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Art. I.—LOSS OF INTERNATIONAL STEAMSHIPS.

PAPER ON THE RECENT LOSS OF TWELVE UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL STEAMSHIPS, AND THE STRANDING, PERIL, AND RESCUE OF THE THIRTEENTH—INSTRUCTIONS DUE TO THEIR PECULIAR HISTORY.

For three consecutive months, early in 1853, the "Pacific" waters uttered their voice of alarm and instruction, by the total loss of three valuable steamships, and the sacrifice of over one and one-fourth hundred lives of our citizens. It were possible the voice of spring, thus uttered, might be unheeded, and the last month of the retiring year utters again the Pacific's voice in the total loss of the "Winfield Scott," and the Atlantic's voice is heard through the "Humboldt" and the "San Francisco," affixing the seal to these instructions, *as to the improvident state of our steamships*, not only by the loss of these three valuable ships and much merchandise, but by the sacrifice of over two hundred lives, many of whom had entered the ranks of national usefulness, and national promotion to high responsibilities.

The sum total of 1853 makes five valuable steamships stranded and totally lost; one disabled, abandoned, and lost at sea; and with two out of the six, over three-and-a-half hundred valuable lives perished with the wrecks.

The Atlantic waters introduced the losses by this class of international steamships for 1854, and March utters her lesson by the "City of Glas-

gow," and about four hundred and eighty lives; July by the "Franklin," which is stranded and lost at the door of our harbor; September by the "City of Philadelphia," stranded and lost; and in hot haste the "Arctic," with hundreds of lives, sinks to rise no more. History can never portray the horrors and sorrows with which memory imbues the mind that has witnessed, or listened to the witnesses of, this sad catastrophe. Immediately succeeding these two September losses, the 1st of October speaks from the Pacific through the total wreck of the "Yankee Blade," and nearly half a hundred lives.

We sum up for 1854, three valuable steamships stranded and totally lost, with much of their very valuable cargoes; and one that sunk to bury its own history; and another that sunk to stamp its history indellibly upon the minds of the commercial world.

We have the sinking of the "North Carolina" in a few minutes after her collision, for April, 1855, and just before she reached her destination in a foreign port; also, in the same month, we have the stranding of the "Golden Age," and may we not hope that the lesson of her imminent peril, with eight hundred passengers, and (what is, perhaps, more significant to some) one-and-three-tenths millions of specie; with the fortunate and providential rescue of all, may prove a "golden" lesson to this "age," and the more especially since the projector and president of this line stood upon her decks an eye-witness of her perils, her exigencies, and her improvident state.

During a period of twenty-six months, twelve of this class of steamships were totally lost, and one more "scarcely" saved.

The nine *stranded* ships, at the time of their casualties, had an aggregate of over four-and-a-half thousand passengers, and adding crews, over five-and-a-half thousand persons. They also possessed a value in bottomry of over two-and-one-fourth millions, and in specie and merchandise of six-and-one-fourth millions; hence, a total of over eight-and-a-half millions of dollars was thus jeoparded.

The four sunk at sea *jeoparded* over sixteen hundred lives, and over two-and-a-half millions of property.

The thirteen *jeoparded* over seven thousand lives, and over eleven million dollars of property.

The twelve lost ships cover a total of over twelve-and-a-half hundred lives lost, and over three-and-one-fourth millions of bottomry, and over four millions of merchandise and specie, showing an aggregate of over seven-and-one-fourth million dollars of property *lost*.

The history of the four lost at sea is deeply written in the memory of all, except that of the "North Carolina," which sunk in British waters, and was hardly noticed by our daily press; nor will the history of the "San Francisco," the "City of Glasgow," and the "Arctic," be untold in the future, as among the sad calamities of steam Commerce.

These are among the great costly *experiments*, the expenses of which are diffused to a great extent by virtue of the system of marine underwriting among the mass of our commercial men, and if their important instructions are properly improved, notwithstanding their cost, they *will prove an advantage* and profit to our Commerce, but if *unimproved* they constitute a "dead loss" to individuals and to the nation.

A summary of the nine stranded steamships may be shown as follows:

Name.	Date.	Hour of day.	Locality, Atlantic and Pacific coast.	State of Weather.	State of Water.	Speed.	Remarks.
Independence	Feb. 16, 1853	5¼ A. M.	Reef, one mile from shore of Margaretta Island, off main land, north of Cape St. Lucas.	Light fog or clear.	Calm.	Usual rate.	Backed off the reef and, leaking badly, she was run four miles and beached in a sandy cove. One hundred and twenty-nine lives lost.
Tennessee.....	Mar. 6, 1853	9 A. M.	On Tagus Beach, 3 miles north of the "Heads," off San Francisco.	Thick fog.	Calm.	Standing off and on.	Struck at a small angle, and, swinging broad-side on shore, close inland, could not be got off.
S. S. Lewis	April 9, 1853	3 A. M.	Went ashore 3 miles north of Balinas Bay, ¼ mile from shore, and 4 miles from the wreck of the Tennessee.	Thick fog.	Calm.	Ordinary or moderate speed.	She was backed off and ran ashore on the beach, 100 yards distant. Totally lost by the breakers.
Winfield Scott....	Dec. 2, 1853	12 P. M.	Anacapa (or Enceapa) Island, off the coast of Santa Barbara.	Dense fog.	Calm.	Ordinary or moderate speed.	Not removed. Remained several days in same position, fast by her bow on the rock.
Humboldt	Dec. 6, 1853	— A. M.	Struck a reef off Sambro Light, below Halifax, N. Scotia.	Supposed dense fog.	Fair.		Backed off, and run ashore ten miles below Halifax, four or five feet water in hold.
Franklin.....	July 17, 1854	7¾ A. M.	Struck on an outer bar of Long Island Beach.	Dense fog.	Fair.	Full speed.	Could not be got off. First night drove over outer bar, and on to inner bar. Totally lost.
City of Philadel'a.	Sept. 7, 1854	11 P. M.	Struck a reef off Cape Race, New Foundland.	Dark and rainy.	Calm.	11 knots.	Backed off, and run seven-and-a half miles, to Chance Cove, where she was beached. Fires put out by leakage.
Yankee Blade ...	Oct. 1, 1854	3½ P. M.	Struck a reef, three-fourths of a mile from shore, off Point Arquillo. Weather calm, and could see shore plainly after the ship struck. Tried, with passengers aft, to back off; also with passengers forward; but could not. She struck running at full speed.				
Golden Age.....	April 29, 1855	2 A. M.	On reef off Island of Quicara, and opposite Island of Quibo, off Costa Rica.	Clear moon.	Calm.	14 knots.	Backed off, and run ashore in three miles distant cove. Saved and repaired.

THE STRANDING OF NINE STEAMSHIPS AVOIDABLE.

We may remark—

First. That these nine cases of *stranded* steamships were each and all *avoidable.*

It is plainly evident from the facts in each case that the respective ships struck the reefs or shores, that were to peril their life, in perfect obedience to the command, the helm, and the engine.

Two of these, the Independence and the Winfield Scott, seem to have been considerably out of their proper reckoning, and more especially the latter.

The Independence made land at one o'clock in the morning, when her true course was clear of all land at sea, yet the weather was fair and the sea calm, so that this departure from her true course was the more inexcusable.

The passengers censured the captain for the manner in which the ship was permitted to strike the reef, (the nearness to the island being known,) and say that the morning was perfectly clear, and that he was warned of the danger.

We find from this narrative, given by the captain, that he passed Cape St. Lucas on the morning of the 15th inst., and that at noon, from a copy of the "National Observatory Charts," she was close inland, and he says he was set inshore by the currents, though the breezes for that day were strong from N. W. to N., which would have inclined him a little off shore. He made main land east of Margaretta Island, at 1 A. M., 16th inst. Changed to S. W., and made the Island at 2 A. M., bearing W. by S. Altered to W. S. W., and at 5¼ A. M. struck within one mile from shore.

He touched at Acapulco. It is not, therefore, obviously excusable, *in fair weather*, to make the main land, one side of his course; but particularly when in waters unfrequented by steamships of deeper draft than the coasting cruiser, after he made the main land, *should he have run with all possible caution.*

The Winfield Scott, when about one-and-a-half days from the port of San Francisco, struck on Enceapa Island, and if at noon one day after she left she was fair on her course, it is very obvious that she made a wide digression from it during the next twelve hours, with a calm sea, though there was a dense fog at the time she struck. The *apology* is the one that is stereotyped in character—"the effects of currents must have contributed to the accident."

While, therefore, these two *wrecks might have been avoided*, it is not equally obvious that censure should not attach to them, for the lives of 600 passengers, and specie reckoned by the million, should not be *periled*, off from frequented routes, without a *justifiable* reason.

The Yankee Blade, ten months after the Winfield Scott was lost, followed too closely her example, and struck in mid-afternoon on Point Arguillo, to the northward of the tomb of the Winfield Scott. A passenger thought he saw land half an hour before she struck, to which the captain replied, "they were twenty miles from land." But the steamship Southerner, bound north, passed the Yankee Blade some time before she struck, and afterwards met the Goliah steamship, bound southerly, in the route due to the Yankee Blade, when the Southerner spoke the Goliah to keep a lookout for the Yankee Blade, as, from the course she was steering,

she would probably strike land. Hence the Goliah kept close in shore, and to her we must accredit hundreds of lives saved, which otherwise must have been inevitably lost.

Two others, the Tennessee and S. S. Lewis, were just north of the "Heads," off San Francisco, and the *want of common prudence* in the Tennessee in "laying off and on," from 3½ A. M. to 9 A. M., in a dense fog, within reach of a possible drift ashore, when the weather was fair for her to lay off clear of such possibility, *is too obvious* after the casualty. The S. S. Lewis should not have forgotten the lesson of the Tennessee, about one month previous, and have gone inexcusably ashore within a few miles of her.

Two others, the Humboldt and City of Philadelphia, were quite too far north of their due and safest course, unless it was their intention to visit Halifax, in which case the Humboldt was not far from her reckoning, and yet her casualty *was obviously avoidable by due caution*, when not under stress of weather *in approaching the land*. A reference to the chart routes for steamers, as given by Lieut. Maury, shows the City of Philadelphia considerably north of her due course. She had six days fair weather, *with good observations*, previous to the two cloudy days preceding her casualty, and it is proper to suppose, in that time, any variation of compasses *should have been correctly determined*.

The stranding of the Franklin was avoidable in different ways; and although her true course was approaching the coast, she was unduly near the shore; and the dense fog would have made reliance upon her lead more essential, whilst it would have certainly warned her of her danger.

The stranding of the Golden Age was easily avoidable, had she kept fairly outside of the small island of Quicara. The shortest route inside of the island, after passing the island of Montuosa, cuts closely the N. W. point of Quicara and the southernmost point of the island of Quibo. With a good moon-light morning, and calm waters, the extreme caution always due to a narrow channel hedged about by reefs, would seem to have rendered this casualty perfectly avoidable, even in the channel between the islands.

History will say to the future that not one of these ships was unavoidably lost. Not one of them was injured when in her proper place—no thundering storm or lightning's darts—no unwelcome or overpowering winds harmed them or drove them from their routes of safety; but under the most perfect obedience to the command, to the helm, and the engine, they were imprudently stranded; and these facts are living witnesses to teach the consequences of the non-observance of all possible caution, and its absolute necessity as a means of universal safety.

IMPROVIDENT CHARACTER OF THESE STEAMSHIPS.

We may properly notice—

Second. That after each collision, each respective ship was unprovided for such a casualty.

Seven of the nine stranded vessels struck their *bows on*, and received *there* their chief damage.

The Independence struck her bow on, and tried to get a sail forward and under her bow to stop the leak. The facts as to the S. S. Lewis are very incomplete, but it is probable she struck her bow on, as it is said,

"she backed off and touched her stern, and was run ashore on the beach." The Winfield Scott struck her bow on, then her stern, then with her side, carrying away her rudder. As she finally fastened upon the rocks and lay for several days, (eight-and-a-half days or more,) she had eight fathoms water under her stern. The Humboldt struck her bow on, and it was broken off from the "11 ft." mark down, and ten or fifteen feet of the keel gone—bottom perfect except the bow. The City of Philadelphia struck a rock on her port bow near her cutwater, having deep water on all sides. She broke a hole in the bottom of her bow, and turned about eight feet of her stem. Tried to stop the hole with oakum and blankets. The Yankee Blade struck her bow and slid some distance upon the rock, with stern in deep water (nine fathoms.) Her stern sunk rapidly, and it is not improbable but that she was considerably strained amidship, for in fourteen-and-a-half hours both guards broke forward of her wheel-house, and during the second night, or between thirty and forty hours after her collision, she went to pieces. Lastly, the Golden Age struck her bows fair and full, "brooming" her stern badly, having two-and-a-half fathoms forward and seventeen fathoms amidship and aft. Into this breach the water rushed rapidly, causing her to settle aft when she backed off. She now steered wildly, coming to too much, she struck a second time. Probably at this second time, the damage afterward discovered along her bilge and under her fire-room, was received.

It is very obvious, that generally the bow of a ship is first exposed, and more generally much the most exposed part of the ship.

We may rationally conclude from these facts—practical lessons as they are—that strong bulkheads forming water-tight bow compartments were absolutely essential to the safety of these seven ships.

But it is not sufficiently evident that such bulkheads alone would have been absolutely sufficient to have saved them. The experiment of the Vesta with the Arctic would warrant the belief that the Independence and the Humboldt would have been saved by such provisions. The City of Philadelphia was built of iron, and this language is used in regard to her: "The forward compartment of the hold was soon filled to the water-line, and she had hardly got into shallow water ere the second compartment was flooded." No reason is supposable why the forward compartment should be tight to the water-line, and not sufficiently above that line to meet any extra immersion due to the filling of this compartment.

Had the Golden Age been thus provided, the rush of waters that possessed all with fear would not in like manner have occurred, and she would have backed away from the reef, and with much more care have avoided those after damages due to the second collision.

The Winfield Scott hung her bows upon the rocks for eight-and-a-half days—and how much longer we are not told—but it is probable that she needed other remedies conjointly with this, in order to have saved her. It is more than probable that the S. S. Lewis and Yankee Blade received serious midship strains at the time of their collision, so that from the insufficient accounts in detail of their actual damage, there are many doubts whether common remedies would have saved them.

I am aware that the necessity for water-tight compartments is to a certain extent beginning to be met by ship-builders. The City of Philadelphia had her water-tight compartments, but was lost, while such compartments saved the Vesta. The Persia—the mammoth iron "Cunarder"—

has her seven water-tight compartments; so has the Arago, and the Fulton (soon to be launched) their several water-tight compartments; so, too, the Adriatic, whose keel now stretches her long length upon the stocks, will probably have them. But it is proper to know by the instructive wisdom of the past, ere it is too late, if these are being developed in their best, reliable, and required manner.

Third. The improvident state of our steamships is further shown by these experiments, in the absence of adequate and reliable steam pumping apparatus.

The inadequacy of pumping apparatus by steam power is seen in the short time in which the fires of the Independence, City of Philadelphia, and Golden Age were extinguished, and in the steady rise of the water in the Humboldt, the Winfield Scott, and the S. S. Lewis.

These cases also furnish the evidence of the irreliable character of their steam power for these purposes.

When the ship is perfectly seaworthy and uninjured, there is little necessity for the use of pumps; but this does not militate against an absolute necessity when she is strained and leaky in any of her many timbers and planks, or iron plates. And pumps that are adequate for a sound ship, *are not adequate* for a damaged ship. Here are eight stranded ships that confirm this truth, (and the San Francisco and the Arctic add two experiments to the truth.)

There is no mechanical use to which steam power has ever been so economically applied as to pumping. The actual duty of raising three thousand tons of water twenty feet high—sufficient to discharge any ordinary ship—has been performed by one hundred and twelve pounds of coal. But this is a much more perfect use of steam and fuel than is possible on shipboard, and for these emergencies. All that is required to discharge water from the hold of any ship, is simply to lift the atmosphere from a vertical pump cylinder, (just as we would pump by hand for any height under 32 feet,) and the water will flow out by the pressure of the atmosphere upon the water outside of the pump. Therefore, the most simple pump possible for this purpose is the most effectual, economical, and desirable.

The duty of raising water from a vessel, according to the rapid influx of water after a collision, is in character like raising water from a mine in great quantities to a like height—though we may not wait to use the steam so economically upon the vessel; hence, to introduce for such duty the "jim-crack pumps" of the day, (if we may be allowed the expression, without condemning them for other duties,) is just as absurd and detrimental, as it would be to introduce them into the European drainage duty. Hence, the quantity and rapidity with which water may be raised from the hold of a vessel need only be limited, in our steamships, by the capacity of pumps and their connecting machinery—the pumps being on the simple principles used a thousand years ago.

Fourth. We must next consider that a reliable steam power is just as essential as adequate pumps.

The fires of the Independence were extinguished whilst she could run four miles under extra steam pressure generated by wood and boards. The Humboldt was run ashore with four or five feet of water in her hold —the time after her collision is not given—soon after she struck. The City of Philadelphia's fires were extinguished after a run of seven-and-a-

half miles; and the Golden Age's in about half that time. The fires of the Arctic were all out in less than an hour. Here, then, are five experiments teaching the absolute necessity of an adequate furnace, protected and available under any influx of water, though she be filled to her upper decks.

Had the first four cases been a little further from land than their actual distance, in which they were scarcely saved, then, with their sum of 2,000 passengers, they might have quadrupled the horrors and sorrows of the Arctic.

But there are good and valid reasons to show that these four lost ships might have been saved if each had had pumps adequate to her tonnage, with reliable steam power.

Again, with adequate pumps, not extravagantly large and reliable steam power, it cannot be denied but that the Arctic *might*, and probably would have been saved. This idea will be received skeptically; and the limits proper for this paper will not allow the presentment of the considerations due to the Arctic's case, or to the other cases, adding that of the Golden Age. I may partially present some general considerations.

1. If we estimate the number of cubic feet of water due to the hold of the ship until the fires would be extinguished, deducting the solid building materials and other solids pre-occupying much of the space, and it is an easy duty, common duty of a small steam power to discharge this quantity of water in the respective times in which it was received into the ship. It is absurd to suppose that such a duty as this will be performed through the small pipes of our common force-pumps. If it is desirable to sacrifice these noble ships, and the hundreds of our fellow-citizens they carry, and to grossly squander the steam power for the economy of the space due to adequate pumps in which the water may flow freely from the ship's hold under the single pressure of the atmosphere, then reasoning in such a case is vain.

2. Again, adequate pumps and reliable steam power are absolutely essential to proper efforts to stop the holes or leakages in cases of collision.

I have mentioned four experiments which sustain this truth. The time expended in the cases of the Independence, City of Philadelphia, Arctic, and Golden Age, in attempting to get sails over the bows to stop the leaks, and also by other means in the case of the City of Philadelphia and the Arctic, was in each case but a short time, and it was less than thirty minutes in the Arctic's case. The hurry, alarm, and confusion during these few minutes almost necessarily precludes proper efforts. Each case needed more time, needed better preparations, needed a fair and well-arranged trial—perhaps needed more trials than one, or two, or three. Well-designed efforts only could have answered; but these they could not have without reliance upon adequate pumps and steam power. Fractured parts, sinking inward or projecting from the surface, and eddies and counter-currents about the holes, may prevent the materials from going home to the holes, or the sails from reaching or hugging the sides of the holes —and such difficulties can only be met by trials, and overcome by persevering efforts.

But such proper efforts could not be made, for these stranded ships had, nominally, nothing to rely upon but the beach. No idea seemed to exist

upon the Arctic that she would float nine times as long as they were attempting to stop the leaks.

The construction of the sides and ends of the ship at and near the bottom, together with the pre-occupancy of much of the inside bottom space of the ship by solids, render the first influx of waters apparently much greater than they afterward prove to be, when the diminutive tonnage capacity of the bottom of the hold is even so quickly filled as to produce considerable alarm; and yet neither of these four steamers received 1,000 tons of water per hour, whilst a 21-inch cylinder, having a continuous flow of water at the velocity of these steamers' pistons, would discharge from their holds 1,000 tons of water per hour—requiring but a small part of their power of steam. Such pump cylinders can be constructed so as to be used as water-tanks, though available as pumps the moment such an exigency should arise.

3. With adequate pumps and reliable power, these stranded ships could approach the shores where they were beached, and have cast anchors from their stern, when they could have made suitable efforts to have temporarily repaired their damages. With such reliances, the confusion and alarm that resulted in the burning of the Independence would have been avoided.

