing is very simple and easily explained. It all consists in being prepared for such an emergency. Now, I have rehearsed the very scene which you have witnessed to-day more than fifty times with my men, on the deck of this boat."

"And there," said Mr. H—, "was seen the benefit of discipline. Suppose that the men on board the Burlington had been running hither and thither, without concert and without confidence, frightening others and only anxious to save themselves; what would have been the result? The boat would have been destroyed to a certainty."

Is not this worthy of imitation?

#### STATISTICS OF THE RAILROADS OF MAINE.

We are indebted to JOHN A. POOR, Esq., editor of the *State of Maine*, one of the best commercial journals in the country, for the following tables showing the operations of the railroads of Maine in 1850, 1853, and 1854:—

1850.

|                                | Length. | Cost.       | No. of passengers. | Receipts for passengers. | Receipts for freight. |
|--------------------------------|---------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| Atlantic and St. Lawrence...   | 47      | \$2,244,814 | 151,100            | \$83,528                 | \$54,052              |
| Androscoggin and Kennebec.     | 55      | 1,621,878   | 79,492             | 58,203                   | 34,053                |
| Kennebec and Portland . . . .  | 34      | 1,000,000   | 96,964             | 60,424                   | 19,562                |
| Portland, Saco, & Portsmouth   | 51      | 1,313,000   | 133,564            | 192,443                  | 36,593                |
| Bangor and Piscataquis . . . . | 13      | 350,000     | 35,000             | 14,000                   | 4,800                 |
| Buckfield Branch. . . . .      | 12      | 120,000     | 5,882              | 2,653                    | 4,620                 |
| Calais and Baring. . . . .     | 6       | 120,000     | .....              | .....                    | .....                 |
| York and Cumberland . . . . .  | 9       | 360,000     | 5,000              | 1,250                    | 300                   |
|                                | 227     | \$7,129,692 | 507,002            | \$412,501                | \$154,010             |

1853.

|                                 | Length. | Cost.       | No. of passengers. | Receipts for passengers. | Receipts for freight. | Other sums. |
|---------------------------------|---------|-------------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| Atlantic and St. Lawrence...    | 149     | \$5,306,720 | 161,354            | \$130,475                | \$167,733             | \$17,869    |
| Androscoggin and Kennebec . .   | 55      | 2,030,140   | 110,784            | 79,305                   | 68,170                | 6,594       |
| Androscoggin . . . . .          | 20      | 315,865     | 20,747             | 9,168                    | 9,555                 | 428         |
| Bangor and Piscataquis. . . . . | 13      | 138,913     | 72,178             | 23,269                   | 18,911                | 1,957       |
| Calais and Baring . . . . .     | 6       | 217,255     | 14,554             | 1,361                    | 25,675                | 1,001       |
| Kennebec and Portland . . . . . | 72½     | 2,520,981   | 241,671            | 134,432                  | 34,628                | 7,941       |
| Machiasport . . . . .           | 7½      | 100,000     | .....              | .....                    | 9,715                 | 100         |
| Portland, Saco, & Portsmouth.   | 51      | 1,303,395   | 297,818            | 187,808                  | 58,197                | 16,061      |
| York and Cumberland. . . . .    | 18      | 748,609     | .....              | 85,170                   | 18,905                | 284         |
| Buckfield Branch. . . . .       | 12      | .....       | .....              | .....                    | .....                 | .....       |
|                                 | 404     | 12,681,878  | 919,106            | 600,988                  | 411,495               | 52,235      |

1854.

|                                 |     |             |           |           |           |          |
|---------------------------------|-----|-------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Atlantic and St. Lawrence...    | 149 | \$6,019,929 | 185,105   | \$153,616 | \$296,890 | \$20,141 |
| Androscoggin and Kennebec..     | 55  | 2,196,334   | 129,045   | 97,615    | 78,646    | 2,091    |
| Androscoggin . . . . .          | 20  | 343,317     | 22,235    | 13,916    | 15,145    | 334      |
| Bangor and Piscataquis. . . . . | 13  | 178,233     | 76,980    | 26,344    | 18,367    | 177      |
| Calais and Baring. . . . .      | 6   | 277,770     | 16,720    | 1,420     | 29,060    | 1,160    |
| Kennebec and Portland . . . . . | 72½ | 2,613,410   | 268,992   | 160,531   | 46,716    | 10,100   |
| Machiasport . . . . .           | 7½  | 100,000     | .....     | .....     | 7,000     | 200      |
| Portland, Saco, & Portsmouth.   | 51  | 1,315,976   | 284,635   | 202,592   | 62,833    | 6,904    |
| York and Cumberland. . . . .    | 18  | 765,018     | 82,640    | 16,348    | 14,364    | .....    |
| Buckfield Branch. . . . .       | 12  | .....       | .....     | .....     | .....     | .....    |
|                                 | 404 | 13,759,988  | 1,066,352 | 672,392   | 587,388   | 41,017   |

It will be seen by the above that in 1850 Maine had 227 miles of railway in operation, costing \$7,119,692, carrying 595,721 passengers, for which it received \$412,501, and 131,916 tons of freight, receiving therefor \$154,010. The total receipts of the railways of Maine for 1850 was \$566,511.

In 1854 the railways of Maine had cost \$15,000,000. They carried 1,066,352 passengers, and the total receipts for 1854 \$1,280,312.

## AMERICAN STEAMBOATS.

[FROM MADAME FONTENAY'S TRAVELS IN AMERICA.]

"If the first and most constant need of an Englishman is to exalt his country; of a Frenchman to boast of his person; of an Italian to boast of his singing; of a Spaniard to be jealous; of a Russian to swagger—the first and most constant need of an American is assuredly to act, or better, to transport himself from one extremity to the other of his vast country. In fact there is not a people in the world who travel as much and with as little preparation as the Americans. They start on a journey of four thousand kilometers as we do from Paris to Rouen. I should say more: they do not even take the trouble to carry a trunk on their longest voyages. The clothing which they have on their backs the day of departure suffices them, save stopping at the first city, and at the first store on the way replacing the cast-off clothing which they throw to winds on the road, giving thus to their peregrinations the lively impulsion characterized by these words, 'Go ahead!'—*en avant!*

"The life aboard the steamboats, although not so varied, has none the less real charms. Who has not heard of those magnificent boats navigating Lake Erie, the Hudson, the Ohio, the Mississippi, or the St. Lawrence? Boats which cost sometimes a million of francs, and which earn in a season of six months as high as two hundred and fifty thousand francs of profit for their owners. The Eclipse, which plies between Louisville and New Orleans, is nearly three hundred feet long. The interior is of a magnificence incredible in France; the ladies' saloon, also that of the gentlemen, surpasses in richness and elegance the most splendid boats of England. The Eclipse contains about two hundred chambers and five hundred beds. On the panels of the door of each chamber is painted with care, and sometimes with art, a view taken on the borders of the Ohio or Missouri. The decorations, sculpture, and tapestry, have mingled their marvels of beauty and painting. Around the steamboat, which resembles a floating palace, there is an exterior gallery, from which the traveler may admire the plantations which border the river.

"The table and the service are in unison with all this splendor. It is not rare to see the inhabitants of Kentucky, of Indiana, and Missouri, embark at Louisville, Cairo, or St. Louis, destined to New Orleans, where they stop some days, and afterward remount to the point of departure, having thus remained three weeks on the rivers, solely for the pleasure of being some time away from home, and to change constantly the perspective, without leaving their comfortable temporary home. The distractions which are encountered on board these steamboats, are all that Americans demand. To smoke, to drink, to talk, to gamble, that is the life of the men; as for the women, they read, embroider, or play on the piano of their saloon unpublished airs. Nowhere but in France have I encountered women who know how to do nothing."

## THE "GREAT EASTERN" STEAMSHIP.

A gentleman of New Bedford, who recently visited the ship yard of Messrs. Scott, Russell & Co., in London, has furnished the following memoranda of the dimensions of the stupendous iron steamship now building in that place for the Australian trade, and which is expected to be launched about next Christmas:—

The hull measures in length 675 feet, greatest breadth of beam 83 feet; depth of hold 63 feet. The hull, even with the upper deck, is to be iron plate; and from the keel to eight feet above the water line, she will be double, or two hulls one within the other, leaving thirty-six inches space within the walls. The hull is built in ten watertight compartments, sixty feet each, all of iron an inch in thickness, with two longitudinal iron walls extending the whole length of the ship. Her bottom is flat, fourteen feet on either side of the keel. Her capacity by measurement is 25,000 tons;

draft twenty feet, and when loaded thirty feet. She has four decks, and saloons to accommodate 600 first-class, and 1,800 second class passengers, and 10,000 troops.

Her engine will be of three thousand horse power, with four cylinders, each of which will require 35 tons of melted metal, and when clean will weigh about 30 tons each; 20 flue boilers 6 by 30 feet in length. Her engines are low pressure, and will give motion to side wheels or paddles, and screw propeller. The engine, when put together, will be 54 feet in height. The weight of her machinery will be about 3,000 tons, hull 10,000; making an aggregate of about 13,000 tons of iron employed in her construction.

The "Great Eastern" will be rigged with six masts with fore-and-aft sails, and it is expected will be capable of a speed of from eighteen to twenty knots—enabling her to make the passage from London to Australia in thirty days, and to return by way of Cape Horn in an equal time. She is building by a company at an estimated cost of £400,000, or \$2,000,000; and when completed will be launched broadside to the water. Her architect is I. K. Brunel, and about 500 men are now employed upon her in various departments.

## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

### THE RELATION OF MERCHANTS TO NATIONAL INDEPENDENCE.

The eloquent and appropriate remarks below were published in the "*Philadelphia Merchant*," a few days before the seventy-ninth anniversary of our American independence—a festival which in the highest sense, is associated with the establishment of great principles and the performance of great deeds. In these remarks we trace the mind and style of an able and eloquent divine, Rev. HENRY BACON, of Philadelphia.