Again, with such means the evidences of the shamefully improvident state of the Humboldt would not be put upon the pages of history, to contrast with the otherwise noble ship. Parties in New York to a very valuable ship and 1,319 packages of valuable goods, or their underwriters, are instructed by telegraph from Halifax that "pumps would be of service, but there are none here." Again, parties at Halifax, as agents or interested owners, are instructed by telegraph, that since pumps, steam pumps, would be of service on a damaged or leaky ship, they shall be started by a special steamer from New York. Two days, or forty-eight hours, after the casualty, and four or five days after the ship has suffered for the want of them, they will reach the ship ten miles below Halifax!

But parties in New York are further instructed by telegraph from the ship, "that if they [the pumps] should arrive whilst the wind continued to blow from the south, as it then did, that the ship could be freed from water, and taken up to Halifax."

To expect that Providence would insure fair weather and south winds for several days, that the neglect of sending the Humboldt and such steamships abroad upon the Atlantic without adequate and reliable pumps, might be covered, and the ship saved, is expecting more than prudent men, and a want of sagacity on the part of underwriters, are justified in expecting. Hence, the noble Humboldt was lost.

In another view of this case and her improvident state, we learn that a day-and-a-half after her collision, her damage—excepting the flooding of cargo by water for want of pumps—consisted in her bow being "broken off from the 11 ft. mark down, and about ten or fifteen feet of her keel gone." "Bottom perfect except the bow." Taking this actual damage, fair weather, and calm sea, into account, and had she had adequate pumps, it would be insulting an able commander to say that she would not have been taken to Halifax—her cargo saved undamaged, and the ship repaired.

The City of Philadelphia's Diver's and Engineer's Report thus describes her damage: "An iron plate started off the whole breadth and turned

back three or four inches." "Two other plates either started or carried away." "She had about eight feet of her stem (iron) turned." With adequate pumps, reliable so that fears as to her fires might not have alarmed them, and it is evident that with temporary aid by sails over her bows, she could have gone to St. John's, N. F., in safety.

In the case of the Golden Age, temporary pumps had to be constructed and worked by hand.

Troops and passengers on the San Francisco labored by "baling gangs," as a poor substitution for steam pumps, until the ship was so much lightened as not to need them.

The Arctic had three holes pierced through her side—two below the water, and one about 18 inches above. The surveying officers thus describe the largest of the two below the surface of the water about two feet, "to be $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet in length, and 1 or $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet in width." Now, if we take $1\frac{1}{4}$ feet as the average width of this largest hole, and suppose the smaller hole (size not given) to be half this size, then the two would equal 1,485 square inches. This area, clear and free, would admit 8,000 tons of water per hour; hence, her timbers were not cut away, and the area for the influx of water was by no means so large as was represented; and with adequate pumps, the hole above, and both holes below the water, could then have been temporarily repaired at once, and the Arctic could have been saved.

It is possible that adequate and reasonable pumps might have saved the City of Glasgow. But all is speculation in regard to her; but her loss, with nearly 500 lives, without our knowing by what means she might possibly have been saved, is an admonition which cannot be slighted to warn us to adopt every possible means of safety.

From these several considerations, enforced by these heavy losses of life and property, guilt certainly must attach to our commercial men if our steamships are sent forth without reasonably adequate pumps and an adequate furnace to work them, protected from any influx of water.

Fifth. The instructions by virtue of the loss of the Tennessee and the Franklin, are of a somewhat different character; yet they show a required provision in addition to the means of safety we have before considered.

The Tennessee drifted broadside on shore and was lost; and for want of reliable facts, which, so far as they go, render her case similar to that of the Franklin, we shall not further examine her case separately.

The case of the Franklin is peculiarly instructive, and shows forcibly the unavailable character of our system of marine propulsion in times of trouble, and its inefficiency of propulsion.

The Franklin, in July, 1853, struck the sandy beach of Long Island while running at a small angle to it, so that she lay nearly broadside on. For several hours after the Franklin struck the bar, she made no water, and made none beyond the control of her pumps for 24 hours; hence, she passed two high tides, having full control of her steam. But all this time her powerful engines were of little or no service nominally, and their propelling power to back her off was not equal to the strength of a single hawser, though the power upon her pistons was equal to that of 2,000 horses. The great power of steam she possessed within herself she needed above all things else to move her off; but it was wasted, just as a powerful dog wastes his muscular strength in swimming. To a "horse-power" upon her piston, she had but about half an oar blade's surface of paddle

to act upon the water; that is, the water could only resist a horse-power of her engine half as much as it resists a man's power in rowing, or to a man's strength upon her piston, she only has a surface action upon the water equal to the flat of a man's hand. Hence, she could paddle constantly and waste her power, just as a man would paddle in a row-boat with his hand to move her off the beach, or with an oar the blade of which was the size of his hand.

The sacrifice of such a ship, free from leakages for some time, on an easy, sandy beach, with a power inherent in herself to have moved her off at once, or at the farthest, by the first high tide—a power against which the surf was nothing, should arouse in commercial men a spirit of investigation—for knowledge is power—that they may know *why* her powerful engines were so perfectly useless. It is a question of far more than ordinary importance; but it is not my purpose here to answer it. Commercial men cannot treat it indifferently, else the loss of another Franklin and another Tennessee will teach them the consequences of delay.

The arrival of several steamtugs off the Franklin about a day-and-a-half after her casualty, when every surf was rendering her position worse and worse, unable to attach a single hawser to her, shows the worthlessness of such aid sometimes, and oftentimes, and the fallacy of relying upon it. But, like the Franklin's own propellers, they, too, are feeble; for any two of the average of them might have tugged hour after hour through a single new hawser, and their highly respectable engines could waste their power in the currents of water they produced. But they were sent back, unable to save her or to assist her.

It is unnecessary for me in this paper to go further into the history of this noble ship.

Investigation, fair investigation, will prove *why* the Franklin, so to speak, was as "helpless as a fish out of water;" why she was lost. I say fair or consistent investigation will show this. *Exparte* investigation may have no tendency to show it. The captain had a reputation to defend; the builders of her engines and propelling machinery have a high reputation to defend—both, therefore, will "speak soft words" and "soothing counsel" to those who sustain her financial loss; but the ship dies an easy death on their hands. Her noble hull lies day after day on the sand to have her strong timbers and irons rocked slowly asunder, that her easy yet certain death may charge home upon her financiers the imperfections of her propelling system.

The officers in command and men at her helm are responsible for her departure from her route of safety; but when once upon the beach, however inexcusable the cause, it does not save the ship.

Therefore, another responsibility accrues, and that responsibility now rests with her powerful energy of steam upon her pistons to save the ship. No destructive storm or wind drove her here upon the beach—her officers, helmsmen, and engines drove her there; no destructive storm or wind now troubles her. An inland current of two-and-a-half knots per hour and the ocean surf alone trouble her. But what are these to the mighty power upon her pistons? Look at the tremendous strength of her propelling beams!—smaller or less strong levers could not resist the mighty motive energy actuating her pistons. Be careful further to observe, that if the friction due to her removal from her bed of sand with the receding cur-

rent from the surf, equals the strength of a single hawser, the mighty energy actuating her pistons cannot remove the ship, cannot save her.

The strength of her piston levers, or working beams, are measured in weight of metal by tens of tons; but the motive power which requires this strength is so wasted—shamefully wasted—that its resultant action upon the ship does not equal the strength of a hawser.

The loss of the Franklin was a very costly experiment to test the merits of our steam propelling system—to test its mechanical merits. But the failure of this experiment is a more degrading failure than that of the experiment by the Ericsson. Here we have a known power, and cannot develop it in the motion of the ship. The Ericsson experiment simply attempted to *generate* the known power which the Franklin possessed. The Franklin experiment had a known power and known data well established; the Ericsson experiment had only the laboratory experiments of chemists as data upon which to establish or develop a motive power equal or superior to the Franklin's power, or the power of steam. The Ericsson experiment was foolish or impolitic in its so costly design upon uncertain data; the Franklin experiment must be very costly—perhaps it must be repeated, in order to fix or draw the attention of the men who sustain her losses, or their agents or representatives, to these facts which I have stated.

The Tennessee taught the same lesson and the same failure. She drifted slowly on to a narrow beach between two high cliffs; she gradually worked herself into the sand and could not be removed. Could this fine ship have used her steam power, as every ship ought to be enabled to use it, she could at once have extricated herself.

These two important cases show a necessity for a reform. They prove a failure to discover any merit in our mechanical system adapted to their exigencies. But the Tennessee and the Franklin are lost, and they discover, too late for their own relief, the extraordinary inefficiency of their propelling system.

If we pass from the nine stranded steamships to the other four totally lost, we notice the third class of experiments.

The San Francisco, City of Glasgow, Arctic, and North Carolina, each and all were unprovided for their respective exigencies.

There was such a combination of causes in the case of the San Francisco, that a pointed lesson to any one cause may be evaded by making the other causes the "scape-goat."

One thing is obvious to all who belonged to her "bailing gangs," organized soon after she encountered the storm, that her two "donkey pumps" and her hand pumps, were in no proper idea adequate to the casualties such ships are heir to. She was, not long after, greatly lightened by the loss of much of her upper works, and, sorrowful to tell, by the loss of many lives—one hundred or more persons by a single wave—so that her "bailing gangs" were thus relieved.

On the afternoon before she met her fatal storm off Cape Hatteras, with all sails furled and calm sea, she made eight-and-a-half knots per hour. She was inefficient—not for want of power of steam, for she had a sufficiency at her command to have known no harm from such a storm—because the power of her steam was unavailable. But various causes intermingle, in properly considering this fact, inconsistent with the limits of this paper, and I leave the subject.

What, if anything, could have saved the City of Glasgow, is shrouded in mystery, and the inquiry can only be answered speculatively. Nevertheless, we may not neglect for every such steamship each and every precaution, or preparatory provision, against disaster due to any other known causes, for any one of them, or all such provisions, might possibly have saved her 500 lives, cargo, and ship.

The Arctic came in collision with the Vesta. Wisdom had foreseen the liability of the Vesta to such a disaster, and prudently provided her for it, and she was saved. Her "bows were completely carried away;" hence, the captain of the Arctic, judging from the improvident state of his own, otherwise more noble, ship, supposed she would sink instantly; but she was lightened forward, and made some additions to, and strengthened her bulkhead, when she made her nearest port, St. John's, N. F., for full repairs, in safety.

A much less apparent damage was received by the Arctic, but she sunk in four-and-three-quarters hours. I have before spoken of her holes, of her want of pumps, of the great relief reasonably adequate pumps and reliable steam-power would have rendered her. Indeed, it cannot be denied, but that such pumps as she ought to have carried might have saved her; it is rather reasonable and probable, to any person who fully understands her actual damages and the pumping power of steam, that appropriate pumps—appropriate to her tonnage, to her dangers, and simple in construction—would have given confidence to officers and crew and citizen passengers, so that appropriate efforts would have been made to stop her leaks, and that such efforts would have been successful, for her holes below the water are not described as forbidding to any person who understands, or can explain, the difficulties attending their stoppage.

It is true, that with two twenty-inch vertical cylinder pumps, each working at half the velocity of the Arctic's pistons, with reliable steam-power to have lifted the air from them, there is no improbability but that the Arctic, and the lives she sacrificed, would have been saved.

To fully repeat the description of her holes, and review the inadequate efforts to stop them, I find will be too lengthy for this paper, yet there are instructions from a full examination that ought to be imparted to all commercial men and the traveling public.

Why was the Arctic lost? Set aside the questions arising from the fog of nature, from the management and competency of life-boats, and why did she make a premature watery grave to herself and hundreds of the beloved and noble-hearted from among us? Pass these questions—instructive questions if analyzed—as the news items of the day are passed! pass them *unimproved* or *misimproved*, and repetition—fearful repetition—will stamp our commercial men as incompetent to the exigencies of the age!

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS.

We have shown the stranding of nine steamships, with the total loss of eight of them and the imminent peril of the ninth, and the total loss of four other steamships at sea.

The general instructions drawn from the nine stranded ships are—

1. That each and every casualty to these nine stranded ships was *avoidable.* Hence, the loss of each of the eight ships, and the peril and damage to the ninth, constitute a breach of trust to a certain degree, or an evidence of incompetency, or want of prudence and vigilance, on the part

of the captain, or under officers, or the helmsmen, respectively or conjointly. It is obvious that the captain's orders may be strictly correct, and their imperfect execution may cause the casualty; or the orders may be slightly incorrect, and their perfect execution may cause the casualty.

2. That the fact that all of these casualties occurred during the late night or early morning hours—from 11 P. M. to 9 A. M.—excepting that of the Yankee Blade, teaches a necessity for particular vigilance and prudence in the commands, and execution of commands, during the "dead hours" of the day.

Hence, proper prudence should always teach the commander, under officers, and pilots, that if there is the least possible inclination or deviation in the commands, or execution of commands, from a strict chart course of safety, or if there are doubts as to the strict course, that the inclination, deviation, or action, in doubtful cases, should always be on the side of safety, or seaward, and never on the side of hazard.

3. We learn the improvident state of this class of steamships; or that after each collision each respective ship was unprovided for such a casualty.

Also, that neither of these stranded ships need have been lost after the collision, had they been well provided, excepting the S. S. Lewis and Yankee Blade, and possibly the Winfield Scott.

These thirteen cases show the improvident state of our steamships in four classes, three of which are remedied. Eleven out of these thirteen cases show the absolute necessity of remedial. Eleven out of the thirteen experiments were failures on the part of the steamships to show themselves provided—reasonably well provided—for the dangers of ocean navigation.

Eleven out of the thirteen point out and teach the nature and practical character of the remedies; and they teach the probable success of these remedies in eleven-thirteenths of these casualties.

They also teach the almost certain success of these remedies in nine out of the eleven *probable* cases.

The first class embraces the positive instruction of nine of the ships out of the thirteen as to the necessity of reasonably adequate pumps, (not one of the ships possessed them,) and reliable steam-power, (unknown to every ship.)

This necessity was absolute and independent in the case of the Arctic; it may have been so also in the case of the City of Glasgow. This remedy is conjointly necessary and shown immediately after the casualty, in the cases of the Independence, S. S. Lewis, Winfield Scott, Humboldt, San Francisco, City of Philadelphia, Yankee Blade, and Golden Age.

The second class embraces the positive instruction of four cases out of the twelve, as to the absolute necessity of bulk-heads, forming water-tight bow compartments. These bulk-heads should be high enough to protect the hull of the ship from the influx of water, in any case of flooding this compartment. These cases were the Independence, Humboldt, City of Philadelphia, and Golden Age.

It is extremely probable that this necessity was absolute in the case of the City of Glasgow.

It was a remedy conjointly necessary in the cases of the S. S. Lewis and the Winfield Scott.

The third class embraces the positive instructions of the Tennessee and

the Franklin, as to the insufficiency of the propelling mechanism to remove a ship from a sandy beach, sound in all their parts, under the full virtue of their steam-power.

This class embraces, also, instruction from the Independence, Humboldt, and Golden Age, conjointly with the other necessities ascribed to them, to show the rapid diminution of the propelling power of their wheels, by the increased depth of immersion due to the influx of water to their holds. If we suppose that these ships had been a little beyond the reach of land, and the Arctic nearly within the reach of land, then the rapid loss of power required to propel them ashore, by the quickly increased depth of immersion, would have become an important consideration.

The fourth class has the single case of inevitable loss—that of the North Carolina. To this question, her essential history, so far as I have seen it, is thus written:—"A collision took place between her and the ship Robert, and from the severe damage the steamer sunk in deep water in ten minutes." Therefore, none of the remedies we have considered would have possibly saved this ship, except her damages had been like those to the French steamer Vesta, which was damaged by the Arctic carrying away her bows, so that she would have sunk in ten minutes, excepting for her bulk-head, which saved her.

In view of these costly experiments, their most obvious instructions, and the considerations of their easy, reasonable, and practical remedies, (excepting the remedy for the Tennessee and the Franklin, which is not here investigated,) proprietors of steamships, builders and commanders, traders, underwriters, the Chamber of Commerce, the traveling public, and the community at large, should utter, as with one voice, the recommendation of every probable remedy; and much more imperatively the adoption of these most obvious remedies.

This voice should be heard in relation to every steamship in process of building, or which shall be built, that these remedies may be inwrought into her, just as necessarily as her keel or her masts. The imprudence—gross imprudence—of sending a steamship on her ocean exposures without these remedies for her common dangers, is not secondary to the obvious imprudence of sending them without masts and riggings. Indeed, the case of the Collins steamer Atlantic is the only important experiment I now call to mind since the establishment of that line of our international steamships where this provision was absolutely essential and available to safety.

It is also highly proper to recommend and urge the adoption of these remedies, so far as possible, as fixtures to our present steamships; and so far as adequate remedies are impracticable as fixtures, that they should be provided as temporary resources. This may be practically carried out by every steamship to a very greatly increased safety over their present dangerous predicaments.

The success attending temporary remedies, a temporary bulk-head and temporary pumps, constructed after the Golden Age's disaster, urges and enforces the considerations not only, as we have shown, for permanent remedies, but for temporary remedies to every steamship afloat, where fixed remedies may not consistently, in full or in part, be provided. So far as permanent fixtures should greatly incommode the present arrangement of the ships in the "lines," they can be made and fitted temporarily so as to be, to a great degree, available in case of need. Had the Golden

Age have had ingenious, judicious, and wise prerequisites for her casualty, how greatly would she have been relieved from the extreme peril that hovered over her!

I have before spoken of the Persia, but we should not pass the Arago, nor the more modern Fulton, soon to be launched upon our waters—the latter showing the most improved development yet made by American skill for protective buoyancy in case of damage by collision, and for protection to her fires and machinery; but these are only primary steps, and, though valuable independently, they are essential conjointly with the other remedies shown and demonstrated by this series of varied experiments, all of which should be thoroughly and reliably investigated, and properly developed—reliably developed—ere Commerce shall have added to her debit account millions again expended to enforce by repetition her imperative instructions.

My chief object is to show a necessity for remedies in a large majority of these losses, and the very practical character of the remedies.

This series of experiments, consecrated by Providence to the advance of Commerce by the sacrifice of ship after ship, are endowed with no ordinary lessons of wisdom; and shame and folly will stamp their index upon the commercial organizations that shall let them pass unheeded and unimproved.

These thirteen steamships had over seven thousand lives on board, and sacrificed, as a tribute to the importance of these events, over twelve-and-a-half hundred lives, or 18 per cent of all; while many others were saved as by "hair-breadth" escape.

Independent of this invaluable sacrifice of life, they possessed a tangible value in property of over eleven million dollars, and sacrificed, as a tribute to the elevation of Commerce, over seven-and-one-fourth million dollars, or 66 per cent of all.

Let the constituents to this loss calculate the labor and time due to the recovery of this amount by the net profits on their succeeding business, and if possessed of sound financial talent they may appreciate the propriety, if not the necessity, of devoting some labor and time to obviate the embarrassments due to such heavy losses.

It is to-day truly said that more than seven-and-one-fourth million dollars have been expended, within two-and-a-half years, through a single class of steamships, to show practical men, and underwriters and their constituents, the wisdom of introducing remedies to stop these disastrous losses, for they will continue to occur until remedied by them; or it is truly said that we are appropriating two million nine hundred thousand dollars annually to educate our most sagacious Wall-street and South-street financiers as to the true relation of improvident steamships to the dangers of the sea; and it is highly proper to ask them which alternative they will now adopt, whether they will learn from the past and remedy these losses, or whether they will appropriate two-and-nine-tenths million dollars for the lessons of the coming year of steamship casualties.

Owners of ships and merchandise may look to, and fall back upon, underwriters, and underwriters may look to, and fall back upon, a high tariff of premiums, but these enormous losses will attach somewhere, however subdivided, and they are "dead losses" to the commercial community, and especially to the underwriting constituency; and they will be a lasting stain upon the energies of our commercial men, a perpetual shame upon

their neglect to profit by "precept upon precept," as enforced by example after example, if such teachings are not speedily embodied into practice, and if reform does not speedily elevate the system above these sad and frequent calamities.

IMPROVIDENT CHARACTER OF FIRST-CLASS CANVAS-SHIPS.

Two other considerations should be urged:—

1. In relation to our canvas-ships; they, too, are sent forth improvident in relation to the dangers of the sea.

Ship after ship is stranded and lost—ship after ship founders at sea—ship after ship is abandoned on account of leakages, and a fearful number are lost and never heard from. These are *common* casualties, and the remedies are alike *common*. We can meet these exigencies only by steam-power. We must elevate and improve our steam system. Then steam will be as economical to the canvas-ship as masts and rigging are to the steamship; and steam will be more absolutely essential to first-class canvas-ships than sails are to steamships—indeed, it will be much more so. This question cannot here be fully examined, but it should never be dismissed until the reform it contemplates shall be fully established. This reform cannot be established upon the present system of using steam, because it does not meet the exigencies of our steamships, and it cannot meet the demand due to the intelligence of the age, until it is elevated by a radical reform; hence, until then it cannot meet the exigencies of our canvas-ships.