"The vast variety of journals in our country, representing every phase of the American mind, will present, each from its own point of view, the meaning of this festival; for so grand were the purposes and so far-reaching the principles for which our fathers contended, that whatever may be the social, political, moral, or religious standpoint which we take, American Independence assumes a commanding importance. Brought as we are, by the purposes of our paper, into constant contact with mercantile life, it is natural for us to look on the commercial view of this great matter. American Independence was a great piece of Business, as well as a mighty War; and the first and most difficult work to be accomplished was, the culture of self-denial, which, in the spirit of a noble patriotism, could lay all the interests of trade, all the revenues of commerce, all the accumulations of fortune, on the altar of freedom. Merchants rule the cities; from the cities goes out into the rural towns the awakening power of patriotism; and when the first stroke is given to the 'thunder-drum' yet to be 'heard round the world,' it is in obedience to the key-note of Liberty given in the city, where the sacrifices involved in the War are most clearly seen and most speedily felt.

"Military skill and undaunted courage had their place in the stupendous achievement of our national Independence. Withered be the hand that would pluck a single laurel from the warrior's brow—that would tarnish the honor due Washington and his unparalleled companions in the bloody field. They were men who did a Divine work in a providential era, and did it well—so well that the very instinct of the American now is, that he was born to lead in the best achievements possible to our race. But while giving unlimited honor to the heroes of the camp and the battle-field, we ask that due consideration be given to the Business that lay behind all this—the mercantile machinery, so to speak, which mightily aided the transcendent achievement that enabled Washington to resign his command under skies of victory and in paths of laurels. That was a stern battle which was fought where supplies were to be secured, and crippled and confused finances were to be managed. The mighty deeds of Robert

Morris were less apparent as great victories than a startling battle, and yet what stupendous issues were made dependent on his wonderful art in almost creating money at many a fearful crisis! Mercantile tact had its part in the splendid achievement of American Independence as truly as military skill and unshaken bravery, and this will yet be exhibited in clearer lines than history has been wont to record it. Admirably has one of our own merchants, in his late report as president of the Merchant Fund Society, said of the Merchant—'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. 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 otherwise would be wrecked, may lie at safe and peaceful anchorage.'

"How important it is that this fact should be duly appreciated! The credit, the honor, the influence, of the merchants of our Revolutionary era, threw up many a barricade behind which the brave military fought with hopeful valor. When the present was chaotic and the future was darkness, mercantile power touched springs of hope and a new sun seemed born in the heavens; and to those who may need to look first beyond American history, in order to see how vital are the monetary concerns of a nation, before they can see what honor is due beyond the camp, have only to open Allison's Introduction to his continuation of his History of Modern Europe, in connection with his Essays, and study his working of the great problem of Money and Ancient Rome. But such need only to look into the records of the English Parliament for a few months past, and read in the revelations of the 'Roebuck Committee,' what is the necessity for Business accomplishments—tact, energy, promptitude—in union with the forces in the field, to give success to arms that won Waterloo. The Merchant in his plain dress—with no train of attendants or attractive show—going quietly, yet with energy, about his business of finance and supplies, in the time of war, can never expect to win the applause which waits on the victorious general, yet he holds as many of the essentials to success as the warrior.

"As were the relations of the Merchant to the final achievement of American Independence, such are they now to the maintenance of our national success, our accumulating superiority. In the forthcoming volume of 'Mercantile Biographies,' by the accomplished editor of the *Merchants' Magazine*, a memoir of the Hon. James Gore King will doubtless have a prominent place. Let that biography be read, and see there the relations of the merchant to the real independence of the country—the stimulus to industry, to inventive achievement—the support of education, and the promotion of religion, the dispensing of large-handed charity: we mean the healthy condition of the monetary affairs of the country.

"But not only upon the few foremost merchants, but upon the many less prominent, does the real independence of the country rest—men who, amid the noise and bustle of trade, confessing by their labor to the necessity for effort, are

'Richer than doing nothing for a bauble;  
Prouder than rustling in unpaid-for silks.'

The greatest need just now is to turn the tide of feeling away from aspiration for political office, to the essential toil of real business life. The most fatal thing in the present aspect of our nation is, the vastness of the number of men who are eager to live on the public treasury—who deem all methods of drawing means therefrom perfectly justifiable, and whose consciences seem to be of an exceedingly spongy nature. Such are no helps to the great work of America. They may talk of 'the plodding man of trade' in derision, but they scorn the hand that feeds them, and are blind to

the real greatness to which this 'plodding' may lead. So far as real manhood is concerned—the real progress which the genius of our nation demands of each of her sons, these would be mere leeches, are but as a gate that moves only as its hinges are moved by an independent hand.

"The coming of the 'glorious Fourth' should be hailed with moral admiration of the self-denial, toil, and suffering, which glorified the spirits who achieved our independence, and with a resolute purpose to do each his part in the work of national progress. Mercantile life has as truly its manifold relations to this great work as statesmanship, and by indolence and craft in the counting-room or store, national interests may be imperilled, as by bad diplomacy or wicked legislation."