There is an imperative call for a radical reform in steam and canvas ships, for their protection from disasters, and their increased efficiency, based upon the instructive fact that for the two-and-a-half years last past, the tax upon the insured has not indemnified the insurers. That is, the "tariff of premium rates," which the judgment or conscience of the Board of Underwriters would allow them to inflict upon the insured, has been insufficient to meet the losses upon the property insured. The aggregate losses suffered during the last financial year of the respective companies of the Board exceed twelve million dollars. Or if we take the published annual statements of several of the best established and most prosperous companies of the Board, they show that the relation of assets to liabilities (as represented by premiums) has been materially lessened since the close of the year 1852. They also show that the aggregate deficiency in assets, or the amount essential to make the assets bear as favorable a per centage or relation to the liabilities on policies, as represented by premiums, January 1, 1855, by the Atlantic, Atlas, and Union; October 15, 1854, by the Sun; April 4, 1854, by the Mercantile; July 1, 1854, by the Commercial, and March 15, 1855, by the New York, as at the beginning of these financial years, ending at said dates, exceeds two million three hundred and sixty thousand dollars. Or, deducting the increased amount of "certificates" issued on the business of the preceding year over the amount of "certificates" paid from the assets at the close of the preceding year, and the interest at 6 per cent on the increased amount of "certificates," and the deficit for the years ending as above, exceeds one million eight hundred and sixty thousand dollars; which amount is an aggregate loss to said companies, or to their real public standing. Hence, the insured have not sustained for these years, by a large amount, their underwriters. Obviously, the virtue of these facts should be manifested to investigate

their cause, to remove their cause, to instruct as to their proper remedy, and to reform the disastrous system by the absolutely essential improvements.

2. In relation to the fearful loss of life, or *inhumanity* of our present systems.

It is humane to take measures to save life after ships are hopelessly wrecked, from such ships as may come within the reach of aid along our coasts, such aid as "Life Saving Associations" and government may or can render. But this is a short arm of relief, and can only be extended to a few out of the many cases; and further it is always too late. These measures established and approved are proper as the ultimatum of all other means.

How much more essential and rational is it to put a remedy or remedies on board of every valuable or passenger ship. Save the ship from coastwise dangers and disasters, from the damages of threatening and overpowering storms, from the waters which rise up within her, and you save cargo, in full or chiefly, and the thousands of lives now prematurely buried in the ocean grave. The losses of one year are under the common causes of the losses of another year. The horrors of total shipwrecks this year will be but a repetition of those of last year. The facts may be more fearful and lamentable, yet we hope otherwise. The obvious and practical remedies which the past teaches would have saved the ships, had they been devised and available, will now and hereafter save them if devised and appropriated.

Can any man of good sense, understanding, and judgment in these matters, say they cannot be remedied? Most certainly not. The obvious character required, the certain efficiency, and the practical and available nature of the remedies, will condemn him as wanting either in practical understanding or sound judgment in these matters. Any one may say what has not been done—we all say it to our shame and regret—but every one should beware how he says that such things as are required cannot be done. Better say—"What ought to be done can and shall be done." If we reason from the inactivity and disregard of these exigencies by the past, and their patience under sufferings, and doom the future Commerce to like sufferings, we reason from instructive lessons and premises to shameful and degrading conclusions.

I am aware that certain commercial questions have been discussed, conclusions and instructions set forth. The large number of vessels abandoned at sea has caused the reasons for and against *scuttling* them to be investigated. For so much as the Navy Department of our government has performed directly for the interests of our mercantile marine, we have cordially extended thanks; and the wise supervisory management by Lieut. Maury has been appreciated and acknowledged.

But greater questions and greater improvements remain to be determined and established, because the casualties and exigencies of our ships remain to proclaim them essential to Commerce's higher prosperity.

In view of the facts embodied herewith it is not an unimportant consideration to know if the Representative Board—elected and sustained by the commercial men and interests of our city and country to protect individual losses by a proper tariff of taxes upon all, thereby to extend the greatest possible encouragement and sustaining influences to our mercantile marine—shall prove to be the "undertakers" (Oceanic Cemetery Un-

dertakers) of the real and highest interests of Commerce, by their passivity under these astonishing facts.

Individual interests and enterprises, whether sent forth by the strong arm of steam, or with their wings to the wind, to contest with the dangers of every sea, except for the protection by this great financial reservoir of Wall-street, would long since, by their own imperative necessities, have protected themselves against these common losses by introducing their common remedies. But their duty and responsibility is transferred, and they are taxed on account of the transfer; hence, their otherwise obvious duty of looking after, preventing, and protecting themselves against these common casualties rests upon their Representative Board of Underwriters.

This Representative Board has a combination of interests to look after, and they have adequate resources of facts and of knowledge which none others equally possess; therefore, the principle of transfer of responsibility to representatives is good. The Board which assumes the transfer of trusts assumes the responsibilities due to the system. I believe, therefore, that they cannot be passive to these common casualties, and be blameless. Their direct prosperity and the higher interests of their constituents forbid it, and the enormous sum of their aggregate losses, under which they now groan and are burdened, forbids it. Let us cherish the hope that they will recover from their lethargy, that an agency for reform shall be known on their part, that that sanitary influence which they above all others can extend and develop may be felt and its blessings enjoyed.

Although this paper ascribes the great responsibility of the present imperfect system, and the responsibilities due to a reform, to the Board of Marine Underwriters and our practical commercial men, it is thus placed with all deference to the Chamber of Commerce. This "Chamber" is New York's *honorary body of commercial men*, and the improvident state of our steam and canvas marine look to this body as their ultimate hope that sanitary influences may recover them from the "plague spots" under which they now suffer; and that they may now cast upon our marine Commerce the mantle of their honorary influences, that the practical servants of Commerce shall not sleep while the storm of shipwrecks is rushing over them, and that their popular influence may be felt to prompt, to demand and insure proper action on the part of the commercial enterprises and organizations of the day. H. B.

Art. II.—THE SEVENTH UNITED STATES CENSUS.

THE last publication of the Census Bureau at Washington, an octavo volume of 400 closely-printed pages, entitled a "Compendium of the Seventh United States Census," lies before us. Of all the publications of the office, this is the best and most reliable, since it contains nearly all the matter of the quarto presented in its most concentrated form, as well as some additions, the whole being corrected by the latest revisions and researches. From the present volume of reduced and well-arranged matter it is more easy to deduce some of the important facts and laws indicated by statistics, and except as these are apprehended and compared with one another, even the classified and tabulated returns of the census can be of but little use.

In the present stage of enlightenment no accumulation of facts, even apparently insignificant in themselves, should be regarded as worthless, since it is often from them the mind rises surely and instinctively, as it were, to the shaping out of philosophy or science, those prime instruments of progressive achievement which at once define and enlarge the boundaries of our knowledge and action. Thus it is that systems of investigation, once casually introduced in past centuries, grow into deep and important relations in the light of modern civilization, often assisting still farther to expand and improve it. Among these may be classed that important means for studying, both practically and theoretically, the principles of political economy—the census. A census taking, instead of only comprising the numbering of the people and the assessment of their property for the purpose of levying taxes, or military conscriptions, as was the case among ancient nations, and to within a few centuries even, has developed itself into the important and comprehensive science of statistics —a science which aims to explain and exhibit the state and growth of a people in numbers, industry, morals, and intelligence, throughout all their classified details, compared in different periods. The magnitude and importance of a work like this, when applied to a great nation, rapidly changing and forming itself in all these respects, as the United States, will appear obvious to any one on a little reflection. The collection and treatment of statistics were first reduced to a science in Prussia about one hundred years ago, and it is worth noticing that some of our best and most approved methods of instruction and investigation have, within the last century, been derived from this part of Europe.

Achenwall and his pupil Schlözer, of Prussia, first gave form and name to statistical science, and it has since received a full development in England and France.

The Society of Universal Statistics was founded in France in 1829, and the following programme of its transactions concisely expresses the scope of the science of statistics. In includes:—

1. Physical and descriptive statistics; embracing topography, hydrography, meteorology, population, man physically, hygiene, and the sanitary state.

2. Positive and applied statistics; embracing animal and vegetable productions, agriculture, industry, Commerce, navigation, state of the science, general institutions, literature, language, and the fine arts.

3. Moral and philosophical statistics; including the forms of religious

worship, legislative and judicial powers, public administration, finance, the marine, military, and diplomacy.

The accuracy and thence the value of all census statistics must always depend, in an eminent degree, first, on the perfection of the machinery adopted by the government; and second, on the intelligence of the people from whom the records are taken. The plan adopted in most of the European States, and especially that used in England, for collecting statistics, is greatly superior to ours, but while the chances for error are thus lessened, they are probably as much increased by the lower grade of popular intelligence. Mr. De Bow is of the opinion that the chances for inaccuracy are about equal in both cases.

In Great Britain the census is entrusted to permanent civil officers of each parish or district, and the results are digested and published with the greatest care and regularity. The British census, like our own, is taken every ten years.

"Of the sixth," says the Superintendent of the Census, "four bulky volumes have been published. Each of the fourteen divisions of the empire is prepared separately, and is illustrated by handsome district and county maps, and other drawings, indexes, &c." Other volumes will follow, giving the remaining departments of statistics, as well as a condensation of every previous census.

In all but nine of the United States a census is taken at periods ranging from two to ten years by the State authorities. Massachusetts is in advance of every other State for the extent and accuracy of its statistical investigations. Previous to taking the national census of 1850, the advice of some of the best statisticians in the country was obtained at Washington, and the blanks sent out comprised more details than had been included in any former census. The schedules of the United States census of 1850 embraced about 640,000 medium pages, and will make 800 or 1,000 volumes. The weight of the blanks distributed to the enumerators was 100 tons. The reader can, after this statement, imagine for himself the amount of labor necessary to reduce, classify, and compare such a mass of material.

One ceases to wonder what the Census Bureau, with its more than one hundred assistants, has employed itself upon during the last four years; the marvel is how the work has been so nearly accomplished, and with that degree of order and accuracy to be seen in the reports. As this labor requires for its proper fulfillment a large corps of skillful and above all experienced persons, Mr. De Bow urges with much force the necessity for making the Census Office a permanent department, so that experienced assistants may be retained from one decade to another.

We will now proceed to a brief review of the principal divisions of the Census Compendium, according to the order in which they occur. The first of these furnishes some interesting data relative to the area of the United States.

According to calculations made by the Topographical Department the total area of the Republic is 2,963,666 square miles, or more than one-third the surface of the entire North American continent. Compared with portions of the Old World this is considerably larger than Russia in Europe, more than ten times the size of Austria or France, and twenty-four times the size of Great Britain. The limits of the United States when their independence was achieved (1783) did not exceed 820,680 square

miles. The territory of the Republic doubled itself in the first twenty years of its existence, and in less than sixty years it has increased over three-fold.

The Mississippi Valley, or that portion of our territory drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries, covers an area of 1,217,562 square miles, or more than two-fifths of the whole national domain. It has been calculated by Lieut. Maury that the area of all the valleys which are drained by the rivers of Europe which empty into the Atlantic, all the valleys that are drained by the rivers of Asia which empty into the Indian Ocean, and of all the valleys which are drained by the rivers of Africa and Europe which empty into the Mediterranean, does not cover an extent of territory as great as that included in the valleys drained by the American rivers alone which discharge themselves into one central sea. This shows the gigantic scale upon which some of the geographical features of the New World have been arranged. According to the calculations of the Coast Survey the total main shore line of the United States, exclusive of bays, sounds, islands, &c., is 12,609 statute miles; if these be included together with the rivers, entered to the head of tide-water, the total shore line will equal 33,069 miles.

In the length of shore line compared with surface, North America is second only to Europe, which has only 156 miles of surface for one of shore line, exceeding in this respect any other portion of the globe. The United States has 221 miles to one of surface. The amount of coast or shore line determines, in a great degree, the commercial facilities of a country.

Comparing the area of some of the States and Territories with that of the whole Union, we find the Territory of Nebraska constitutes one-ninth, Utah one-eleventh, Texas one-twelfth, New Mexico one-fourteenth, Oregon one-sixteenth, Missouri and Virginia a little more than one-fiftieth each, South Carolina one-hundredth, Massachusetts one-three-hundred-and-eightieth, and Rhode Island one-two-thousand-three-hundredth part of the national area. Nebraska Territory alone comprises 335,882 square miles, or more than enough of surface to make seven States of the size of New York.

Population. The total number of the inhabitants of the United States, as ascertained at the several census periods, is exhibited in the following table. Previous to 1790, no general enumeration had been taken, and the means are very imperfect for estimating the population of the colonies. According to a conjectural estimate, the aggregate population of the colonies was, in 1701, 262,000; in 1749, 1,046,000; in 1775, 2,803,000, the increase during a period of forty-eight years being in the aggregate about 300 per cent, (in Pennsylvania it was 1,150, and in Virginia only 112½ per cent.)

The total population of the United States, as shown at each census period, is as follows:—

Census of 1790	3,929,827	Census of 1830	12,866,020
1800	5,305,925	1840	17,069,463
1810	7,239,814	1850	23,191,876
1820	9,638,131		

At the close of 1854 the total population of the United States was, according to its average ratio of increase, in round numbers, 26,500,000.

Corrections being made for the admission of new territory, the census statistics show a regular diminution in the ratio of total as well as natural increase from 1790 up to 1840. But from 1840 to 1850 the ratio, instead of declining, increased over 3 per cent. The whole number of white persons in the United States on the 1st of June, 1850, was 19,553,068, and of these 2,240,535, or about 11 per cent of the aggregate, were of foreign birth; 4,174,940, or 21 per cent, of those American born were born out of the State in which they reside. North Carolina has the smallest per cent of white persons born out of the State, and California the largest. In North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, 95, 92, 90, 78, and 79 per cent respectively of the free population were born in the States of their residence. In the new States, as Wisconsin, Iowa, and California, the proportion decreases to 17, 21, and 8 per cent.

Density of Population. The average number of persons to a square mile of territory in the United States was at the period of the last census 7·90. In 1840 it was 9·55. The decrease is owing to the large additions made of unsettled territory. The following table shows the number of persons to the square mile in some of the States at both extremes of density:—

	Density to a square mile.		Density to a square mile.
District of Columbia	516.87	California	0.59
Massachusetts	127.50	Texas	0.89
Rhode Island	112.97	Florida	1.48
Connecticut	79.33	Iowa	3.78
New York	65.90	Arkansas	4.02
New Jersey	58.84	Minnesota Territory	0.04
Maryland	52.41	Utah Territory	0.04

The greatest increase of density during the last decade is found in Iowa, which had only 0·85 inhabitants to a square mile in 1840, and in 1850, 3·78, having more than quadrupled in ten years.

Illinois, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and several other States, contain about one-half more to the square mile than in 1840.

Although the population of the United States has increased six-fold since 1790, yet on account of the large additions of area made to our national domain the number of persons to a square mile of its territory has not doubled. It is interesting to compare our country in this respect with some of the most thickly populated portions of the Old World, which are shown in the following table:—

	Density to a square mile.		Density to a square mile.
Belgium	388.60	Switzerland	160.05
England	332.00	Prussia	151.32
Holland	259.31	Austria	141.88
France	172.74	Denmark	101.92

What may be the growth of our country in wealth, Commerce, and enlightenment when its population shall reach a density equal to that of Belgium, or England, or even that of Denmark?

With the present density of the Middle States, (57·79 to the square mile,) the Union would have 170,000,000 inhabitants. The United States, however, exceed in density every other portion of the New World, except Central America, of which the density is a little over 10 per square mile. Mexico is almost as dense as the United States, but the Canadas and South America are very thinly populated.

PROPORTION OF THE SEXES. The census tables show some curious results respecting the proportions of the sexes. At every census the number of females has been from four to six in a hundred less than that of the males. The disparity has increased more or less at all times during the last sixty years, and is at present greater than ever before.

One cause of this appears to be a slight predominance of male births. In the New England States alone there has always been an excess of females, reaching occasionally as high as 3 per cent. This may be accounted for, in part at least, by the large emigration (the greater part consisting of males) to the South and West from the North-eastern States.

However, the South-western States show the largest excess of male births, reaching in Kentucky to 12½ per cent.

The excess of males among the total white population of the United States was, in 1850, 498,736.

Among the native born white population (17,312,533) the excess of males was 261,403, or nearly half that for the entire white population.

It is the opinion of high scientific and medical authorities that whatever tends to elevate and strengthen the physical condition of society seems also to cause a corresponding increase in the proportion of male infants, and *vice versa*. In the Old World, where the population is crowded, and scantily furnished with the necessaries of life, the proportion of male births is much less than in the United States.

FOREIGN POPULATION. The total number of foreigners in the United States at the last census was 2,240,536, and of these 1,239,434 were males and 1,001,102 females. The nativities of the foreign born population are exhibited in the following table:—

NATIVES OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1850.

Ireland	961,719	West Indies	5,772
Germany	573,225	Italy	3,645
England	278,675	Sweden	3,559
British America	147,711	Spain	3,113
Scotland	70,550	Denmark	1,838
France	54,069	South America	1,543
Wales	29,868	Russia	1,414
Switzerland	13,358	Belgium	1,313
Mexico	13,317	Portugal	1,274
Norway	12,678	Austria	946
Prussia	10,549	China	758
Holland	9,848	Sandwich Islands	588
			2,240,536

A large proportion of the foreign born reside in large cities; in a few of which we find a total of 382,402 Irish and 212,559 Germans and Prussians, being 40 and 36½ per cent respectively of the total number of each class in the United States. The proportion of foreign born to native inhabitants in the different sections of the Union is as follows:—Eastern States, 12½; Middle, 19¾; Southern, 1¾; South-western, 5¼; North-western and Territories, 12¾ per cent.

Wisconsin and Minnesota contain by far the largest proportion of foreign born white inhabitants, this class reaching in the former State to more than 36 per cent. In the Southern and North-eastern States the ratio reduces from 10 to less than 1 per cent.

There are no means for ascertaining the amount of personal property

brought over by foreigners; of the amount sent back by them, however, in aid of their relatives and friends, some account has been taken by the English Commissioners of Emigration. They have ascertained that during the four years ending with 1851, $14,384,480 were sent back to England by emigrants in this country.

It may be that a larger amount than ordinary was raised during the period referred to, in order to rescue those suffering from the famine and pestilence of 1847–8, but the amount is, in any case, truly surprising, and indicates a general condition of prosperity and energy among our foreign population.

Births, Marriages, and Deaths. These, though they constitute a part of the last census statistics, were very imperfectly ascertained. Very little of the matter under these heads has been reduced from the returns, as the work was not ordered by Congress. From an examination of the mortality tables in the Compendium we think it questionable whether any correct inference can be deduced from them. The same may be said of the births and marriages, of which it is evident only a part has been recorded. This has probably arisen, in a great measure, from the inability of many people to recollect such occurrences in their family as far back as a year, and also from the carelessness of enumerators. The mortality tables, when fully worked out and published, will, it is said, make a volume the size of the Compendium.

Free Colored Inhabitants. The free colored population of the United States amounted in 1850 to 434,495, of whom 275,400 were black, or of unmixed African descent, and 159,095 mulattoes of mixed African and other blood. Maryland contained 74,723 free blacks and mulattoes, or more than twice the number of any other State excepting Pennsylvania and New York. Of the free colored population, as given above, 208,724 were males and 225,771 females. As with the whites, so with the free colored. In New England the females are always in excess, and this excess of free colored females is found throughout the Middle, Southern, and South-western States; but in the North-western and Territories the males preponderate very largely. Among the aggregate colored population of the United States the mulattoes are about one-eighth as numerous as the blacks, and the free mulattoes are more than half the number of the free blacks.

Slave Population. The total slave population at the time of the last census was ascertained to be 3,204,313. Among the entire slave population the excess of males amounts to but 757. In 1820, the excess of male over female slaves amounted to nearly 5 per cent; since then it has steadily diminished, and in 1850 was only ·05 per cent. The slaves of pure African descent number 2,957,657, and the mulattoes 246,656, or about one-twelfth of the former. Virginia holds the largest number of slaves, 472,528; South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi are next in order, the latter holding 309,878. The total number of slaveholders is 347,525, and it is ascertained that of these about a fifth hold but a single slave, and nearly one-half own less than five slaves.

No statistics respecting the nativities of the slave population, or their occupations, have ever been collected.

The following tables show the number and increase of the slave population, both separate and combined with the free colored, and their proportion to the free whites through sixty years:—

NUMBER AND INCREASE OF SLAVES.

Census.	No. of males.	No. of females.	Excess of males.	Total number of slaves.	Increase in each ten and in 60 years.	Increase per cent in each ten and in 60 years.	Proportion of slaves to free whites as 1 slave to
1790	.....	.....	.....	697,897	.....	.....	4.5457
1800	.....	.....	.....	893,041	195,144	27.9617	4.8200
1810	.....	.....	.....	1,191,364	298,523	33.4053	4.9204
1820	788,028	750,010	38,018	1,538,038	346,674	29.0989	5.1116
1830	1,012,823	996,220	16,603	2,009,043	471,005	30.6237	5.2450
1840	1,246,517	1,240,938	5,579	2,487,455	478,412	23.8129	6.8622
1850	1,602,535	1,601,778	757	3,204,313	716,858	28.8189	7.2377
Total increase of each class in sixty years.....					2,506,416	359.1384	

NUMBER AND INCREASE OF FREE COLORED AND SLAVES.

1790	.....	.....	.....	757,363	.....	.....	4.1888
1800	.....	.....	.....	1,001,436	244,073	32.2271	4.2983
1810	.....	.....	.....	1,377,810	376,374	37.5830	4.2546
1820	902,994	873,200	29,774	1,776,194	398,384	29.3273	4.4263
1830	1,166,276	1,162,366	3,910	2,328,642	552,448	31.1030	4.5251
1840	1,432,998	1,440,760	*7,762	2,873,758	545,116	23.4092	4.9398
1850	1,811,547	1,827,261	*15,714	3,638,808	765,050	26.6219	5.3735
Total increase of each class in sixty years.....					2,881,445	379.7058	

Deaf, Dumb, Blind, Idiotic, and Insane Population. The aggregate number of persons embraced within all these classes by the census of 1850 was 50,994, being one for every 460 persons, or one deaf and dumb for every 2,365, and one blind for every 2,368. In the whole Union the number of deaf and dumb persons was 9,803; of blind, 9,784; of insane, 15,610; and of idiotic, 15,787. The proportion of these classes is considerably less among the foreign born of our population than among the native, as such persons are seldom found among emigrants.

Of persons that are at the same time deaf, dumb, and blind, there is one each in Massachusetts, Georgia, Florida, and Tennessee, two in Ohio, and four in Virginia. Of those deaf and blind there is one each in South Carolina, Georgia, and Tennessee, two each in Massachusetts, North Carolina, and Florida, and six in Virginia. Of those deaf and idiotic, there is one in Virginia and two in Maryland. Of those deaf, dumb, and idiotic, there is one each in North Carolina and South Carolina; two each in Massachusetts, Georgia, and Wisconsin; three each in Tennessee, Illinois, and Ohio, and seven in Virginia. There is one deaf, dumb, blind, and insane person each in Virginia, Massachusetts, North Carolina, South Carolina, Illinois, and Ohio, and two in Tennessee.

For all classes, the mean of the last three censuses shows one affected person to every 957 whites in the slaveholding States, and one to 1,060 in the other States; one to every 1,444 colored in the slaveholding States, and one to 503 colored in the non-slaveholding.†

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* Excess of females.

† This singular disproportion in the number of free colored and slave deaf, dumb, blind, &c., is observable throughout previous censuses, where such statistics have been taken, and has of course excited considerable attention. In 1844, a memorial was sent to Congress from several individuals in Boston, protesting against the publication of these statistics for the slaveholding States, on the ground of their inaccuracy.

The memorial was referred to the Department of State, and after an investigation of the census returns had been held, the Secretary referred to it in the following words:—"On a review of the whole, two conclusions, it is believed, will be found to follow inevitably. The one is that the correctness of the late census, in exhibiting a far greater prevalence of the diseases of insanity, blind-

Occupations of the Male Population of the United States over Fifteen Years of Age. Of the male population of the United States over fifteen years of age, 5,371,876 have been registered as pursuing some particular avocation. The total number of employments mentioned, including almost all departments of production, art, Commerce, literature, &c., is 324. The farmers are much the largest class, and number 2,363,958, or more than three-sevenths of the whole. Laborers (a general term, including, probably, many engaged in agriculture) come next, of whom there are 909,786. After these are carpenters, 184,671; cordwainers, 130,473; clerks and merchants, each about 100,000; black and white smiths, 99,703; miners, 77,410; mariners, 70,603; masons and plasterers, 63,392. Of the several classes of professional and literary men, there were enumerated 26,842 clergymen; 40,564 physicians; 23,939 lawyers; 1,372 editors, and 82 authors. It appears, from a comparison of these returns with those of former censuses, that while the per centage of those engaged in agricultural employments has always been steadily increasing, that of those engaged in Commerce alone has slightly diminished—in New England more than half between 1820 and 1840, while in the Middle States during the same period it nearly doubled, but in the Southern States diminished about one-half, increasing in the North-west, however, nearly three-fold. The per centage of those devoted to the learned professions has nearly trebled during the last census decade, and that of those employed in navigation doubled.

Comparative Progress of Population in Various Parts of the World. In closing our review of the subject of population we shall copy the following table showing the comparative progress of population in several countries:—

	Year.	Population.	Year.	Population.	Years.	Actual gain.	Inc. per ct. per an.
United States.....	1790	3,929,827	1850	23,191,876	60	19,262,049	8.17
Prussia	1786	6,000,000	1849	16,331,187	63	10,331,187	2 73
Turkey in Europe...	1801	8,500,000	1844	15,500,000	43	7,000,000	1.92
Russia.....	1783	27,400,000	1850	62,088,000	67	34,688,000	1.89
Great Britain.....	1801	15,800,000	1851	27,475,271	50	11,675,271	1.48
Austria.....	1792	23,500,000	1851	36,514,397	59	13,014,397	.94
France.....	1762	21,769,000	1851	35,783,170	89	14,014,170	.72
Spain	1723	7,625,000	1834	12,232,194	111	5,607,194	.66

It will be seen from the above table that the annual increase of the United States has been nearly three times as great as that of Prussia, (notwithstanding the large population that was added to her by the partition of Poland;) more than four times as much as Russia; six times as much as Great Britain; nine times as much as Austria; and ten times that of France. What nation, either ancient or modern, has ever exhibited such a rapid increase in numbers, wealth, and power as the young giant of the New World, destined, let us hope, to remain forever an asylum for people of all nations and kindred, and the inalienable heritage of freedom.

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ness, deafness, and dumbness stands unimpeachable. That it may contain errors, more or less, is hardly to be doubted. It would be a miracle if such a document, with so many figures and entries, did not; but that they have, if they exist, materially affected the correctness of the general result, would seem hardly possible. Nothing but that the truth is so would seem capable of explaining the fact that in all the non-slaveholding States, without exception, the census exhibits uniformly a far greater comparative prevalence of these diseases among the free blacks than among the slaves of the other States. They are indeed vastly more so among the most favorable of the former than in the least favorable of the latter."

Moral and Social Statistics—Religious Worship. From the census tables we find the total number of churches in the United States was, in 1850, 38,183, and the total value of the property belonging to them was $89,983,028. The number of persons which could be accommodated at one sitting was ascertained to be 14,360,038. Twenty different sects were specified by name, and others included under the head of minor sects.

To the Methodists belong 13,338 churches, the largest number owned by any single denomination; next are the Baptist, 9,360; Presbyterian, 4,863; Episcopalian, 1,461; Congregational, 1,706; Roman Catholic, 1,227; Lutheran, 1,221; and Christian, 868. The Methodist church property is worth $14,826,148; the Presbyterian, $14,557,089; the Episcopal, $11,384,210; the Baptist, 11,001,127; and the Roman Catholic, $9,256,758. The Methodists and Baptists together have more than one-half of all the churches, and the Episcopal and Roman Catholic are about equal in number. The Methodists and Presbyterians have a larger amount of church property than any other denomination. The Baptist and Episcopal are next, and are also about equal. The Catholics, though they have but one-eleventh as many churches as the Methodists, have much more than half the church property. The average number of churches throughout the Union is about 1 to every 75 square miles. In Massachusetts there are nearly 19 churches to every 100 square miles, whilst in Texas the number is only 1 in every 700, and in Arkansas 1 in 175 square miles. The average value of churches in the United States is, according to the census tables, $2,357, and their average capacity of accommodation, 376 persons. There are about five churches to every 3,000 of the total population, and every 2,600 of the white and free colored. The average value of churches to each person, excluding slaves, is $4 50. Six hundred and nineteen persons in every 1,000 of the whole population of the United States, and 72 in every 100 of the whites and free colored, can be accommodated at one sitting in the churches.

The Methodists have one church for every 1,739 of the total population, the Baptists one in 2,478, the Presbyterians one in 4,769, the Episcopalians one in 15,874, the Catholics one in 18,801, and other sects one in 2,923. The church statistics for the great sections of the Union, as returned by the marshals, show that the New England and Middle States, and the Territories and California, have nearly the same average value to their churches, which is nearly four times that of other sections. The average accommodation of churches differs much less.

Education. The following table shows the number of schools of various kinds, and also that of the teachers and pupils belonging to them respectively, as aggregated for the whole Union:—

	Number.	Teachers.	Pupils.	Total annual income.
Colleges	239	1,678	27,821	1,964,428
Public schools	80,978	91,966	3,354,011	9,529,542
Academies and private schools	6,085	12,260	263,096	4,644,214
Total number of scholars in all colleges, academies, and schools				3,644,928

The cost of academy and private school education to each pupil is a third larger at the South than at the North, and the average for the Union is $22 16. To each public school scholar the expense at the South is twice as great as at the North, and the average for the Union is $2 94. Whilst the South pays to its institutions of learning $2 90 for each per-

son between the ages of five and twenty, the North pays but $2 30, and the average paid in the whole Union is $2 50. Ohio contains a greater number of colleges and public schools than any other State—26 of the former and 11,661 of the latter; Pennsylvania stands next in this respect, and considerably exceeds Ohio in the amount of annual income accruing to these institutions.

PERSONS UNABLE TO READ AND WRITE. The aggregate of persons in the United States over twenty years of age who can neither read nor write is 1,053,420, and of these, 962,898 are whites, and 90,522 are free colored. Including both these classes, 858,306 are native, and 195,114 of foreign birth. The sexes are divided as follows:—

White males	389,664	Free colored males	40,722
White females	573,234	Free colored females	49,800

Mr. De Bow's table, showing the ratio of illiterate whites and colored, native and foreign, when compared with the whole number of each of these classes, and also when compared with the actual number of and over 20 years of age for every State and Territory of the Union, is very interesting. We have room for only a few of the results and figures.

For the whole Union the per cent of white illiterate to total white is 4.92; that of free colored illiterate to total free colored, 20.83; and that of foreign illiterate to total foreign over 20 years of age, supposing the illiterate to be all white, 14.51. The highest percentage of white illiterate in any part of the Union is 40.77, in the Territory of New Mexico; next is North Carolina, where the percentage of this class is 13.30. It is least in New Hampshire, being there only 0.93. For the whole of New England the percentage of this class among the aggregate white population is only 1.88, and of the native white only one person in 400, over 20 years of age, is incapable of reading and writing. Comparing the educational statistics of 1840 and 1850 with one another, we find that the number of pupils attending schools of all kinds in proportion to the total white population, has increased in the aggregate from 13.89 to 20.14 per cent. The number of those whites over 20 years of age who cannot read and write has also increased in every section, and in the aggregate from 3.77 to 5.03 per cent. This Mr. De Bow attributes to the large influx of foreigners.

THE PRESS. The aggregate number of newspapers and periodicals of all kinds published in the United States on the 1st of June, 1850, as ascertained by the census, was 2,526, and the whole number of copies printed annually, 426,409,978.

The following tables show how many periodicals are published daily, weekly, monthly, &c., and also the classified character and circulation:—

	No.		No.
Daily	254	Semi-Monthly	95
Tri-Weekly	115	Monthly	100
Semi-Weekly	31	Quarterly	19
Weekly	1,902		
Total			2,526

CHARACTER AND CIRCULATION.

	Number.	Circulation.
Literary and Miscellaneous	568	1,692,403
Neutral and Independent	83	303,722
Political	1,630	1,907,794
Religious	191	1,071,657
Scientific	53	207,041
Total	2,526	5,183,017

According to these figures, there would be a copy of some periodical to something over every fourth inhabitant of the Union; and of the whole number of copies printed annually, there would be nearly 20 papers for every one of the total population of the Republic. Mr. De Bow estimates the total amount expended on newspapers and periodicals for the year 1850, at $15,000,000. He also says: "The whole issue for one year, estimated upon the basis of an ordinary country paper, would cover a surface of 100 square miles, or constitute a belt, of 30 feet wide, around the earth, and weigh nearly 70,000,000."

PAUPERISM. The census statistics under this head include only such persons as were supported at public charge. Private or individual charities and benevolent societies, support or relieve a considerable portion of the indigent and sick in many portions of the Union. An attempt was made to obtain statistics in regard to these also by means of circulars, but the information thus collected was too partial to allow of its being used in a general way.

The number of paupers supported in whole or part at public expense in the United States during the year ending June 1st, 1850, was 134,972, and the total number of paupers on this date was 50,353. Of the former number, 66,434 were native, and 68,538 foreign born; of the latter, 36,916 were natives, and 13,437 foreigners. The total cost of support was $2,954,806.

We have now passed over nearly all of the most important divisions of the Compendium devoted to abstract and reduced results. The statistics of crime have not yet been generally reduced from the returns, and the few results given in the present volume are by no means full or satisfactory.

As we have already reached the proper limits for our review, we can make no quotations from the very full and interesting statistics given under the heads of Commerce, Manufacturing, and Mining; the omission of these will, however, not be a serious matter, we trust, as the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* are kept well informed in regard to these branches of our social industry.

In concluding, however, we must beg leave to copy the following tables—the first, giving as near an approximation as could be obtained to the number of acres cultivated in each kind of crop; and the second, showing the total value of the chief agricultural products. The results are for the year ending June 1st, 1850:—

LAND ACTUALLY CULTIVATED IN THE SEVERAL CROPS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1849-50.

Products.	Acres.	Products.	Acres.
Indian corn	31,000,000	Tobacco	400,000
Meadow or pasture, exclusive of hay crop	20,000,000	Sugar	400,000
Hay	13,000,000	Barley	300,000
Wheat	11,000,000	Rice	175,000
Oats	7,500,000	Hemp	110,000
Cotton	5,000,000	Flax	100,000
Rye	1,200,000	Orchards	500,000
Peas and beans	1,000,000	Gardens	500,000
Irish potatoes	1,000,000	Vineyards	250,000
Sweet potatoes	750,000	Other products	1,000,000
Buckwheat	600,000	Improved, but not in actual cultivation	17,247,614
		Total improved lands	113,032,614

VALUE OF THE CHIEF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1850.

Products.	Value.	Products.	Value.
Indian corn	$296,035,552	Potatoes (sweet)	$19,134,074
Wheat	100,485,944	Wool	15,755,087
Cotton	98,603,720	Tobacco	13,982,686
Hay	96,870,494	Cane sugar	12,378,850
Oats	43,975,258	Rye	7,803,847
Butter	50,135,248	Orchard products	7,723,186
Potatoes (Irish)	26,319,158	Maple sugar	1,712,671

It has not been the aim of the writer to present in the preceding pages anything like an exposition of the science of statistics, nor even to enter into any detail or comment on the results touched upon. It has only been possible to give, in the fewest words, some of the most striking and important facts of the census, often by comparison, and a limited use of the figures.

More cannot well be done within the scope of an ordinary review. But though this article is necessarily imperfect, the careful reader will meet many facts worthy to awaken deep and earnest reflection. Our empire will soon be, in many respects, a colossal one; and it exhibits even now the elements of an increase not only in numbers, but also in intelligence and power, beyond any that has ever appeared on the earth. Here all the nations reach the goal of their progress toward the setting sun, and here must not only be the center, but the final resting-place of civilization. And what may be the pitch of that civilization? The very geography of this continent indicates in all its physical relations that it is the most proper field for the development of social and intellectual Commerce, and the union of science and art.

All the new links between mind and nature, and all those wonderful improvements that attest the supremacy of man over the universe and its vicissitudes, have yielded their earliest, most precious fruits to the people of this continent. The Old World has yielded to us her fountains of knowledge, the heritage of thought and experience since time began; she is also yielding to us that life and vitality which makes a people in all respects predominant, and the center of civilization.

As the young and vigorous plant succeeds the decay of the parent stem whose sap it appropriates to nourish its own rapid and sturdy growth, so will America succeed the effete civilization of Europe, and, embracing all its good and enlightenment, create a more delightful, because a freer home for humanity in the New World. This is the change which philosophy and history lead us to expect. A careful study of the science of statistics will afford us a diagnosis of its approach.

Is it not, therefore, worth the study?

Art. III.—COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XXII.

REPEAL OF THE STAMP ACT—INDEMNITIES—THE SUGAR ACT MODIFIED—FREE PORTS IN THE WEST INDIES—ILLICIT TRADE AT THE FISHERIES—OTHER PARLIAMENTARY ACTS—NAVAL STORES—SILK—THE MUTINY ACT—ANOTHER TAXATION SCHEME.

THE extremes of the continent—Canada and the fishing provinces at the North, with Georgia and Florida at the South—were not embraced in the opposition to the Stamp act.* Their trade and business generally was too small to make the measure one of great present importance to them, and their co-operation would have been of too little avail to the other colonies to make them solicitous about it. Georgia, however, had a growing trade, and the assembly of that colony in 1766 petitioned for the repeal of the act. The West India possessions lying completely at the mercy of the British fleets, and of the troops by which they were occupied, were in the same predicament. These all quietly submitted to the operation of the act, excepting the small islands of St. Christopher's and Nevis, the inhabitants of which were induced by some New Englanders in their harbors, to burn the stamped paper, and to offer some left-handed compliments to their public officials. The government of Jamaica, in 1766, forwarded a petition against the stamp act, the only one, it is said, dispatched from any of the West India Islands.

The accounts of the proceedings in America were received by the ministry with alarm, mingled with a strong resentment. The resistance of the colonists was regarded as the indisputable evidence of a purpose to attempt their independence, an opinion which was strongly confirmed by the very exalted conceptions which the Americans had lately indulged regarding their future strength and destiny—some of which would be, even for these times, decidedly extravagant. We are not to imagine, although Fourth of July orators so affirm, that our fathers did not dream of the rapidly-coming grandeur and power of the empire they set up.

But the state of things was even more alarming in Great Britain than in the colonies. The effects of the non-importation act were sensibly felt in every part of Great Britain. "The merchants connected with America found themselves unable to fulfill their engagements by the stoppage of the payment of the several millions due to them from their American correspondents; the whole system of their business was deranged, and general distress was diffused throughout the wide-spreading circle of their connections. The manufacturers suffered by the want of regular payments from the merchants, and moreover, found their materials and made-up goods, in a great measure become a dead stock upon their hands; in consequence of which great numbers of their workmen and other dependents were reduced to idleness and want of bread, at a time when, to heighten the distress, provisions were extravagantly dear. Popular outbreaks occurred in several parts of England. As a remedy against the terrible forces of want and mobs, an act was passed permitting the import

* Georgia had at this time a population of about 10,000 whites, and at least 7,800 slaves. Total about 18,000. There were but four ships in its British trade, and but three ships and eleven other vessels owned in the colony, in 1766. The colony exported in 1764, 12,474 bbls. of rice, 38,660 lbs. indigo, 20,350 lbs. raw silk, with naval stores and other products, to the value of £84,802. Its imports were £136,079, an extraordinary amount for such a population.

for a limited time, of grain from the colonies in America, and prohibiting all export of corn, meal, flour, bread, and starch. While such misery was brought upon the British people by the effort to tax the colonies, the government had not even the poor boast of the financial success of the experiment. During the course of the ostensible operation of the act, the expense of the stamp office in stamps and stamping, and in paper and parchment returned on its hands, was £12,000, while the only receipts—from Canada and the West Indies—was £1,500.

It was now the turn of the British people to petition and remonstrate against the stamp act and all other projects of taxing America, and they took up in earnest the effort which the Americans had dropped. Memorials drawn up in most forcible terms were presented to parliament from London, Liverpool, Bristol, Lancaster, Hull, Birmingham, Manchester, Newcastle, Glasgow, and from nearly every trading and manufacturing town in the kingdom. These papers eloquently set forth the advantages derived from the trade with America, in the vast and increasing consumption of British manufactures, and also of foreign manufactures transported from England in British vessels. The returns from America were most important, being raw materials for British manufacture, and goods profitable for re-exportation, besides large balances in bullion and bills of exchange, which latter were the profits of colonial foreign trade poured into the mass of British wealth. The suicidal measures complained of were destroying this lucrative Commerce, and the effect must be to leave thousands of British manufacturers, laborers, and seamen, to starve, or drive them into the service of other countries. MacPherson regards the statements of the evils thus inflicted on Great Britain as exaggerated, which is not impossible considering the excited state of public feeling; but the very existence of such popular excitement, in such a case, is infallible proof of the real severity of the crisis. That writer alludes to a statement of the woolen manufacture of Yorkshire, as proving that not the slightest effect had been exercised upon it by the American non-importation policy. But it is quite possible that the former extent of the woolen manufacture should be continued with yet a very material diminution of profits.