#### FABRICATED TRADE MARKS.

[FROM THE MERCANTILE JOURNAL AND STATISTICAL REGISTER, BELFAST.]

Our readers will recollect that we have frequently called their attention to the serious falling off which has taken place of late years in the character of American flour, owing either to carelessness or fraud in the inspection, inferior qualities having been systematically branded and sold as extra superfine, to the great loss of the purchaser, and the character of the country in which such unprincipled transactions occurred. In our last remarks on this subject we strongly recommended our American friends to endeavor to get rid of the system of "inspection" altogether, in which case every miller would be obliged to pay proper attention to the character of his manufacture, as upon it, and upon it alone, would his reputation and success as a miller depend. To furnish a case in point, as we have then showed, we have only to call the recollection of our friends to the period when all the flaxseed imported here had to pass through an inspector's hands before being offered for sale, but which system was abolished about twenty-eight or thirty years ago, owing to its being found not to answer the purpose for which it was intended, that of securing to the farmer sound and pure sowing seed; not from any fault on the part of the inspector, but from its being found that the same casks were frequently used, besides other modes adopted, even of a worse description, to evade the vigilance of the inspecting officer.

We are sorry to find that there are as yet no symptoms of improvement on the part of our American friends, a circumstance which we regret exceedingly, as a perseverance in such a questionable mode of doing business will be the means of forcing us to seek for flour in other quarters, where the first principles of Commerce are better appreciated. We extract the following excellent remarks, taking a more extended and general view of the system of trade marks, from the *London Journal of Commerce*:—

"Among the many dishonest trade practices and systems of fraud which prevail, there is, perhaps, none which is carried out on a more extensive scale than the imitation of popular articles of consumption and manufacture, both for home and foreign consumption. It is, however, to foreign markets that these are mostly shipped, and trade marks on goods for export are forged to a most unheard-of extent. It is only lately that steps have been taken to put a stop, in America and the colonies, to this dishonest practice. The rigid enforcement of the law against counterfeiting trade marks is essential not only to the pecuniary interests of merchants, and the character of our traders, but also, in some degree, to the sanitary interests of the public. In London, it may be remembered, there was recently seized a large quantity of spurious ale. It contained very vile ingredients, and the bottles were fraudulently labeled 'Alsopp's Ale,' being intended for export to New York. The guilty parties were prosecuted for counterfeiting the labels and trade marks, and sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment to hard labor. This is a severer penalty than that prescribed by the law of the State of New York, enacted in 1850, by which knowingly forging or counterfeiting, or causing to be forged or counterfeited, trade marks of any kind is punishable by imprisonment in the county jail for a period not exceeding six months.

There is also a clause in that act, (session law, 1850, pp. 197-98,) making the party having 'in his possession any die, plate, engraving, or printed label, stamp, or wrapper representation, likeness, similitude, copy, or imitation of the private stamp, wrapper, or label, for the purpose of assisting in the sale of imitated goods,' &c., equally guilty with the manufacturer and vendor, and subject to the same punishment. It is well known that almost every article of merchandise possessing a high reputation in this country is extensively imitated in America. Being apt and cunning, the universal Yankee nation, we are told by one of their own trade organs, tries its hand at deception, and hence imitative Champagne, Sheffield cutlery, Rowland's macassar, Cognac brandy, Worcestershire sauce, Belgium cloths, Burton ales, Irish linens, French silks, Scotch shawls, and a thousand other things, are manufactured there, and sold as the 'real originals.'

"The law on this subject, and the cases bearing upon it, have occasionally been alluded to; but some recent decisions which have been given may be adverted to here for the benefit of traders and merchants. In the Court of Common Pleas, in the case of *Allcroft vs. Culverwell*, the plaintiffs, the successors of Dent & Co., the celebrated glove manufacturers, recovered £200 damages for an infringement of their trade mark, inferior gloves having been spuriously stamped with their distinguishing mark. Mr. Holloway obtained an injunction in the Rolls Court in November, 1850, against his brother for fraudulently copying the labels, direction papers, &c., of his pots and boxes of pills and ointment. In November, 1854, Mr. Lent, the great Staley Bridge manufacturer, obtained a perpetual injunction, with costs, in the Supreme Court of Calcutta, restraining two native houses from using a fabricated mark for stamping grey shirtings of an inferior character, so as to lead persons to believe they were genuine. It was given in evidence, that by means of this practice second class goods were constantly sold for those of a superior quality. This decision is stated to have an astonishing effect upon the bazaar dealers in India. A case or two of this nature, prosecuted with effect, does wonders in stopping the wholesale system of fraudulent imitations. So general had the practice become in India that it was common, when wines were bottled by native coopers, for the question to be put, whether the bottles should be sealed with the seal of Burdon & Gray, White, or Shaw, &c. The Amoskeag Manufacturing Company obtained an injunction in the New York Court, in 1849, against Spear & Ripley, to restrain them from using their trade marks on tickings. The mark was an oval, with the letters 'A. C. A.' below the center, and surrounded by a vignette in red. A motion to dissolve the injunction was subsequently argued and denied; the judge, however, reserving the question of the right of the company to the letters 'A. C. A.,' unless united with the vignette. A decree has since been made, establishing the right of the company to the whole trade mark, and also to the letters 'A. C. A.,' whether in combination or by themselves. The courts, both of this country and of the United States, will now issue injunctions, not only against copying trade marks, but also against what was formerly often done—imitating them with a slight difference. A case was decided in 1854, where an action was brought in the Superior Court of Connecticut by Messrs. J. & P. Coats, of Paisley, Scotland, against the Wellington Thread Company, of Tolland County, Connecticut, for an infringement of the labels used on the spools. They were in the habit of using a label in black and gilt, with the following, amongst other words and figures, printed thereon—'J. & P. Coats, best six cord, 200 yards.' The Wellington Company imitated this mark by making it appear as 'Coats' best six cord, 200 yards.' An injunction was granted by the Superior Court against the Wellington Company, to prevent the further use of the 'false and simulated wrappers on the thread,' under the penalty of £2,000, and the defendants had to pay the costs of the suit.