The Grenville ministry having fallen a sacrifice to its destructive policy, the new administration, headed by the Marquis of Rockingham, with Gen. Conway as Colonial Secretary, both able and zealous advocates of the cause of America, moved at once in obedience to the popular demand. A bill for the repeal of the Stamp Act was brought into Parliament, which was advocated by Mr. Pitt and others of the ministerial side, in the House, and Lord Camden in the Peers, upon the principle that Parliament had no right to tax America; others admitted that it was better to forbear the effort than to resort to force against the colonies. Mr. Grenville and his friends opposed the repeal, alleging that the pusillanimity of a retreat would encourage the Americans to a yet more audacious spirit in reference to other measures, and that the authority of England over the colonies would be broken if it were not now vindicated. The Repeal bill passed on the 18th of March, 1766, by the triumphant vote of 205 to 167 in the Commons, and 105 to 71 in the Lords, thirty-three of the Lords protesting against the repeal. But it was necessary to apply a salvo to the wounded honor of the nation; and accordingly a declaratory act was immediately passed, the preamble to which reflected on the ungracious conduct of the provincial legislatures, in the illegal assumption that the ex-

clusive right of taxing his majesty's subjects in the colonies was reposed in them, while the Declaration peremptorily asserted, in denial thereof, that the American colonies are subordinate to and dependent upon the crown and parliament of Great Britain; and that the legislative authority of the kingdom extends to and binds the American colonists, as subjects, in all cases whatsoever.

The Repeal of the Stamp Act was the occasion of the strongest demonstrations of joy, by the merchants, manufacturers, and the friends of America generally, in the city of London. The shipping in the Thames were gaily decorated with flags, the coffee-houses frequented by American merchants, and great numbers of private houses were adorned and illuminated, and the whole city seemed eager in the manifestation of its joy. Other towns and cities partook in the rejoicing over this beneficent measure.

In the colonies, the Repeal Act was received with universal demonstrations of joy. Public thanksgivings were proclaimed; humble proffers of gratitude and loyalty were made to the king and parliament, and subscriptions were set afloat for statues in honor of Mr. Pitt. The ports were again opened, trade, after the brief interruption, resumed its natural course, and the lately cherished infant manufactures of America so far forgotten, that resolutions were adopted to quit their home-spun garments, and prepare new dresses from British cloths, for celebrating the fourth of June, the birthday of their most gracious sovereign George the Third, and to bestow their cast-off American clothes upon the poor. This remarkable subsidence in American feeling, and the change in American purposes, is anomalous in the history of popular excitements; which in most other cases are not quelled by the offending party giving up attempts which it abandons solely because driven from them. It proved the utter groundlessness of the suspicion of any real disaffection towards the British government existing in the American mind.

The feeling of satisfaction was, however, much heartier in the Southern colonies than in those of the North. While the Virginia burgesses voted a statue to the king, the Massachusetts Assembly merely offered his majesty a vote of thanks. The exasperation of the people of Massachusetts and New York had been much stronger than the discontent of the South. The odious Sugar Act, and its affiliated measures, yet remained to repress their foreign Commerce. While the South had suffered little, the North was still smarting from the wounds inflicted upon their leading interests. They noticed, too, the determined reaffirmation of the power just relinquished in exercise, and saw in it something more than the mere cover, as the other colonies would accept it, of the ministerial retreat. They dreaded the renewal of the effort, regarding it as merely postponed to some moment more propitious to the designs of the government. These considerations tempered their joy, without allowing them to appear insensible to the favor granted.

These results justified the expectations of the advocates of repeal, and were so pleasing to the government, that a further grace was lent to the measure, by the passage of an act providing for the indemnity of all who had incurred penalties under the Stamp Act, and confirming the validity of all deeds, contracts, and other writings, executed upon unstamped paper, during the time that law was in presumptive force. On the other hand, General Conway demanded of the colonies restitution to the officials who had suffered by the riots attending the Stamp Act. The colonial govern-

ments were very slow in yielding to this requirement; but as the measure was a fair concomitant of the above, and as they wished to conserve the prevailing good humor of both parties, the desired reparation was at length made.

Parliament was now farther moved to obviate, in a great degree, the cause of complaint existing in the Sugar Act, and thus to retrace the other of its erroneous steps. A somewhat liberal revision was therefore made of the duties and regulations upon goods imported into the continental colonies, which, though alleviating in a great degree the evils of the former acts, did not yet at all afford that complete facility of trade which the colonists desired. The duties under this act, as compared with those of 1764, were as follows:—

	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
On molasses and sirups.....per gallon	0	1	0	3
Coffee of the British plantations.....per cwt.	7	0	7	0
Pimento of the British plantations.....per lb.	6	0½	0	0½
Foreign cambrics and lawns.....per piece of 13 ells	3	0	3	0

British coffee and pimento imported and immediately warehoused for export within twelve months, to Great Britain or a British colony, were made free. So also were foreign sugars, coffee, and indigo, intended for such export, with the further privilege of exporting the foreign sugars to every part of Europe south of Cape Finisterre, *i. e.*, to Spain, Portugal, and the Mediterranean countries. All sugars, however, brought to Great Britain, from the continental colonies, were to be regarded as foreign sugars, and charged the high rates affixed to the import of such sugars into Great Britain. All foreign coffee imported in the coffees was, by the act of 1764, charged £2 19s. per cwt., and all foreign indigo 6d. per lb. The duty on foreign sugars, by the act of 1764, was prohibitory. The new act also allowed foreign cotton and indigo to be carried in British vessels to the British West Indies, duty free, and cotton might also be brought in British vessels from any place whatever, free of duty.

The general tenor of this act was much calculated to benefit the carrying trade of the colonies, and to promote their foreign Commerce. The most important provision of the act was the considerable reduction on foreign molasses. According to Lord Sheffield* the duty on the importation of this article into the continental colonies, when fixed at 6d. per gallon, yielded the revenue but 2,000*l.* a year, which, after the reduction to 1d., increased to 17,000*l.* MacPherson is of opinion there was little if any increase in the import between the two periods, but under the higher duty a general system of smuggling had been necessitated, which there was now no occasion to resort to. The attempt to exclude the North Americans from participation in the sugar trade was regarded as a serious drawback upon the privileges granted by this act.

Another important act of Parliament, in 1766, was one opening free ports in Dominica and Jamaica, with the view of encouraging the formerly interrupted trade of the Spanish islands with those of England, and to induce the French islands also to a like intercourse. The grand object was to introduce British manufactures through this channel into the foreign islands; obtain from them bullion and raw material for manufacture; introduce British shipping indirectly into their carrying trade; supply the

* Observations on the Commerce of America.

British islands with live-stock and other necessaries; and to enlarge the market for the English slave trade, of which Jamaica was the great depot. The act provided that from November 1, 1766, live cattle and all other produce of foreign colonies in America, except tobacco, (excluded for the benefit of Maryland, Virginia, and the Bermudas,) might be imported into Prince Rupert's Bay and Roseau, (Charlottetown,) in the island of Dominica, (lying between the large French islands of Guadaloupe and Martinico, and in sight of both,) in single-decked foreign vessels. From the same time the ports of Kingston, Savanna-la-mur, Montego Bay, and Lucca, in the island of Jamaica, were opened for the importation, in single-decked vessels, of cattle and all foreign colonial produce, except sugar, coffee, pimento, ginger, molasses, (excluded for the protection of like articles, the produce of the British islands,) and tobacco. The import of all foreign manufactures into these ports was prohibited, under forfeit of vessel and cargo. The importation from any British colonies, of copper ore, cotton, ginger, dyeing woods, hemp, indigo, molasses, beaver-skins, and skins and furs, in general, sugar, cacao, coffee, pimento, ashes, raw silk, and whale-fins, (these articles being mostly appropriated to the direct and exclusive trade with England from the original place of production,) was also prohibited. In the export trade of the free ports, the foreign single-decked vessels were allowed to carry Negroes, imported in British vessels, and all goods lawfully imported from Great Britain, Ireland, and the British colonies, except spars, pitch, tar, turpentine, tobacco, and colonial iron, (products of North America devoted to exclusive export to England. This act proved of vast benefit to both islands. The French and Spanish resorting thereafter to the free ports, especially to those of Dominica, brought mules and cattle, indigo, cotton, and bullion, in exchange mainly for Negroes and British manufactures. Large quantities of foreign produce were exported from this island, while its own production considerably increased. The Jamaica slave-trade was greatly benefited, the island relieved from the depressive effects of a surplus of slaves, and the profits of the English and North Americans in the African trade enhanced. The supply from the foreign colonies, of live-stock, somewhat interfered with the trade of the northern colonies to the British islands, but this was offset by the advantage of carrying a considerable quantity of their other products to the free ports, to be sold to the French and Spaniards, and by the renewed opportunity for illicit Commerce with the foreign islands. The trade with the French islands was just before this threatened with complete interruption, from the acts of the French themselves, as well as the restrictive measures of England. Offended by the English taking possession of Turks' Island, which the French wished to remain a neutral point, liable to common use, the French government determined the year previous, to enforce the treaty stipulations, hitherto partially neglected, prohibiting English trade with the French islands. An order was accordingly dispatched to seize every British vessel at Cape Francois, in the island of St. Domingo, not departing within forty-eight hours from the issuing of notice; under authority of which some vessels from New York were actually seized, and their crews imprisoned. The freedom of the Danish islands, thrown open in 1764, being now confirmed, and the duties on imports fixed at the low rate of not really though nominally, above one-and-a-half per cent ad valorem, the Americans also entered into a respectable trade with those islands.

Another subject to which the attention of Parliament was turned in 1765–6, was the Fisheries and the contraband trade carried on in connection therewith. The seat of this illicit traffic was at Newfoundland and the two near French islands, Miquelon and St. Pierre, which of late had received considerable accession of population. The trade was carried on by the New Englanders, the French, and other foreigners, and the fishermen located at Newfoundland; and was almost entirely unobstructed, owing to the absence of any regular civil government and of a proper revunue establishment in the latter island, and from the facilities afforded by the concurrent fishery there of the French.

Twenty trading vessels arrived at the French fisheries from the French West Indies in 1765, and it was evident this region had become a depot for the interdicted departments of the West India trade. It was, indeed, apprehended that many of the vessels resorting to Newfoundland, as British, were partly owned by Spaniards and other foreigners. Beside, a business so destructive to the aims of British policy, the progress of the New England, French, and the "sedentary"—(that is, the Newfoundland squatter)—fisheries, was also undermining the British "ship-fishery," and defeating the great end of making the fisheries a school for the navy. This result is exhibited in the statistics of the Gulf Fishery for the year 1765:

	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Cod, qntls.	Train-oil.
French	567	39,595	14,312	488,790	6,894 hhds.
British Americans*	104	6,927	666	.....	....
Newfoundland people	...	.....	....	310,576	1,318 tons.
British	177	17,268	7,918	136,840	585 tons.

The Lords of Trade and Plantation took this important subject into consideration, and reported to the king the results of their inquiries and deliberations. As to the fishery, the French and New Englanders could not well be repressed. The government had always been averse to the colonization of Newfoundland, as injurious to the British ship-fishery, had frequently legislated against it, and had once essayed the reckless purpose of forcing its depopulation, and reclaiming it to the state of original wilderness. But the Lords did not see fit to recommend the renewal of that costly and bootless experiment. The population of the island was now a little over 15,000; they purchased a considerable amount of goods from the British and took about twice as much from New England; the profits of this latter trade, it was found, ultimately centering in Great Britain. The New Englanders would be incensed with the destruction of this trade, the act would be violent and unjust, and injurious to England beside. The sedentary fishery must therefore continue, and the Lords advised, as a means to prevent the irregularities complained of, that the island should be made a regular colony. This wise plan was adopted, and for the benefit of the new colony and all concerned, the coasts of the island and of Labrador, were accurately surveyed in 1766, by Cook, the great navigator.

Several other measures affecting colonial trade were passed in 1765 and 1766. In the favorable statutes of the former year, were an act for securing and encouraging the trade of the American provinces, by large bounties on the importation of Deals, Planks, and Timber from them into Great Britain. Also, an act giving the colonies the new privilege of ex-

* Beside these vessels, the colonies had over 300 more in the "bank fisheries."

porting their Lumber to Ireland, Madeira, the Azores, and to any part of Europe south of Cape Finisterre, whither they were already allowed to carry Rice, and also to export their Iron to Ireland. While this project of encouraging the production of American was under consideration, the manufactures of London, Birmingham, Wolverhampton, and other places, gave evidence in its favor that it was in all respects equal to the Swedish iron for whatever uses.

Another act of the same year extended to North Carolina the privilege granted to South Carolina and Georgia, of exporting colonial rice to any part of America south of the latter colony, and exempted from any other duty than one-half the old subsidy, rice imported from the colonies into the British ports of Plymouth, Exeter, Poole, Southampton, Chichester, Sandwich, and Glasgow, and intended for immediate re-exportation. Great Britain annually exported to the continent a large amount of American rice, about 12,000 to 15,000 barrels going to Holland alone.

The above acts would have been regarded with much favor in America, but for the all-engrossing interest attending the stamp act, from which no legislative favors of this sort were able to divert them.

Among the legislation of 1766, was the renewal of several acts about expiring, having reference to American Commerce. Of the favorable class, were the act for reducing the duty on Beaver skins, and an act for encouraging the importation of Naval Stores from the colonies. Of a contrary aspect were the renewed acts, making the exportation of all Furs from the colonies exclusive to Great Britain; and for the preservation of his Majesty's Woods in America.

A new act, liable only to local complaint, and even thus not very largely, was one reducing the encouragement to the Silk production of Georgia. Hitherto, government had bought the cocoons at a fixed price of 3s. a pound—of which amount, three-quarters, at least, was in reality bounty. The price was now reduced to 1s. 6d., which no longer afforded a remuneration sufficient to induce the culture. The planters of Georgia had, indeed, already made the production of rice and indigo their leading objects of attention, and now gave them almost entire monopoly. From 20,000 pounds of cocoons in 1766, the silk product of Georgia fell to 290 pounds in 1770. The culture was, however, encouraged at this time by several of the colonial governments and by private individuals, among whom Benjamin Franklin and Dr. Aspinwall were conspicuous. Extensive nurseries were formed at New Haven, Long Island, in Pennsylvania, and at other places. The Legislature of South Carolina, in 1766, appropriated one thousand pounds toward the establishment of a filature at Charleston.

The colonial aspect of the Imperial legislation of 1766 was, in the main, in marked contrast of that of the two years next preceding, eminently favorable. But the advantages thus conferred were not suffered to be enjoyed without the alloy of the same obnoxious principles which had met with such signal failure. Another new ministry had come into power in July, and although Pitt was at its head, and it professed liberality toward America, some of its members were disposed to experiment farther with colonial rights and interests, for which the ill health of the premier afforded opportunity. The principle of taxing America was revived in new form, under the disguise of an amendment to the Mutiny Act, requiring that troops sent, or to be sent to the colonies, should be provided

by the colonial governments with quarters, and farther, with the light necessaries of beer, salt, and vinegar. The colonists saw immediately the insidious nature of the principle involved in this paltry scheme, and determined to treat it as they had the more bold and manly stamp act. But it was not alone the ridiculous incipience of a taxation system in this scheme which alarmed them. They were startled with the project of bringing a *standing army* within the colonies. With the continent in a state of profound peace, the French and all other enemies without a foothold thereon, and the colonies in a mood of grateful loyalty—what was and could be the purpose of a military occupation of their towns at such a time, but as a preparation for renewing and enforcing in its complete extent, the odious principle of which a homeopathic dose was administered in this act?

Art. IV.—MONEY AND BANKING.

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

DEAR SIR:—It has been intimated to me, by private letter, from a gentleman whose attainments in the science of political economy are well known, and I have no doubt appreciated by the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, that some of the "positions and statements" in the article on "Money and Banking," which appeared in the November number, are not, in his opinion, correct; and as it is quite possible that similar objections may arise in the minds of others, I have thought it best to take this method of reply.

My correspondent proceeds to state his objections in the following manner:—"On page 543 you say, it would be necessary to increase this particular commodity five thousand per cent before the same effect would take place in checking its production, as in the case of the extra increase of five per cent in any other commodity. Now, this is a mistake, theoretically and practically. The other commodities, labor included, would only have to advance to that point at which the production of the particular commodity could not be profitably produced, and it would be far from five thousand per cent. Practically, the matter has been satisfactorily tested. Before the discovery of California, gold was produced in considerable quantities in North Carolina. It was a regular branch of industry, and paid an average profit with other kinds of business. This will be seen by referring to tables showing the produce of American mines. While the general prices of merchandise and labor were at the usual rates, say from 1828 to 1834, the mines were advantageously wrought, but as the great expansion came on, and prices advanced as they did, near one hundred per cent, (flour, labor, &c.,) the mines could no longer be wrought, and were suspended until 1842. The fact you will ascertain very readily, and it is perfectly conclusive, and corresponds, as I think, with the true theory of the subject."

Now, in reply to the above, I have to say, that I must be excused if I still endeavor to maintain the principle of the objectionable proposition. The mind of my correspondent appears to have been occupied more with the actual and practical than with the theoretical. But I am free to confess, that I was not sufficiently careful in stating the principle I intended

to inculcate, so as it might have been understood by others. The proposition ought either to have been expressed in more guarded terms, or in a more practical manner. Let us therefore endeavor to state it more plainly. Suppose the face of the earth to be covered with a hundred nations of equal capital, each using the same commodity as a standard of value and a medium of exchange, and that commodity being exclusively produced in one country. The principle contended for, then, is, that the *original* circulating medium of the producing country would have to be increased five-fold, or five hundred per cent, before the prices of other commodities could be raised five per cent, so as to react upon the producer to that extent. But the advance of prices would be even slower than this. As this particular commodity became cheaper, more of it would be consumed for other purposes than currency, and it would be liable to be hoarded by all persons earning more than they were required to spend, as it would at all times be the most convenient and reliable commodity for that purpose. Now, if it were necessary to prove the truth of this reasoning, the facts are at hand to do so.

According to a statement lately put forth at one of the monthly meetings of the New York Historical Society, and obtained from official sources, we have within the last six years produced from California three times as much gold as we possessed before, and have exported more than two-thirds of the amount. And still it is produced, and still it will be exported to foreign countries. Thus it does not appear to me that the case of the North Carolina mines is at all in point. Their working did not cease to be profitable from an over-production of gold, but from a reaction of prices, caused by a sudden expansion of paper, which was as current for the time as gold money, and notwithstanding it had the power to inflate prices, it was entirely worthless, and could neither be exported nor put to any useful purpose. It must be a long time, even at the present rate of production, before gold-getting in California will have a like effect upon the producers. Nevertheless, the North Carolina mines may again cease to be wrought, like two-thirds of those of Bolivia and Peru at the present time, whenever their relative fertility may be affected, either by an over-issue of paper money, a decrease in their own fertility, or the discovery of a new California. Having so far endeavored to explain the theoretical part of the subject, let us now attend to the more practical.

My correspondent proceeds as follows:—"Again; you say, page 545, 'The daily receipts of gold from California are so much capital and labor thrown away, as they will be presented to the rest of the world gratuitously.' The last remark is a mistake—the first correct. It is so much loss *to the world*, and we, as a nation, lose our share of it; but we do not by any means present them to the rest of the world gratuitously. We get our full value for them, minus the increased prices we pay for the commodities we take in exchange, caused by the increased quantity of currency occasioned by the production of gold."

In this point, also, I consider my correspondent mistaken, not in the common operation of the principles of political economy as laid down by the standard writers, but merely from want of due consideration of the *modus operandi* of the monetary system. Let us for a moment go back to the necessary laws of production in reference to *value*. There is no principle of political economy better understood, and few less questioned by standard writers, than that which teaches that an increased production,

without a necessary increase of labor, occasions no more *relative* value than before; and as it is with individuals, it might be fair to infer it is with nations. But let us suppose that the gold digger of California should eventually work *out* the gold digger of South America, there would of necessity be a greater production of gold in the meantime, not only from the increased number of laborers, but also from the increased rate of production from the new mines, and therefore, so far, a decreased value would most likely result.