"The more generally and universally this subject of fraudulent imitations of trade marks is discussed, the more likely is the practice to be put an end to, and private and public interests protected thereby. A jury of business men will almost invariably convict for such an offense, and it is but right that ingenuity, skill, and outlay should be protected. The names of firms become, in the course of time, popular and celebrated from their identification with peculiar articles, and the forgery of these, the trading on another man's credit, the filching of his good name by some unprincipled adventurer, in order to deceive the public and enrich himself, is base and criminal in the extreme, and demands the rigorous application of the law. Almost all commercial nations have now joined in reprobating such proceedings, and legislating for the redress of the wrong by inflicting damages and levying penalties of various kinds; and the good sense of the public, and of all honest-minded traders, agree in the necessity for carefully guarding private interests of this kind."

## FIRST BOOKS IN AMERICA.

It is a remarkable fact that in a year after the first printing press was established in Cambridge, Massachusetts, or in 1640, an American book was issued from it, (being the first published in what are now the United States,) which was soon after reprinted in England, where it passed through no less than eighteen editions, the last being issued in 1754; thus maintaining a hold on English popularity for one hundred and fourteen years. This was the "Bay Psalm Book." It passed through twenty-two editions in Scotland, where it was extensively known, the last bearing date 1759; and as it was reprinted without the compiler enjoying pecuniary benefit from its sale, we have irrefutable proof that England *pirated* the first American book, being in reality the original aggressor in this line.

This first American work enjoyed a more lasting reputation, and had a wider circulation than any volume since, of American origin, having passed in all through *seventy* editions—a very remarkable number for the age in which it flourished. Success attended the colonial press, and in 1663 the first Bible printed in America was published at Cambridge. It was unlawful to print an English version of the Scriptures—that right being a monopoly enjoyed by privilege and patent in England. The one printed in Massachusetts was Elliott's famous Indian Bible; and although fifteen hundred copies were struck off, they are now quite rare and "sealed books," as the tongue in which they are written is literally a "dead language," the tribe and all who had a knowledge of the dialect being long extinct. Elliott's work is unique, being at once a monument to his piety, perseverance, and learning. Its literary successor was Newman's Concordance of the Scriptures. This was compiled by the light of pine knots in a log cabin, in one of the frontier settlements of Massachusetts. It was the first of its kind, and for more than a century was admitted to be the most perfect, holding its place in public esteem until superseded by Cruden's, which it suggested.

## PARIS FUEL SHOPS.

The fuel with which to cook a dinner in Paris costs nearly as much as the dinner itself. Fuel is very scarce, and the American is surprised to find shops all over the city, fitted up with shelves like those in shoe stores, upon which is stored wood, split up in pieces about the size of a man's finger, and done up in bundles, as matches were in the days of the tinder-box, steel, and flint: they are about the size of a bunch of asparagus. These little bundles sell at from two to six sous. Larger sticks are bundled up in the same way, and sell at a frightful price. Charcoal is sold by the weight, and hard coal being nearly as expensive as wood, can be bought in the smallest quantity at any of these fuel shops. The windows of these shops are often decorated with a curtain or inside shutter, upon which split wood and round wood are printed to represent the bundles sold within.

## HOW TO MAKE JUJUBE PASTE.

The jujube plant has been recently introduced into this country. The following recipe for making jujube paste is furnished by the United States Patent Office:—

"Take jujubes, one pound, and water, two quarts; boil half an hour, strain with expression, settle, decant the clear, and clarify with white of eggs; add a strained solution of gumarabic, six pounds in four quarts of water, and to the mixture six pounds of white sugar; gently evaporate, at first constantly stirring, and afterwards without stirring, till reduced to the consistence of soft extract; add orange-flower water, six ounces, and place the pan in a vessel of boiling water. In twelve hours carefully remove the scum, pour the matter into slightly-oiled tin molds."

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 THE BOOK TRADE.
 

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- 1.—*Theism: the Witness of Reason and Nature to an All-wise and Beneficent Creator.* By JOHN TULLOCK, D. D., Principal and Primarius Professor of Theology St. Mary's College, St. Andrew's. 12mo., pp. 431. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

Mr. Barnett, a benevolent merchant of Aberdeen, Scotland, among other acts of liberality, bequeathed certain sums to be expended at intervals of forty years, in the shape of two premiums, inciting to the discussion of the evidences of religious truth, and especially to the consideration and confirmation of the attributes of Divine Wisdom and Goodness. The writer of this essay received the second premium of £500, the judges who decided on its merits having been Mr. Isaac Taylor, Henry Royles, and the Rev. Padre Powell. The writer, it seems, kept very prominently in view the anti-theistic tendencies of our time, especially as manifested in the form of Positivism, Materialistic Pantheism, in the shape of Positive Philosophy, has assumed a dignity and importance which invest it with a new character, and require a new and more comprehensive mode of treatment. Miss Martineau's recent translation of Comte's great work, and Mr. G. H. Lewis' popular exposition of Positivism, give additional significance to the purpose of Dr. Tullock's prize essay.

- 2.—*A Memoir of the Rev. Sydney Smith.* By his Daughter, Lady HOLLAND. With a Selection from his Letters, Edited by Mrs. Austen. In two volumes. 12mo., pp. 371 and 511. New York: Harper & Brothers.

It is ten years since the decease of this talented and independent preacher. The public have had but brief sketches and small recollections of his noble and Christian life. His biography and letters will therefore be welcomed by all who love a record of the truly good. The memoir in the first volume by his daughter beautifully portrays his domestic life, and a large portion of the book is filled with his witty and brilliant sayings. The other volume contains a large collection from his correspondence, edited by Mrs. Austen. Both books are exceedingly interesting. The *London Leader* has said most truly, "that a more lovely picture has seldom been presented to the world than that of this brave and bright creature, so rich in wit, humor, high animal spirits, inexhaustible kindness, manly independence, sagacious good sense. To read this book is a moral tonic. It is a lesson in life. It makes us happier and better."

- 3.—*Pen Pictures of the Bible.* By the Rev. CHARLES BEECHER. With an Introduction by Harriet Beecher Stowe. First Series. 18mo., pp. 315. New York: J. C. Derby. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

The first of a series of books designed to interest young readers in the study of the Old Testament. Mrs. Stowe does not look upon the books of the Old Testament as mere literary fragments of a rude and barbarous age, of no more value than any other literary writings of ancient time, but regards them as the electric principle to the germs of liberty. The author has paraphrased some of the most interesting stories of the Bible, and rendered them attractive to children.

- 4.—*Discipline of Sorrow.* By REV. WILLIAM G. ELIOT, D. D., of St. Louis. Boston: American Unitarian Association.

Under this title, one of the most affectionate of pastors and best-beloved of preachers has issued a little book in four chapters—"Preparation, Trial, Weakness and Strength, Compensation." Its recommendations are, that it is written from a full heart, in a cheering tone, and with a child-like trust; so small that it can easily be slipped into one's pocket, it offers all the suggestions that Christian sympathy can prompt and the struggling heart can crave.

- 5.—*The Illustrated Manners Book.* A Manual of Good Behavior and Polite Accomplishments. 18mo., pp. 502. New York: Leland, Clay & Co. Stringer & Townsend.

A book that will amuse the reader, if it does not reform or improve his manners. The numerous illustrations are rather comical caricatures of the manners of "polished society."

6.—*Lectures*, delivered before the Young Men's Christian Association in Exeter Hall, London, from November, 1854, to February, 1855. 12mo., pp. 500. New York: Carter & Brothers.

We noticed some months since the publication of the series of lectures delivered before the same association for 1853-4. That was the ninth annual series that has been delivered before the Young Men's Christian Association, but the first republished in this country. The present volume contains thirteen lectures. Some idea of their character may be gathered from the titles of the topics discussed, and the names of their eminent authors, as follows:—1. On the Origin of Civilization, by the Archbishop of Dublin. 2. Labor, Rest, and Recreation, by Rev. John Cumming, D. D. 3. Popular Fallacies, by Rev. William Landels. 4. The Glory of the Old Testament, by Rev. Hugh Stowell, M. A. 5. Philosophy of the Atonement, by Rev. Thomas Archer. 6. Man and his Maker. 7. The Intelligent Study of the Holy Scriptures, by Henry Alford, B. D. 8. Constantinople and Greek Christianity, by Rev. Richard Burgess, B. D., Prebendary of St. Paul. 9. Agents in the Revival of the Last Century. 10. God's Heroes and the World's Heroes, by Rev. J. H. Gurney, M. A., Rector of St. Mary's, Marylebone. 11. The Dignity of Labor, by Rev. Newman Hall, B. A., Surrey Chapel. 12. Ragged Schools, by Rev. Thomas Guthrie, D. D. 13. Opposition to Great Inventions and Discoveries, by Rev. Samuel Martin, Westminster Chapel. The lectures, it will be seen, are well calculated to promote moral thoughtfulness and living earnestness in young men.