But my friend will say that does not entirely meet the case. If we are not entitled to any *return* for the increased production, we are of necessity entitled to the value of the original quantity produced by the former gold digger, and therefore we do not give the *whole* to the rest of the world gratuitously. This is only a change of production; we are entitled to just as much value in exchange as though we had employed as much labor in the production of corn, cotton, or iron. This would certainly be so under ordinary circumstances. But we object, that it is not so in the case of the particular commodity in question. The relations of the precious metals to other commodities, and to the laws of production in general, are entirely abrogated by the laws and usages of society. By law a certain price is guarantied to these metals, let their relative value be what it may, and they are forced into the pockets of the community at that price, to pay previous debts and contracts; and the rest of the amount of the increased production goes into the general market, to swell the price of merchandise in the producing country. In this way the relative rate of wages and profits is decreased, and consumption of course diminished. Other nations take our gold in the high prices of their merchandise, while we sell them our raw produce at a minimum, until we can send them sufficient gold to purchase it at increased prices.

These views appear to me to be borne out by past and present experience, notwithstanding Dr. Smith appears to have expressed an opposite opinion when he assumed that gold could be profitably exported from a commercial country, and the gap made in the currency by such export be filled up with paper. In that case he would have been right also, when he attributed the enormous increase of the silver currency of the world solely to the extra fertility of the mines. We must, however, look deeper for the cause of that increase, which would never have taken place if silver had not been made the *measure* of value, and the *legal* equivalent for other commodities, begetting the foolish and extravagant notion, so universally held by all nations for hundreds of years, that the precious metals alone were wealth, and the only commodities that it was important to *produce* or secure. For nearly three hundred years all tariffs were made principally with the idea of obtaining these commodities above all others; and we still pursue the foolish system, since the idea is exploded, of taxing the imports only. It is no wonder, then, that upon any new discovery of the precious metals that a general rush should take place from all nations, for the mere chance of growing suddenly rich, and that great individual sacrifices should be made in this existing and gambling speculation. But the largest amount of loss will always accrue to the nation that monopolizes the production, especially if it be a populous and wealthy nation, having large amounts of other merchandise to sell, not peculiar to itself. Then, as I have intimated, it will cause great fluctuations in the demand for these commodities, and will prove a standing premium against other exports;

so that, finally, it will *absorb* a large amount of the capital of the producing country, and should the production of gold continue long enough in the United States to destroy the relative amount of capital and skill employed in other pursuits, the fate of Spain will be again exhibited. And, as it appears to me, nothing can prevent it but a radical change in our monetary system. If gold were divided among mankind by a less complicated process, the loss, if any, might be borne equally by all nations; but so long as it continues to be the *measure* of value and the *legal* equivalent for other commodities, and the *producing* nation has other merchandise to sell, so long must the loss of its production fall upon that nation. But when she is reduced to her own *peculiar* facilities, then no further loss can accrue, as gold will either cease to be produced, or the capital and labor employed in its production will obtain the same rate of profit as that employed in other pursuits. Now, it appears to me, that we must either be content with these doctrines, or accept that of Dr. Smith. Persons may take which horn of the dilemma they choose, but notwithstanding, I feel satisfied that, under *present* circumstances, when the gold digger produces gold faster than it can be consumed by the wear and tear of coin, and the relative increase of other commodities, he, as well as the banker, puts his hand into his neighbor's pocket, and the sooner the evil is abated the better for the community. One thing is certain, that we cannot obtain any more profit by applying capital and labor to gold-getting than could be obtained by applying it to other employments. Then, why should we run the risk of *crushing other important interests?* Hoping that these explanations may be deemed satisfactory, I have little more to say.

In other respects my correspondent and myself do not materially differ. He thinks that, upon the withdrawal of the small bank notes, about ten millions of treasury notes might be issued annually by the government up to fifty millions of dollars, and the people would get the advantage. But he does not see the necessity of paper money at all, if, as has been stated, the value of the currency cannot be augmented. He thinks it a mere matter of expediency, but as the people seem to be prejudiced in favor of paper money of some kind, they might have it in this shape, the only *safe* kind of paper money. I am very happy that the monetary reform proposed in the former article should so far meet with the approbation of a gentleman so apparently conservative, and one whose opinions are so much entitled to respect. I am quite sensible that in attempting the reform of any abuse we ought to be careful not to run into an opposite extreme. On the other hand, also, we ought to be careful that no injury is done to any legitimate interest. Therefore, believing to some extent that paper money is, or might be made to be, a commercial convenience, I am willing to fill up the gap that would be caused by the withdrawal of so many bank notes to the full extent of safety, that we may produce as slight a change as possible in existing engagements, and as slight an obstruction in commercial operations. By the means of treasuary notes much inconvenience and expense would be saved to the community in *domestic exchange;* and by a well-regulated post-office order system for small sums, the whole might be provided for. But if we had not already such a large amount of paper money in circulation, I admit the question would wear another aspect.

R. S.

Art. V.—THE LAW MERCHANT.

NUMBER IV.

RECEIPTS.

THE different acts and transactions occuring in the course of human dealings, which are likely to require to be proved at some future day, are carefully classified in law, and a convenient and appropriate mode of proof is prescribed for cases of each class. The *Receipt* is thus established as the appropriate evidence of a *Delivery*.

In illustration of the extent to which this classification of transactions is carried, we observe that the appropriate mode of preserving evidence of a transfer of land is by executing a Deed, according to the well-settled forms and rules for doing so. These forms and rules are framed with a view to provide a mode of proof, suitable and convenient under the common circumstances under which land is transferred.

Again, if the owner of property desires to perpetuate his intentions respecting its disposal after his death, so as to secure their being carried into effect, he must execute a Will, complying with the requisite formalities. These are prescribed by law, for the purpose of avoiding the dangers peculiar to this class of cases.

Again, if a cause has been decided in a court of justice, the evidence of the manner in which it was decided is a peculiar record, called a Judgment. This is a convenient and appropriate means of accomplishing its purpose.

But for a judge to make a will, setting forth how a certain lawsuit tried before him was decided—or for a man to state in a deed his plans for the disposal of his property after his death, and leave it to be found among his papers at his decease, would be entirely absurd.

Thus, numerous examples might be given of the extent to which the law has classified the different subjects of legal inquiry, and prescribed a means of proof appropriate to each class.

The *Receipt* has been established by custom and approved by law, as the evidence of *Delivery*. It is not the only means by which a delivery is allowed to be proved, but it is the usual and appropriate evidence of one.

Let us consider some other modes which the law might have adopted for proving deliveries, and ask whether any better one could have been adopted.

Deliveries might be proved by official certificates. There are quite a number of acts which are required to be performed in the presence of a mayor, or judge, or notary public, or some other public officer, and his certificate that the act was performed before him, is the appropriate evidence that it was performed. But the objection to selecting this mode of proving deliveries would be, that the number of cases is so immense that there would not be a sufficient number of public officers to attend to them —unless, indeed, a special class were created for the purpose. Nor is it convenient, ordinarily, to spare time to go and find such an officer. Half the buying and selling in the country would be stopped, if it were necessary for the parties to seek out an officer and deliver the goods and pay the money in his presence, and pay him a fee for his certificate.

Another plan, which would entirely avoid this expense and inconvenience, but would be open to serious objection of a different kind, would be to allow any person who made a delivery to testify to it in his own behalf. There are certain facts to which a man may testify in his own case. For instance, if he takes a journey by railroad, and his trunk is lost by the company, and he brings a suit against them to recover the value of it—in such a case, after he has proved by other witnesses that he put his trunk on board the train, and that it was lost, he may himself testify to what was in it, and how much the articles were worth. The reason for allowing him to do so is, that no other evidence can ordinarily be had; since it is not reasonable to expect travelers to pack their trunks in the presence of witnesses, in order to provide against the contingency of losing them. Now, in like manner, a man who is sued for money and says he has paid it, might be allowed to testify in his own behalf that he has paid it, instead of its being expected that he should produce a receipt. But the objection to this plan is, that it is not safe to allow men to testify in their own behalf, except in cases where it is absolutely necessary. And, generally speaking, this is not necessary in cases of property delivered.

Neither of these plans would really answer the purpose. The transactions which involve deliveries, of goods and of money, are extremely numerous. They range through all degrees of pecuniary importance; they take place under every conceivable variety of time, place, and circumstance. They are conducted, now by the most sagacious and skillful business men—now by the least experienced. Therefore, they require a mode of proof which it shall be at all times convenient to provide, which shall be flexible and easily applied, even by persons not much accustomed to legal forms, to the constantly varying cases which arise, and which, upon the other hand, shall be worthy of trust and confidence, not open to constant suspicion. All these requisites are embraced in the Receipt.

The Receipt is the acknowledgment that property has been delivered, executed on behalf of the recipient, and given to the party making the delivery, as evidence that it has been made.

It is the acknowledgment of the delivery, executed on the part of the recipient. This feature of the instrument is what gives it value as evidence. The admission of a fact by the party interested to deny it, is excellent evidence that it occurred. And thus it is that the danger of dishonest testimony which would be incurred by allowing men to testify in their own behalf, that they had paid money or delivered goods, is wholly avoided; and on this account, it is evident that no statement of a third person, not acting on behalf of the recipient, can amount to a receipt. Witnesses who were present and saw the property delivered, may testify to the fact, and prove it very satisfactorily. But this is an essentially distinct and different mode of proving it.

The receipt is given to the party making the delivery, as his evidence of it. Its chief convenience arises from the custom of placing it in the hands of the party interested in preserving evidence of the facts. Hence, the acknowledgment must be embodied in some tangible form, as by writing, printing, or otherwise, to render its transfer possible. No *oral* admission can operate as a receipt, though it may be proved by witnesses who heard it uttered, and when proved, will be evidence of the fact admitted.

Receipts are, as has been already observed, equally the appropriate evi-

dence of the payment of money and of the delivery of articles of personal property. But it is in cases of payment of money that the great majority of them are taken. They are not so usually desired in cases where articles of property are delivered. And as the use and construction of both kinds of receipts are similar, we shall hereafter speak more particularly of those given for the payment of money. But it may be understood that, except where special exception is stated or clearly implied, the same remarks are applicable to the case of receipts for articles of personal property.

SEALED RECEIPTS.

There is a difference between the sealed and the unsealed receipt, which is not easily explained, without recalling the history of the art of writing.

There were times, many years ago, in England when the art of writing, instead of being the common accomplishment of the whole community, was a profession by itself. Not a profession by itself in the sense in which medicine is, or law—a calling which no person could lawfully exercise unless specially licensed to do so—but rather as music is, or lecturing, or acting. Any man may sing, or lecture, or act, that can and chooses—in private or in public, for money or gratuitously. But these arts are not considered at the present day as essential to a common education, and practically they are, as a general thing, exercised by persons who choose them as professions. It was so with writing in early times. Any man might write that chose to learn. But very few did learn; and there was a class of persons known as *scriveners* or *clerks*, who learned to write as their profession, and earned their living by writing for those who could not. Indeed, there was a prevalent disposition in those early days to look with some contempt upon writing and writers. To be descended from an ancient family—to live in an old castle—to own a large estate—to have numerous tenants—to enjoy leisure for hunting and other out-of-door sports—was the pride of the English noble in old times, and naturally enough his dependents shared his enthusiasm for these objects and his contempt for others.

Writing was of little service to men who had only these objects in life, and the nobleman and his squires considered that art as effeminate; and held the quiet man, dressed in black, whom they sent for to write for them upon occasion, in very much the same degree of estimation that the aristocracy of the present day hold the musicians whom they invite to their parties for the sake of their musical acquirements, and for whom, when supper time comes, they set a table in a room by themselves. It is a great change that has taken place in public sentiment between the time when there were writers only here and there, and the art was lightly esteemed, and the present day, when not to know how to write is a disgrace, and men are better known in banks and counting-houses by their autographs than by their faces! It would scarcely be a greater change if singing should come to be an essential element in education, and bankers should become accustomed to distinguish their customers each by his particular tune, and the style and manner and peculiar flourishes with which he sang it at the counter!

One great cause of the change in public sentiment in respect to writing is undoubtedly to be found in the greatly increased frequency of occasions for writing. In those early times it was, in fact, only when a document

affected the title to land that it was desirable it should be specially authenticated by its author. The innumerable business documents now daily used by whole communities of merchants and their clerks, were then, many of them, unknown, and the others were employed only now and then by a few traders. Commercial correspondence was confined to these few traders also. There was but little correspondence of friends—partly because there was not that separation of relatives, connections, and acquaintance which prevails now, for the sons lived where their father did, and succeeded to his possessions and employments; partly for want of facilities for transmitting letters, for the English post-office is only about a hundred and fifty years old.

No occasions for writing arose from literary employments or pursuits, for these were almost unknown, except among professed scholars, chiefly the clergy; so that, upon the whole, the ancient English gentry could manage very well without writing, except when they desired to execute a legal document conveying an interest in lands. Land was the favorite possession in those days—in fact there was but little else to possess; and when a landed proprietor wished to sell or mortgage his estate, then, and scarcely ever except then, it was desirable that he himself, and no one else, should sign the deed, or in some such way should testify his assent to it. The mode of doing so which was adopted was, for the person who executed the paper to set his seal to it. At first, only persons of rank and churches and corporations had a right to use such seals. But this right was soon exercised by all who chose; and most people had each his own seal, engraved with some picture, motto, or device, which he was accustomed to affix to instruments of great importance in token that he assented to them.

Letters and papers of ordinary consequence were simply written by the scriveners and clerks; or perhaps the party for whom they were written would make the sign of the cross at the foot of the document, and the scrivener would write the name of the signer upon the cross. One who executes a document in this way is said to "make his mark."

Of course, this system would have offered great opportunities for forgery, if there had been temptations to forgery; but it answered well enough when it was only now and then in the course of years that men had occasion to sign papers. The state of affairs was then in principle, though not in degree, much like that which prevails among Indian tribes, where the warrior known as "The Great Bear," or "The Little Tomahawk," or "The Crooked Snake," when he is called upon to sign his assent to a treaty, makes a rough diagram of a bear, or a tomahawk, or a snake, at the foot of the paper, and then goes back to his hunting or fishing, with no prospect of being called upon to sign his name again for ten or a dozen years.

Undoubtedly, as the custom of signing names gradually spread, in the lapse of years, the usage of sealing documents would gradually have disappeared, if it had not been for the fact that there are two distinct classes of documents—those which are executed with an intention of binding the person who executes them conclusively, and are consequently executed with great care and caution; and those which it is understood are to be subject to future correction or explanation, should occasion arise. These two classes of documents always have existed, and always must exist; and it is important that there should be provided some ready means of distinguishing between them.

It often happens, for example, that two men who have had dealings together go over their accounts with care and accuracy, desiring to arrive at a settlement which shall be absolute and final, so that they may each dismiss their claims and liabilities respecting the other from their minds. The receipts which are given in such cases ought to be conclusive upon both the parties. It is the intention and desire of both parties that they shall be so. And it is convenient to have some simple and uniform mode of distinguishing a receipt intended to be thus conclusive from one given for a payment made under ordinary circumstances, written in haste and without much examination of accounts, or of the exact mutual rights existing between the parties. Any simple and easily applied sign is sufficient to mark this distinction, and it matters very little what sign is adopted, so that it is simple and easily applied. If a community of men should meet together to form a code of laws for the conduct of their business, and without any ancient usages to control or influence their decision, should come to consider what mode of distinguishing these different kinds of documents they would adopt, it is not very probable that they would choose wafering or pasting a little scrap of colored paper at the foot of a document as the best way of indicating that it was intended to be conclusive. But these things are never settled by reason and deliberation. They grow up insensibly by long usage and custom. Thus it was that the seal came to be used to denote a cautious and deliberate execution of an instrument. As it gradually became usual for people to write, the personal signature of the party interested took the place upon common instruments of the sign of the cross and the signature of the scrivener. But upon documents which were of great importance, and which were intended to be conclusive, the old-fashioned seal was retained.

Therefore at the present day, whenever a person executes a paper desiring that it shall be as conclusively binding as possible, it is usual for him to affix his seal to his signature. It is true, that these seals in most cases consist only of bits of paper gummed or wafered to the sheet, and commonly put on by the lawyer when he draws up the instrument. But they serve just as well as any other sign to show that the instrument belongs to the solemn and conclusive class.

The distinction, then, between the simple receipt and the sealed or special receipt is, that while the former is, to a very great extent, as will be more fully shown, open to explanation, and even to contradiction by the party who gave it, the sealed receipt is in general conclusive upon him, and absolutely binding. If, indeed, he can show that he was induced by a fraud to execute the receipt, he will be released; for it is a maxim of the law that fraud vitiates everything. But, as a general rule, in the absence of fraud, the courts of law consider a sealed receipt as binding upon the party giving it, no matter what error appears to exist in it.

In illustration of this principle we may refer to a case* once decided in England.

Rountree, the plaintiff in this case, was boatswain of a man-of-war. He brought the suit against a Jew named Jacob, living at Portsmouth, who made it his business to act as agent for seamen in collecting their money. Rountree alleged that Jacob had collected Rountree's wages from the government for him, and owed him the amount.

* Rountree *vs.* Jacob, 2 Taunton's Reports, 141.

Upon the trial, Rountree proved that Jacob had received from the government officers one hundred and three pounds of Rountree's wages, as his agent.

As a defense to Rountree's claim, Jacob produced an irrecoverable power of attorney executed by Rountree, authorizing Jacob to collect his wages, and a deed, also executed by Rountree, assigning the amount to Jacob.

The deed of assignment purported to have been made "in consideration of one hundred pounds twelve shillings," paid before the delivery of it; and upon this deed was indorsed a sealed receipt signed by Rountree, and stating that he had "received the within mentioned sum of one hundred pounds twelve shillings on the day and year aforesaid."

It is plain that these papers, if left unexplained, would show that Rountree sold the claim to Jacob, and received his pay at the time of the sale.

But to prove that this was not so, Rountree called the attesting witness to the deed, and desired him to explain the circumstances under which the deed and receipt were given. This witness was a clerk to the lawyer employed by the Jew Jacob. He testified that he prepared the assignment, and inserted the sum mentioned as paid, by the direction of Jacob; but that he read over both assignment and receipt to Rountree before the latter executed them, and that Rountree said they were right. But no money was paid to Rountree when he executed the papers. It also appeared that neither party had kept any account, or given or taken any vouchers of money advanced or received by Jacob, as agent of Rountree. Moreover, the plaintiff, Rountree, had sent word to Jacob before the trial, requiring him to produce his accounts on the trial, so as to show by his charges, if he could, when and in what amounts he had paid money to Rountree. Jacob did not do this, nor did he offer any evidence whatever to show that he had ever paid Rountree the amount. It was a fair inference, therefore, that he had not paid the money, or at least, that he had kept no proper account of it. However, the decision was in favor of Jacob, and Rountree appealed.

After the judges had heard the arguments on the appeal, one of them remarked, that where a man, by an instrument under seal, acknowledges himself to be satisfied, it was a good bar without his receiving anything. And the Court, after deliberating upon the case, decided that this was so; and that the sealed receipt was conclusive upon Rountree, notwithstanding the strong reasons for believing that he had never received his money.

But in thus speaking of receipts under seal, we refer to receipts distinct and independent in themselves, and do not include clauses acknowledging the payment of money, which are inserted in papers executed for other purposes. For example, it is common to say in a deed of land that the person who sells it, does so in consideration of such and such a sum, "the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged." This is a receipt, and it is under seal, for the whole deed is under seal. And this seal renders the whole deed, to a certain extent, conclusive and binding upon the parties to it, so far as its direct and leading object, viz., the conveyance of the land, is concerned. It is very properly considered, however, that this conclusive effect of the seal ought to be confined to the objects which the parties had distinctly in view. And the rules of law which have been laid

down by the courts in respect to the construction of receipts inserted in sealed instruments, are in general such as on the one hand preserve inviolable the leading object of the instrument, and on the other permit justice to be done, even after its execution, in matters collateral to that object.

Thus, it is pretty generally agreed that a receipt in a deed cannot be contradicted or explained away for the purpose of setting aside the conveyance, but may be for the purpose of recovering the money. The party who has executed such a deed is not allowed to bring a suit to recover back his land, saying, "I never was paid for this land, as is falsely stated in this receipt, therefore I ought to have my land back again." But he may sue for the money, saying, "It is not true that I received this money before I executed this deed, although it is so stated; therefore I ought to be paid now." And if he can clearly prove that he was not paid, he may recover the money, though not the land.

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FIRST AND SECOND MORTGAGES.

In the Court of Common Pleas. Special Term. Before Judge Woodruff. New York City, December 15, 1855. Augustus Jenkins *vs.* the Continental Insurance Company.