7.—*The Iroquois; or the Bright Side of Indian Character*. By MINNIE MYRTLE. 12mo., pp. 318. New York: Appleton & Brothers.

This work has evidently been prepared with much research and care. The writer has consulted the various works of the antiquarian, the historian, and the scholar; but not there alone, she has become acquainted and resided with portions of the race she describes, and if she has not told the whole truth, what she has "written in truth, in its minutest details." There is scarcely a topic connected with the character, manners, habits, religion, government, &c., &c., of the Iroquois that is not described and discussed, and on the whole it contains the most comprehensive view of "the bright side of Indian character," it has been our fortune to meet with in our varied reading.

8.—*America Vindicated from European Theologico-Political and Infidel Aspersions*. By THOMAS J. VAIDEN, M. D. In the 79th year of American Constitutional Liberty. 12mo., pp. 312. New York: Morgan & Co.

A singularly written book which, besides other matters, purports to embrace in its review Comte, in his "Positive Philosophy," and the Baron D' Holback, in his "Good Sense and System of Nature." The author lays down a position which few will comprehend, viz.: that "the American code of Morality or Infidelity is only extinguishable by Monotheist Normal principles." Dr. Vaiden, the author, hails from St. Paul, Minnesota Territory.

9.—*The British Poets*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. New York: James S. Dickerson.

The enterprising publishers continue to issue their series of the British Poets in the same uniform and beautiful style. We have now before us the poetical works of Percy Bysshe Shelley, edited by Mrs. Shelley, with a memoir, in three volumes; and the poetical works of George Herbert, with a memoir of the author and notes, by Rev. Robert Aris Willmott, incumbent of Beor Wood. We regard this edition of the British Poets as the most desirable for libraries that has yet been produced in this country.

10.—*Olie: or the Old West Room*. The Weary at Work and the Weary at Rest. By L. M. N. 12mo., pp. 525. New York: Mason & Brothers.

We find this story full of characters and adventures of all kinds. The plot is not very skillfully wrought, yet there is some merit in the work Olie. The orphan is the principal character—her fortune the reader follows with considerable interest. The morality of the book is good.

11.—*New Hope; or the Rescue*. A Tale of the Great Kanawha. 12mo., pp. 391. New York: Bunce & Brothers.

This work is a reprint, having formerly appeared under the title of "Our Kate." The story is an animated and graphic description of Western life in all its phases. The reader will find much entertainment in its various characters and spirited scenes.

- 12.—*New Hampshire As It Is*. In Three Parts. Compiled from Numerous Authentic Sources. By EDWIN CHARLTON. Claremont, N. H.: Tracy & Sandford. Boston: James French.

This volume, covering some six hundred pages, furnishes a pretty full historical sketch of New Hampshire from its first settlement to the adoption of the Federal Constitution. The second part is devoted to a Gazetteer of the State, embracing descriptions of the towns, cities, villages, remarkable curiosities, minerals, &c., and a general view of the counties, both historical and topographical. In the third and last part we have a very good general view of New Hampshire, including a description of its soil, productions, climate, its geological and mineralogical features, mountains, lakes, and rivers, educational and religious institutions, banks, railroads, &c. The work is interspersed with a number of portraits of the distinguished men who have emanated from that State, with comprehensive biographical sketches. To the sons and daughters of New Hampshire, scattered over every State and Territory of our wide-spread Union, the work will have a peculiar interest, and as a contribution to the historical, statistical, and other valuable information of a portion of the "Great Republic," it will be regarded with favor by the American public generally.

- 13.—*Mathematical Dictionary and Cyclopaedia of Mathematical Science*, comprising Definitions of all the Terms employed in Mathematics; an Analysis of each Branch, and of the Whole, as forming a single Science. By CHARLES DAVIES, LL. D., author of a "Complete Course of Mathematics," and WILLIAM G. PECK, A. M., Assistant Professor of Mathematics, United States Military Academy. 8vo, pp. 592. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

A valuable dictionary, not only for the student in mathematics, but for the general reader, who will find it to contain all he needs on the subject. He can learn from it the signification and use of every technical term, and trace such term, in its connections, through the entire science. It is emphatically what it purports to be—"A Dictionary and Cyclopaedia of Mathematical Science." The success which has marked the mathematical manuals of Dr. Davies, and the industry and learning of Mr. Peck, the accomplished Professor in the United States Military Academy, presage for the present work a wide circulation among a large circle of scholars and students.

- 14.—*The Turkish Empire*, embracing the Religion, Manners, and Customs of the People. With a Memoir of the Reigning Sultan and Omer Pacha. By EDWARD JOY MORRIS, author of "Travels in the East." 12mo., pp. 216. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston.

The present struggle, in which Turkey is deeply involved, gives to the present account of the history, political and religious condition, and physical resources of the people of that nation particular interest. Mr. Morris has presented, in a concise form, a general view of the past and present condition of the Ottoman people and empire. It is chiefly a translation, rendered more complete by the incorporation of portions of the French writings on Turkey and Constantinople, by Jouannin, Van Gover, and Lacroix, intermingled with a considerable amount of matter suggested by Mr. Morris's travels in Turkey and the East.