JUDGE W. The general proposition that a junior incumbrancer is entitled to redeem a prior mortgage, is, I apprehend, too well settled to be now opened for discussion. Such is the language of the elementary treatises, and the right is recognized in numerous adjudged cases: Fell *vs.* Brown, 2 Bro. C. C. 278; Stonehemer *vs.* Thompson, 2 Alk. 440; Knight *vs.* Knight, 3 p. Williams, 331, 4 Kent, Com. 162, Story Eq. Jur. sec. 1,023; Burnet *vs.* Denniston *et al.*, 5 Johns, ch 35; Pardee *vs.* Van Anken, 3 Barb., sec. 5, 535; Averill *vs.* Taylor, 4, Selden 44; Roosevelt *vs.* the President, &c. of the Bank of Niagara and others, Hopk., ch. 5, 579, (s. c. on appeal, 9 com. 409.)

And the same authorities appear to me to establish that the redeeming party, who is not himself liable as a principal debtor, but who is compelled to redeem for the protection of his own lien upon the mortgaged premises, is entitled to subrogation in the rights of the senior mortgagee. The right of the senior mortgagee to require payment of the mortgage debt, and upon default to file his bill and obtain a decree extinguishing the equity of redemption and foreclosing all who have an interest in the mortgaged premises, carries with it and implies a right in each one who is liable to be thus foreclosed, or rather in those who are entitled to the estate of the mortgagor in the land, or who have a legal or equitable interest therein, to pay the mortgage debt in discharge of such senior mortgage.

To this extent the right of foreclosure and the right of redemption are correlative.

But the right of the redeeming party to subrogation does not necessarily follow from the right of redemption, although the language used by some would seem to warrant that inference. That right depends upon the relation of the parties liable to be foreclosed, to each other, the particular situation of the party claiming such right, and especially and generally upon the inquiry whether such subrogation is necessary for the protection of the rights of the redeeming party and the preservation of his interest, and therefore upon the circumstances in which the right of redemption is sought to be exercised. Thus, when there are several successive mortgages upon the same premises, the mortgagor may have a decree for the re-

demption of the first mortgage, but he, by payment under such a decree, acquires no right to subrogation. He pays his debt, and the first mortgage becomes thereby satisfied. So the grantee of the mortgagor, holding the fee subject to the mortgages, may redeem the first mortgage, but he does not thereby become entitled to subrogation.

This illustration bears upon the present case no further than to show that the right to redeem does not necessarily include the right to subrogation to the condition of the first mortgage.

In the present case the defendants hold a mortgage which, according to its terms, is payable.

The plaintiff holds a mortgage given to secure a sum of money which will not become payable until the year 1858, and the question raised by the demurrer herein is, whether the plaintiff, to whom nothing is yet payable, who alleges nothing in his bill showing that it is in any manner necessary for his protection or the preservation of the security he holds, cannot only insist upon his right to pay off the first mortgage, but may also claim subrogation to the position of the first mortgagee, and compel the latter to assign to him the first bond and mortgage.

And this inquiry involves a consideration of the ground upon which the right of subrogation in equity proceeds, which, according to my view of the subject, is, that such subrogation is necessary to his protection, and this will be true when "in order to make his own claim beneficial or available," it is necessary "to disengage the property from the previous incumbrance."

No such necessity, nor any reason whatever, is stated in the complaint herein for seeking to redeem the first mortgage—for aught that appears in the complaint the mortgagor pays the interest accruing on the first mortgage promptly, and pays the interest accruing to the plaintiff as it becomes due, and is simply availing himself of the indulgence of the first mortgagee, and taking the credit which the terms of the plaintiff's mortgage give him. The first mortgagee does not call for the money, and does not wish to receive it.

The plaintiff appears to me to come as a mere volunteer, (to whom nothing is due—towards whom, for aught that appears, the mortgagor will perform every duty in due season for his protection,) to interfere between the first mortgagee and the debtor to compel the latter to pay the debt or submit to be foreclosed.

That these are circumstances in which such second mortgagee may not only redeem, but may require such a subrogation, cannot be denied; and when, as formerly, a mortgage was entitled to the actual possession of the mortgaged premises, and to the receipt of the rents and profits in payment of the mortgage debt, such right is no doubt general.

In this last case his title to the possession and the rents and profits cannot be exercised unless the prior incumbrance is removed.

But in this State no mortgagee can, by statute, maintain ejectment.

His only proceeding to reach the premises is by foreclosure, and so long as no sum either of interest or principal, is due to him, the prior incumbrance deprives him of no interest in or enjoyment of the lands mortgaged. He holds his mortgage as a mere security for the future payment of moneys not yet due, and which, for aught that appears and can be made to appear, will be paid to him by the mortgagor when the day of payment arrives.

If the first mortgage required that his debt should be paid—or was proceeding to foreclose—or if he, or the mortgagor, or both, were doing anything whatever, or were about to do anything which could operate to make the second mortgage any less secure or available than it was at the moment the holder of the latter received it as a security, he might with propriety and equity call upon the court, not only to suffer him to redeem but to compel an assignment of such first mortgage to him for his protection. I believe that in every case to which I have been referred by counsel, and all that I have examined, one of two reasons for claiming redemption and subrogation existed—either the second mortgage debt (or the debt secured by the subordinate lien when redemption was sought by a lien holder by judgment or otherwise) was actually due and payable, or the holder of the first mortgage was about to foreclose, or do some act which operated to impair the security of the claimant.

When the second mortgage becomes payable, the holder comes with a full right to require that the property be applied to the payment of the sum due to himself, and this cannot be done without "disengaging it from previous incumbrances," and on the other hand, the holder of the first mortgage demands his money, or is proceeding to foreclose, then the second mortgagee may rightfully insist upon redeeming, and upon being subrogated to the rights of the first mortgage. If the claim to redemption comes from one who has received an absolute conveyance of the equity of redemption, the right to redeem is of course absolute and unqualified. But the second mortgagee in this case has only a conditional conveyance of that equity. He holds it merely as security, and unless he can show some reason why it is necessary for the preservation of his security that he should redeem, I perceive no sufficient reason for the interposition of the Court to enable him to obtain the possession and control of the first mortgage debt. He has already all that he bargained for, and, so far as appears from the present complaint, all to which he is equitably entitled. The purpose or motive prompting him to seek the redemption is not disclosed by the present complaint; he rests on the naked fact that he holds a second mortgage not yet payable. If the Court may consider what, from the description of the mortgaged premises given in the complaint, seems probable, viz.: that the premises consist of a single lot of ground, with the buildings thereon incapable of a sale in parcels, the plaintiff seeks by obtaining the control of the first mortgage, to place himself in a position in which he may practically compel the payment of his own mortgage debt, although it will not be payable until 1858; for, obviously, if he foreclose the first mortgage, and the premises cannot be sold in parcels, he will, so far as the premises are sufficient, be able to collect both debts, unless the mortgagor is prepared to pay off the first mortgage.

So far as the condition of the second mortgage may be likened to that of a surety for the payment of the first mortgage—and I am aware that it has to some extent been so regarded—so far he is entitled to be treated with favor in a court of equity, and I am free to say that slight grounds to apprehend loss would be sufficient to warrant his prayer for the relief sought in this case; and if it appeared that the property was depreciating in value, or that it was not kept in repair, or that he had received his mortgage without actual knowledge of the existence of the first mortgage, or upon an express agreement, or even a plain duty on the part of the mortgagor to pay off the first incumbrance when it became due, so as to render the second mortgage available for any ulterior purposes had in view at the time of its delivery, I think the Court should in either of these cases, as well as in others before mentioned, grant him such relief. But upon the merely naked statement that he holds a mortgage on the equity of redemption, conditioned for a future payment not yet due, it appears to me that he makes no case calling for the interference of a court of equity. He has no absolute interest in the equity of redemption, the mortgage being, under our laws, a mere security; he does not hold the whole interest of the mortgagor. The equity of redemption is pledged to him, it is true, but with a condition hitherto fully performed, (so far as appears by the complaint,) and which may be fully performed in the future. He shows no reason why the Court should interfere in his relief for any purpose. It will be in season to invoke such interposition when his mortgagor makes some default in the performance of the condition, or when the first mortgagee calls for payment, or when some fact can be alleged showing that his own security is in peril, or that the mortgagor is suffering either the property to depreciate or the first mortgage debts to accumulate, or that the security is inadequate, or that the mortgagor is in the receipt of the rents and profits, without applying them towards the reduction of the first mortgage, or that some other reason exists for interference to save him from loss.

It is quite possible that special circumstances exist, in the present case, which, if alleged, would make the plaintiff's case quite clear; and, on the other hand, it may prove to be a contest between two mortgage creditors as to who shall have the benefit of a safe investment on bond and mortgage which the mortgagor has no desire to pay off. If the latter be the truth, it is obvious that the mortgagor, by giving to the defendants another mortgage, even for one hundred dollars, on a

credit of ten or twenty years, would place them in as good a position—even if the plaintiff was to have a decree herein—to claim, in their turn, a redemption of the first mortgage, as the plaintiff is now in.

The considerations I have mentioned, very naturally, I think, suggest the inquiry—whether, in any view of the case, a decree could be made for the plaintiff without having the mortgagor before the court, and also the present owner of the fee? The demurrer raises no such objection to the plaintiff's complaint; but inquiry may be useful if the plaintiff should think proper to amend his complaint in other respects, and deem it prudent to bring in other parties. (See Fell *vs.* Brown, 2 Born. C. C., 278, and 3 P. Williams, 331, Stonehemer *vs.* Thompson.)

My conclusion is, that the demurrer should be sustained, with leave to the plaintiff to amend on the usual terms.

INNKEEPERS' LIABILITY FOR MONEY AND MERCHANDISE LOST.

In the Court of Common Pleas, New York city, January 11th, 1856. Van Wyck *vs.* Howard.

DALY, J. The argument at the close of the trial, that the plaintiff might take judgment for the value of the jewelry, $32, was an admission of the competency of the witness Forbes, of the sufficiency of the assignment, and a waiver of the objection made to certain questions as leading. The only point, therefore, to be determined is, whether the plaintiff can recover for the money which was lost.

An innkeeper's liability is not limited, like that of a carrier of passengers, to the care merely of that species of property which comes under the denomination of baggage. The carrier of passengers performs a distinct employment. He undertakes to transport the passenger and his baggage. The baggage is what travelers usually carry with them, or what is essential or necessary to the traveler in the course of his journey. The care of it is incident to and forms a part of the contract for the carriage of the passenger, for which the carrier is compensated by the fare or rate agreed upon. But for anything beyond mere baggage the carrier is entitled to extra compensation, it is not embraced or compensated for in the fare paid by the passenger, and if he has anything with him not coming under the denomination of baggage, of which the carrier is not advised, for the carriage of which he receives nothing, it is at the risk of the passenger, and the carrier is not liable in the event of its loss.

But the occupation of the innkeeper is different. He keeps a place of entertainment for the reception of all who travel, whether in their own vehicle or otherwise, in which the farmer carrying his produce to market, the trader vending his wares about the country, the traveler with simply his baggage, or the passenger journeying on foot, equally find accommodation; and where provision is made not merely for the personal entertainment of the guest, but for the housing and safe keeping of the property he brings with him, while he rests or reposes at the inn. In modern times, great changes have taken place in respect to the nature of the accommodation afforded by inns. Anciently, the inn was a kind of warehouse or hotel, in which travelers, in journeying from one part of the country to the other for the purposes of trade or Commerce, found a temporary accommodation for their merchandise.

But now, that superior facilities exist for the transportation of merchandise, as respects the cost, the speed, and the security of its transport, this description of inn has fallen very much into disuse, except in remote or sparsely settled districts. In cities and large towns, to which travelers journey by railroad or steamboat, inns—or, as they are commonly known in this country, hotels—are simply establishments for the reception of travelers accompanied merely with their ordinary baggage. The proprietors of such establishments, as they make no provision of the kind of accommodation that was afforded by the ancient inns, are under no obligation to receive a traveler with merchandise, and may, if they think proper, refuse to house or take care of it.

But whatever may be the nature of the inn, or the kind of accommodation afforded, if the innkeeper receives the guest and his goods, he charges himself with

their safe keeping. The moment the goods are *infra hospitium*, the liability of the innkeeper attaches, and that liability extends to goods, chattels, and movables of any kind or description which the traveler brings with him. (Colyes Case, 8 Coke, 32; Anthon's Law Student, 55.) The defendant, therefore, was chargeable with the safe keeping of Forbes's portmanteau and all that it contained; and even if the defendant's liability extended no farther than the care of the luggage of his guests, the money lost would come within what is usually known as baggage. Forbes was a traveler who had just arrived from Europe, having in his portmanteau $450 in foreign and American gold pieces—a sum which no Court or jury could say was more than was necessary for his ordinary traveling expenses. The plaintiff is entitled to judgment of $482.

DECISIONS ON THE LAW OF COPARTNERSHIP.

In the Supreme Court, New York, General Term, 1854. Before Hon. Judges Mitchell, Roosevelt, and Clerke. Mills *vs.* Thursby.

ROOSEVELT, J.—That a partnership was formed between Mills and Thursby admits of no dispute. That the particular partnership mentioned in the unexecuted written articles was not consummated, I think equally clear. The refusal to execute the articles after they were drawn is decisive on that point, to say nothing of the injustice and absurdity of one, at least, of their provisions. What, then, so far as they had any, was the unwritten understanding of the parties, or their presumed understanding, resulting from the justice and equity of the case? Mills, in fact, put in no capital, although he had stipulated to do so. Thursby, temporarily, at least, loaned or let to the firm the establishment and its appurtenances. As each was to contribute equally his whole time and skill, each, in the absence of any reason or provision to the contrary, was to be entitled to an equal half of the profits. In estimating these, however, it is manifest that the rent or interest of the stock and establishment was first to be deducted, and paid or credited to Thursby; or, which is the same thing, the half was to be credited to Thursby, and charged to Mills, individually. Thus, assuming the value of the establishment, &c., to be $30,000, and treating that amount as a sum of money loaned by Thursby to the firm, he would be entitled to $2,100 per annum. As a member of the firm, he would pay one-half of this to himself, and by a charge in his favor and against Mills, the latter would pay the other half. Such an arrangement, however, could only answer for a very short time; for interest at 7 per cent, it is apparent, is no equivalent for any length of time for the use of machinery. Accordingly, the period, we find, was limited to less than sixty days. This period Mills, contrary to, and in violation of, the understanding, protracted to more than eighteen months. He has no right, therefore, to confine Thursby to the basis of merely legal interest. Either a suitable rent should be charged—not less, probably, than 10 per cent—or interest at 7, and a liberal allowance in addition, for wear and tear of machinery. The idea of rent does not appear to have been suggested on the reference; and on the other hand there has been no allowance for wear and tear. There is a charge, it is true, of about $7,000 "for new engine, machinery, and building," placed to the expense account; and as this went in reduction of profits, it was in effect paid half by each partner. The referees, therefore, in giving the things purchased wholly to Thursby, have very properly required him to pay the whole of their cost. But this circumstance, instead of removing the objection arising from wear and tear, rather aggravates it, for Thursby, in this way, not only gets no compensation for the diminished value of the original machinery, but none for the diminished value of the superadded $7,000 worth, which had been in use nearly eighteen months. Had Mills, as he agreed, promptly paid, and taken a conveyance of the one undivided half, he would have borne, as a necessary consequence, his equal half of the loss. And shall he profit by his own default? Especially when he avers, as he does in his replication to Thursby's answer, that "he was always abundantly able to pay the amount agreed, and only deferred payment thereof, under his agreement, in order to sell a portion of his farm advantageously." Consulting thus his own advantage, in breach of his obligation to Thursby, shall

he be permitted to throw the loss upon Thursby also? For wear and tear of machinery is a loss as much as destruction by fire, or by bad debts. But Thursby has not only been charged with the full value of the machinery, as if it were good as new, or at least as good as when first used by the partnership, but also with the outstanding debts, as if they were actual cash in hand. He claimed, it is true, an exclusive right to these debts; but he did so, it must be remembered, on the assumption that there was no partnership. Taking away his supposed right, we cannot properly charge him with its consequent burden. If Mills is to be adjudged a partner, and as such entitled to an equality of profits, every principle of justice requires that, like other partners, he should be subjected to an equality of losses. These debts, it will be borne in mind, being in the partnership name, were as much open to collection by Mills as by Thursby, and there would seem to be no better reason for charging them to Thursby, as cash received by him, than to Mills, as cash received by him. If Thursby, in fact, collected them, he should be charged with them; but that fact, like any other, if it existed, was not to be presumed, but proved. Mills, without any knowledge of the business, and without any contribution of capital, demands half the profits; and that as against a man who had an established custom—who contributed the means, and all his own time and labor. Such a claim, it is obvious, challenges no peculiar favor. It seems to me, therefore, that the representatives of Thursby, if they desire it, should have an opportunity of showing these errors, if in reality they amount to a sum of sufficient magnitude to warrant the expense; and that, at all events, being an equity case, no costs, under the circumstances, should be charged against them, beyond the one-half of the referees' fees.

Mitchell, J. I concur in the opinion of my brother Roosevelt, that no cash should be paid by the defendant beyond the one-half of the referees' fees. Most extravagant claims were set up by the plaintiff, and which must have forbidden an early compromise or settlement of the suit, and they were mostly found against him. He claimed that the defendant was to contribute $30,000 to the firm, and he to contribute only $15,000 or $20,000. The referees find that he was to pay the $15,000, not to the firm, when he would be immediately a half-owner of it, but to Thursby individually. He admits that Thursby was an illiterate man, and yet he relied on a draft agreement, in which his version of the agreement was contained, but which Thursby refused to sign as evidence of such an agreement. The referees find against that instrument. He insisted he had paid his whole share of the capital into the firm; the referees find that he has paid nothing, but only contributed his attention and time. He claimed that, by the books, over $11,000 were due to him for his share of profits on 1st January, 1848; the referees find that it was only about half that sum.

He alleged that improvements were made to machinery, &c., to the amount of $25,000; the referees find the sum to be a little over $7,000. He alleges that there was due him $28,000; the referees find it to be $14,094 49, besides interest. Lastly, the referees do not give him costs. It is an equity case between partners, and the accounting was necessary; it was right, therefore, that each shall pay half the referees' fees, and pay his own costs. As to the wear and tear of machinery, if the plaintiff is liable for that, he might also be entitled to the appreciation in the value of the real estate. That appreciation is not proved, but on the other hand the fact that the machinery was not kept by the repairs equal to what it was in the beginning is not proved. As to bad debts, there was no proof that there were any such, and considering the healthy state of business from February, 1847, to August, 1848, it is not likely there were many in fact. The referees had no proof that any were bad, and so assumed that all were good. If the judgment, therefore, is affirmed, except as to the costs, and with leave to the defendant, notwithstanding the judgment, to move to open the reference on the question as to bad debts and wear and tear of machinery, provided he can clearly satisfy the court, at special term, that injustice has been done to him in those matters to an amount exceeding at least $1,000, justice may be thus done to both parties, the defendant in such case immediately paying to the plaintiff all the amount of the modified judgment, except the sum as to which the special term shall be satisfied he was injured.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

PRESSURE IN THE MONEY MARKET—DISAPPEARANCE OF COIN—HEALTHY CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY TRADE—INTERNAL EVIDENCES OF PROSPERITY—FOREIGN EXCHANGE—POLITICAL TROUBLES IN THEIR INFLUENCE ON COMMERCIAL AFFAIRS—REVISION OF THE TARIFF—THE BANK MOVEMENT AT BOSTON, NEW YORK, PHILADELPHIA, AND BALTIMORE—DEPOSITS AT THE NEW YORK ASSAY OFFICE—IMPORTS AT NEW YORK, BOSTON, PHILADELPHIA, AND BALTIMORE—COMMERCE OF NEW YORK FOR THE YEAR—EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT ALL THE PORTS OF THE UNITED STATES IN A VARIETY OF PARTICULARS WITH COMPARATIVE TABLES, ETC.

THE most noticeable feature in the aspect of commercial affairs, during the last month, has been the pressure in the money market, which has been felt in all parts of the country, but has been most severe at the North and East. In Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, capital readily commanded 10 a 12 per cent per annum, upon prime securities, and was not plenty even at these high rates. There appears to have been an unusual absorption of capital by the community outside of the banks. Especially about the first of January several millions of specie disappeared from the ordinary channels of trade without having been shipped from the country. Part of it went to replenish private purses which had become exhausted during the previous scarcity, but there has been much of it hoarded by those whose savings are hidden away from every human eye save their own. The extraordinary pressure just before New Year's Day was explained by the calling in of loans preparatory to the grand disbursements made for interest, dividends, &c., on or about the first of January. It was generally supposed that as soon as these amounts were again released, the supply of capital would be abundant, and rates of interest in favor of the borrower. The issue has disappointed all these hopes; the pressure was greater at New York after the first two weeks of January than before, and several weak houses were obliged to yield to its severity and suspend payments, and it was not until after the middle of the month that the pressure abated.