- 15.—*The Creed of Christendom*; its Foundations and Superstructure. By WILLIAM RATHBONE GREG. 12mo., pp. 357. New York: Calvin Blanchard.

Whatever may be the opinion entertained by different minds under varied influences, few will dispute the logical acumen of the author. The conclusions which he has endeavored to make clear, to quote from his own summary, are these:—"That the tenet of the Inspiration of the Scriptures is baseless and untenable under any form or modification which leaves it to a dogmatic value; that the gospels are not textually records of the sayings and actions of Jesus, but ascribe to him words which he never uttered, and deeds which he never did; and that the apostles only partially comprehended, and imperfectly transmitted, the teaching of their Great Master." The work will be read with interest by the free inquirer after religious truth.

- 16.—*First Book in Composition*, for the use of Schools. By J. BROOKFIELD. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

This little work seems well adapted for the aid of beginners in the difficult task of composition. From examination we should judge that it would be very useful as a suggestive of thought and expression to the youthful mind, and would meet the want which children feel in attempting that branch of education.

17.—*My Bondage and My Freedom*. Part 1. Life as a Slave. Part 2. Life as a Freeman. By FREDERICK DOUGLAS. With an introduction by Dr. JAMES McCUNE SMITH. 12mo., pp. 464. New York: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

More than two-thirds of the four hundred and sixty-four pages of this book is devoted to the author's life as a slave, and we are assured that the details are facts, that there is not a fictitious name or place in the whole volume. In a letter to Dr. McCune Smith, a gentleman of African descent, who has written a preface to the work, Mr. Douglas says:—"It is not to illustrate any heroic achievements of a man, but to vindicate a just and beneficial principle, by letting in the light of truth upon a system, esteemed by some as a blessing, and by others as a curse and a crime." The work is interesting in several particulars, and displays a power of description and delineation that would do credit to men whose lives had been blessed with the advantages of a higher literary culture.

18.—*The Hidden Path*. By MARION HARLAND, author of "Alone." 12mo., pp. 434. New York: J. C. Derby.

Miss Harland has laid the plot of this work in her own State, (Virginia,) where she is familiar with the scenes and characters which are described with so much naturalness. The heroine of the story is happily drawn and sustained. It is the picture of a young girl who, by the reverses and vicissitudes of life, is thrown upon her own resources, but through noble endurance, perseverance, and patience, is enabled to pass through trials, encounter difficulties, and at last triumph by steadfast adherence to duty. Many other characters are very life-like, and exhibit lessons which may be instructive to the reader. We commend the work for the truth it is meant to convey—that peace and happiness can only be secured by stern persistence in well doing, whatever temporary sacrifice it may cost.

19.—*The Romance of the Revolution*, being a History of the Personal Adventures, Heroic Exploits, and Romantic Incidents, as enacted in the War of Independence. Edited by OLIVER B. BUNCE. 12mo., pp. 434. New York: Bunce & Brothers.

In the present volume we have a collection of the strange and romantic events of our revolutionary history which have appeared in various forms during the last fifty or sixty years. Few, if any, of these passages have heretofore been collected in a permanent form. This work is designed to perpetuate and preserve these legendary pictures. The collection of Mr. Bunce is made with discrimination, and illustrates in a remarkable degree the old and trite adage that truth is stranger than fiction.

20.—*Cotton is King*; or the Culture of Cotton, and its Relation to Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce; to the Free Colored People; and to those who hold that Slavery is in itself Sinful. By an AMERICAN. 12mo., pp. 210 Cincinnati: Moore, Wilstack, Keys & Co.

A more interesting work upon the subject cannot be conceived. In the details of the influence of the growth of our principal Southern product upon the slave population, the author has fortified himself with facts and figures, which bear the closest scrutiny. The tabular statements are also new and interesting, and are alone worth more than the price of the book. It is printed in a beautiful style, and worthy the imprint of a Pickering or a Moxon.

21.—*Light and Darkness*; or the Shadow of Fate. A Story of Fashionable Life. 12mo., pp. 319. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This story is intended to depict life as it is; its purpose is to prove that, to the un-governed passions and foibles of the many, rather than to the hateful crimes of the few, we owe the miseries which darken social life. The melancholy results of those who are slaves of impulse, and are not actuated by true principles, are also truly depicted. There is a healthy moral tone pervading the whole story, the scenes and characters lively and truthful.

22.—*A Manual of Dental Economy*; or Practical Instruction on the Physiology and Treatment of the Teeth, in order to check their Diseases, repair their Injuries, and insure their Preservation. By Dr. CHARLES S. ROWELL, Surgeon Dentist. New York: Charles Scribner.

A very useful manual, giving much information regarding the teeth, both for adults and children, the knowledge of which would prevent much suffering and expense, by giving timely attention to the preservation of the teeth. The advice to parents is sound and practical, the author himself being a practical dentist.