There is a large amount of capital distributed through the interior, and this must be gathered up and returned in part to the seaboard, before there can be any permanent change in the money market. The country is rich beyond comparison with any former period of its history, and has within it all the elements of commercial prosperity. If these are developed with less symmetry than could be desired, it is still a satisfaction to know that we are making progress in the right direction.

Foreign exchange has been comparatively inactive. Bankers who have granted large credits abroad have been obliged to purchase in order to cover their account, but importers have found it quite enough to meet their payments for duties, and have not been able to purchase freely of foreign bills even when offered at a concession in prices. Sixty-day bills on London have sold at New York, during the month, mostly at 108 a 108¼, but second class bills have been purchased at very irregular rates.

The political troubles hinted at in our last, have created but little excitement since we wrote, until just at the close, the question was again partially revived by the rumors concerning the dismissal of the British minister resident at Washington, and the probable recall of Mr. Buchanan. It can hardly be possible that two

nations bound by so many ties of interest and affection, as are England and the United States, can become involved in any serious difficulties growing out of any of the questions now under discussion. Some think that it is the purpose of England and France to draw us into the present European controversy, that we may not profit commercially by our position as neutrals. But we do not believe that any such purpose is entertained, and we give our trans-Atlantic kinsmen credit for more sense than to desire such a consummation.

Our country is, in a great measure, unprepared for war, but we shall prove something more than make-weights in any balance in which our interest shall be cast, and we cannot think that any European power, however confident of its present superiority, would wantonly provoke us to a declaration of hostility.

Since our last was written the message of the President has been submitted to Congress, but as it has been widely published and commented upon by the daily press, we need not further allude to it. The report of the Secretary of the Treasury has been acceptable to nearly all classes, especially in the proposed modification of the tariff. If the raw materials can be admitted into the country duty free, such duties on manufactured articles as may be required for revenue will abundantly satisfy the friends of domestic industry.

The banks have done what they could during the recent pressure to accommodate their customers and relieve the market. At New York the discount lines have generally increased, as will appear from the following comparison :—

WEEKLY AVERAGES NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Date.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Dec. 15, 1855.	49,244,620	93,800,038	11,584,075	7,701,052	76,820,517
Dec. 22.....	49,244,620	94,380,487	12,088,359	7,788,893	77,241,006
Dec. 29.....	49,244,620	95,114,060	10,788,099	7,841,946	80,438,627
Jan. 5, 1856.	49,453,660	95,863,390	11,687,209	7,903,656	83,534,893
Jan. 12.....	49,453,660	96,145,408	11,777,711	7,612,507	77,931,498
Jan. 19.....	49,453,660	96,382,968	13,385,260	7,462,706	82,652,828

The fluctuations in specie are not owing to exports, but to the absorption in the country, already noticed in this article, part of which is now flowing back to us. The changes in the deposits are more apparent than real, as the checks drawn on one bank and deposited in another are included, and large sums are thus reckoned twice. If business is active and payments large, this class of deposits is, of course, largely increased.

The following will show the movement in Boston :—

WEEKLY AVERAGES AT BOSTON.

	December 17.	December 24.	December 31.	January 7.	January 14.
Capital.....	$31,960,000	$31,960,000	$31,960,000	$31,960,000	$31,960,000
Loans and discounts..	50,341,584	50,205,893	51,234,192	51,662,726	51,746,279
Specie.....	3,638,142	3,735,363	3,519,153	3,475,446	3,513,076
Due from other banks	8,067,776	7,618,916	7,399,192	8,054,069	7,092,250
Due to other banks..	5,097,292	5,395,581	5,503,512	5,904,488	5,552,930
Deposits.....	14,282,222	14,288,755	14,167,256	14,769,352	14,147,160
Circulation.....	7,750,896	7,512,650	7,670,446	7,995,407	7,828,617

We also annex a statement of the condition of the Massachusetts banks, distinguishing between the Boston and the country banks, on January 7th, the date of the last monthly statement :—

LIABILITIES.

	36 city.	132 country.	Total.
Capital	$31,960,000	$26,227,000	$58,187,000
Net circulation	5,546,935	12,511,827	18,057,762
Deposits	14,769,352	5,960,865	20,730,217
Profits on hand	3,482,092	2,513,873	5,995,970
Total	$55,757,379	$47,213,570	$102,970,949

RESOURCES.

Notes, bills of exchange, &c.	$51,662,726	$45,560,150	$97,222,876
Specie	3,475,446	1,022,285	4,497,731
Real estate	619,207	631,135	1,250,342
Total	$55,757,379	$47,213,570	$102,070,949

The above statement exhibits, upon comparison with the 1st day of January, 1855, an increase in the items of capital of $872,392; of net circulation, $1,738,194; of deposits, $4,028,586; of loans, $6,533,105; and of specie, $770,219.

The following is a comparative statement of the condition of the Baltimore banks, on or about January 1st, in each of the last eight years :—

	Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
1856	$16,397,369	$2,832,762	$3,578,480	$6,485,352
1855	14,279,363	2,484,946	2,638,708	5,858,628
1854	14,969,213	2,848,708	2,956,532	6,962,939
1853	14,291,221	2,991,910	3,328,058	6,021,707
1852	11,428,509	1,967,564	2,180,667	3,912,977
1851	11,733,716	2,330,174	2,281,918	4,528,966
1850	10,924,113	2,113,758	2,973,588	3,648,817
1849	9,797,417	1,781,911	1,825,168	2,827,896

The last statement of the Philadelphia banks was made up to November 4th, 1855, but has just been published by the Auditor-General of Pennsylvania. It is as follows :—

LEADING ITEMS OF THE PHILADELPHIA BANKS, NOVEMBER 4, 1855.

Names.	Capital stock.	Circulation.	Due depositors.	Bills discounted.	Specie.
Philadelphia Bank	$1,150,000	$423,330	$1,285,174	$2,858,981	$301,513
Bank of Pennsylvania	1,875,000	834,139	1,675,791	3,098,360	583,814
Bank of Commerce	250,000	155,925	525,662	680,512	332,318
Manuf. and Mech. Bank	300,000	335,675	566,930	943,707	317,446
Mechanics' Bank	800,000	337,556	1,129,335	1,679,696	187,066
Western Bank	418,600	226,245	915,342	1,221,498	193,364
Bank of N. Liberties	450,000	195,284	868,412	1,075,810	88,509
Farmers' and Mech. Bank	1,250,000	381,600	1,734,171	2,624,399	436,870
Bank of Penn Town Township	350,000	182,065	747,703	1,018,637	102,016
Commercial Bank	1,000,000	285,019	989,616	2,027,494	67,331
Girard Bank	1.250,000	633,940	1,042,948	1,493,517	404,223
Bank of N. America	1,000,000	424,690	1,794,452	2,033,429	408,264
Southwark Bank	250,000	157,215	772,846	877,869	197,735
Kensington Bank	250,000	155,230	595,398	748,896	154,168
Tradesmen's Bank	150,000	160,365	428,886	444,248	134,585
Consolidation Bank	250,000	73,915	184,413	381,303	50,033
Bank of Germantown	200,000	121,404	280,764	538,292	41,223
Total	11,193,600	5,063,585	14,637,855	24,966,666	4,101,478
Same time 1854	10,700,000	4,692,146	14,942,602	25,285,319	3,940,139
Same time 1853	10,700,000	5,079,631	13,640,933	21,964,702	5,294,050

Under the head of specie, several of these banks include "specie items," which swells the total beyond the actual stock of coin on hand.

The deposits at the New York Assay Office continue large. The following will show the total for December :—

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

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Foreign coins	$4,000 00	$9,000 00	$13,000 00
Foreign bullion	33,000 00	37,697 00	70,697 00
Domestic bullion	3,263,000 00	24,000 00	3,287,000 00
Total deposits	$3,300,000 00	$70,697 00	$3,370,697 00
Total deposits payable in bars			813,000 00
Total deposits payable in coins			2,557,697 00
Gold bars stamped			2,540,325 76
Transmitted to U. States Mint, Philadelphia, for coinage			2,540,325 76

The deposits for bars were all in the early part of the month, the later deposits being all for coin, since the demand for export ceased. Included in the United States gold were $200,000 California Branch Mint bars. The Philadelphia Mint has been closed for several months for repairs, and will not probably be opened for a month or two to come. Meanwhile the stock of bullion awaiting coinage is largely accumulating.

The following will show the comparative imports at New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore for the years :—

	1853.	1854.	1855.
New York	$194,097,652	$181,371,472	$157 860,238
Boston	43,317,379	46,480,444	41,984,013
Philadelphia	.....	18,724,584	15,008,787
Baltimore	6,331,671	7,750,387	7,772,591

THE RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT THE ABOVE-NAMED PORTS WERE AS FOLLOWS:—

	New York.	Boston.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.
1855	$34,387,308	$7,733,784	$3,533,517	$837,587

We annex some farther summary statements of the Commerce of New York for the year, reserving, however, full details for a future issue, in a separate article. The total foreign imports at New York for December, 1855, were $6,207,673 greater than for December, 1854; and $1,595,227 greater than for December, 1853. The total foreign imports at New York for the year 1855 were $23,511,234 less than for 1854, and $36,237,414 less than 1853. They show a large gain, however, on any year previous to the last named. We annex a summary comparison for four years :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Entered for consumption	$106,670,411	$154,315,091	$131,578,729	$115,685,022
Entered for warehousing	8,665,641	25,197,091	31,916,255	27,215,639
Free goods	12,105,342	12,156,387	15,768,916	14,103,946
Specie and bullion	2,408,325	2,429,083	2,107,572	855,631
Total entered at the port	$129,849,619	$194,097,652	$181,371,472	$157,860,238

Of these imports, less than half have consisted of dry goods, and the remainder of general merchandise. The receipts of dry goods have been divided as follows :—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Manufactures of wool	$16,176,241	$28,214,146	$22,689,658	$18,637,337
Manufactures of cotton	11,123,345	16,803,473	15,892,386	10,510,723
Manufactures of silk	22,953,889	34,129,578	28,528,106	23,197,480
Manufactures of flax	6,687,927	8,790,135	7,633,572	6,706,364
Miscellaneous dry goods	4,712,742	5,766,879	6,099,214	5,922,158
Total dry goods	$61,654,144	$93,704,211	$80,842,936	$64,794,062

The exports from New York for December, exclusive of specie, are $3,822,103 larger than for December, 1854, and $2,026,059 larger than for December, 1853. For the year 1855 the exports at New York, exclusive of specie, are larger than ever before known in the history of the country. Especially is this the case during the last quarter of the year, when the shipments of produce were enormous, as will appear from the annexed comparative summary :—

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS, EXCLUSIVE OF SPECIE.

Year.	First quarter.	Second quarter.	Third quarter.	Fourth quarter.	Total.
1851	$10,890,819	$13,919,107	$10,136,156	$8,964,558	$43,910,640
1852	11,344,412	13,742,203	9,6[illegible]5,796	11,684,943	46,427,354
1853	11,892,650	16,268,097	16,810,526	22,165,369	67,136,642
1854	17,840,161	16,474,773	13,826,852	16,065,895	64,207,681
1855	16,802,543	15,628,290	14,616,675	25,299,054	72,346,562

The exports of specie for the year were $27,625,740, against $37,169,406 for 1854, $26,753,356 for 1853, $25,096,255 for 1852, and $43,743,209 for 1851.

The following statement will show the value of exports from New Orleans for the last five years, the exports during the month of December, 1855, being partly estimated :—

1851—Exported abroad	$51,046,649	
Exported coastwise	27,841,269	
		$78,887,918
1852—Exported abroad	58,421,394	
Exported coastwise	29,338,490	
		87,759,884
1853—Exported abroad	58,488,048	
Exported coastwise	26,951,934	
		85,439,982
1854—Exported abroad	66,727,303	
Exported coastwise	25,703,150	
		92,430,453
1855—Exported abroad	55,829,096	
Exported coastwise	23,560,331	
		84,389,427

We gave in our December number an extended comparative statement of the total imports and exports for the last fiscal year, that being two months earlier than it was ever before published. We have now compiled our usual comparative tables, giving some further very interesting particulars of both the imports and exports in a variety of articles. The following will show the comparative imports of wool, and all descriptions of woolens, in each of the last four fiscal years :—

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Wool	$1,930,711	$2,669,718	$2,822,185	$2,072,139
Cloths and cassimeres	6,909,742	11,071,906	13,159,583	9,144,861
Woolen shawls	715,814	1,402,582	1,476,072	2,240,104
Blankets	1,046,361	1,455,659	1,790,590	1,083,957
Hosiery	869,997	1,047,686	1,272,857	1,170,642
Worsted stuffs	6,296,057	9,796,387	10,375,879	8,590,506
Woolen and worsted yarn	220,259	280,896	359,341	160,599
Woolens, tamb. & embroid'd.	7,877	28,025	35,266	.....
Flannels	87,492	106,381	143,079	134,811
Baizes	111,051	118,203	113,048	97,578
Carpeting	730,967	1,217,279	2,268,813	1,506,577
Other woolens	587,077	1,096,907	1,388,064	274,514
Total wool and woolens.	$19,513,405	$30,291,629	$35,204,779	$26,476,288

Included in the imports of wool for 1855, are 189,534,415 pounds against 20,200,110 for 1854, and 21,585,079 for 1853. The greatest falling off during the year has been in piece goods, chiefly in broadcloth. The total of unenumerated is less the last year, because the mixed silk, worsted, and woolen shawls are all included under the heading of shawls.

We also present our usual statement of the total imports of cotton fabrics and manufactures for the same period :—

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Raw cotton	$12,521	$40,447	$31,318	$131,457
Printed and colored cottons	11,553,306	14,623,268	17,423,249	12,563,522
White cottons	2,477,486	2,718,846	2,191,217	
Cottons, tamb. & embroidered	1,754,803	3,116,013	4,045,476	3,000,000
Velvets of cotton	153,406	305,589	496,442	432,715
Velvets of cotton and silk	23,941	18,989	95,343	
Cords, gimps, and galloons	4	98,851	189,639	128,500
Hosiery, and articles made on frames	2,152,340	3,002,631	3,013,664	2,055,595
Cotton yarn and thread	887,840	1,095,518	1,076,987	997,673
Hatters' plush (part silk)	121,831	56,054	102,824	45,081
Cotton insertings, laces, &c	535,056	841,757	853,552	767,055
All other cottons	564,539	2,695,554	5,314,622	1,554,026
Total imports of cottons.	$20,236,573	$28,613,487	$34,834,033	$21,655,624

The above shows a falling off in nearly every item. All cotton piece goods and all velvets are included each in one item under the heading for the current year.

We also annex a comparative summary showing the imports of raw silk and silk goods into the United States for the same period :—

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Raw silk	$360,836	$712,092	$1,085,261	$742,251
Silk piece goods	16,823,528	22,470,911	25,296,519	20,069,957
Hosiery, and articles made on frames	599,673	1,124,680	1,001,299	459,093
Sewing silk	173,799	238,525	332,301	189,220
Silks, tamb. and embroidered	1,906,573	1,318,069	1,183,299	800,000
Silk hats and bonnets	96,665	111,871	106,139	110,586
Silk, floss	17,911	10,839	14,078	9,366
Bolting cloths	47,052	40,232	48,868	56,984
Silk and worsted goods	1,667,513	1,880,918	1,594,038	1,133,839
Silks, not specified	1,914,462	5,130,590	6,728,406	3,480,716
Total imports of silk	$23,608,012	$33,038,737	$37,400,205	$27,052,012

The falling off in the imports of silks has been less than in cottons, but greater than in woolens. The remaining imports of dry goods consist of linen manufactures, which may be classified as follows :—

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Flax	$175,342	$135,684	$250,391	$286,809
Linens, bleach'd & unbleach'd	7,603,603	8,897,317	9,437,846	7,552,865
Hosiery, and articles made on frames	5,546	3,192	2,263	1,409
Laces, thread, and insertings.	160,385	252,170	368,309	318,511
Articles tamb. & embroidered	52,227	84,779	59,624	92,749
Linens not specified	854,333	1,250,749	1,363,803	1,062,891
Total imports of linens.	$8,851,436	$10,623,891	$11,482,236	$9,315,234

The foregoing tables include the total imports of dry goods, but we also annex from the official records the imports of a few other leading articles :—

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Iron, and manufactures of	$18,843,569	$26,993,082	$28,288,241	$23,945,274
Sugar	14,712,847	14,987,776	13,700,789	14,673,547
Hemp	164,211	323,812	335,632	55,458
Salt	1,102,100	1,041,577	1,290,975	1,692,587
Coal	405,652	488,491	585,926	893,825

We also annex our usual comparative statement of the exports from the United States to foreign ports of cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions :—

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO FOREIGN PORTS.

Years ending June 30.	Breadstuffs and provisions.	Cotton. Pounds.	Cotton. Value.	Cotton. Av. price.
1845	$16,743,421	872,905,996	$51,739,643	5.92
1846	27,701,121	547,558,055	42,767,341	7.81
1847	68,701,921	527,219,958	53,415,848	10.34
1848	37,472,751	814,274,431	61,998,294	7.61
1849	38,155,507	1,026,602,269	66,396,967	6.4
1850	26,051,373	635,381,604	71,984,616	11.3
1851	21,948,651	927,237,089	112,315,317	12.11
1852	25,857,027	1,093,230,639	87,965,732	8.05
1853	32,985,322	1,111,570,370	109,456,404	9.85
1854	65,941,323	987,833,106	93,596,220	9.47
1855	38,895,348	1,008,424,601	88,143,844	8.74

This shows a large decline in the shipments of breadstuffs and provisions, principally in the former, owing to the short crop in this country. The exports of cotton have increased in quantity, but fallen off in value.

We have also compiled a statement showing the exports from the United States to foreign ports of rice and tobacco, both in quantity and value, with the average price :—

Years ending June 30.	RICE. Tierces.	RICE. Value.	RICE. Av. price per tierce.	TOBACCO. Hogsheads.	TOBACCO. Value.	TOBACCO. Av. price per hhd.
1845	118,621	$2,160,456	$18 21	147,168	$7,469,819	$50 75
1846	124,007	2,564,991	20 68	147,998	8,478,270	57 28
1847	144,427	3,605,896	24 97	135,762	7,242,086	53 34
1848	100,403	2,331,824	23 23	130,665	7,551,122	57 78
1849	128,861	2,569,362	19 94	101,521	5,804,207	57 17
1850	127,069	2,631,557	20 71	145,729	9,951,023	68 28
1851	105,590	2,170,927	20 56	95,945	9,219,251	96 09
1852	119,733	2,470,029	20 63	137,097	10,031,283	73 17
1853	67,707	1,657,658	24 48	159,853	11,319,319	70 81
1854	105,121	2,634,127	25 05	126,107	10,016,046	79 42
1855	bbls. 19,774 trcs. 52,520	1,717,953	26 14	bales. 12,913 cases. 13,366 hhds. 150,213	14,712,468	94 63

The current fiscal year will show a remarkable change from last year in the shipments of breadstuffs and provisions, the total for both being very large. It will also show a great increase in the exports of cotton.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

DEBT AND FINANCES OF SEVERAL STATES.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for January, 1856, (vol. xxxiv.,) we published in this department a summary view of the finances of Virginia and Georgia. The statements of the debt of North Carolina, on page 100 of the January number, is incorrectly headed "Debt of South Carolina." It should read "Debt of North Carolina." Ever aiming at great accuracy, which is of the utmost importance in a work of permanent record and reference, like the *Morchants' Magazine*, such an error or oversight is more annoying than the indulgent reader can well imagine.

We therefore republish the table under the proper head.

DEBT OF NORTH CAROLINA.

The following statement exhibits the public debt of the State, as it appears on the books of the Loan Office, on the 30th day of September, 1855 :—

When contracted.	Amount outstanding.	When due.	Rate of interest.	Amount of ann. interest.
December, 1794...	$103,674 34	At will of State	3 per cent.	$3,110 23
December, 1838...	36,473 43	January, 1859	5 per cent.	1,823 67
December, 1839...	1,011 11	January, 1852	6 per cent.	60 66
June, 1838...	768,219 56	Half in 1860 & 1870.	6 per cent.	46,093 17
June, 1838...	927,777 79	1858 and 1868.....	5 per cent.	46,388 88
December, 1853...	250,000 00	January, 1871	6 per cent.	15,000 00
December, 1854...	200,000 00	1875	6 per cent.	12,000 00
Total.....	$2,287,156 23			$124,476 61

DEBT AND FINANCES OF VIRGINIA.

In addition to the abstract from the message of the Governor of Virginia, published in the *Merchants' Magazine* for January, 1856, we give below some additional particulars of the finances of that State, derived from the Auditor's report.

From that report we learn that the total State subscriptions to Joint-Stock Companies, upon which payments have been made, amounted to $23,283,240, on which have been paid $19,665,689, leaving $3,617,551 still due. They were made to Bridge, Turnpike, Plank-road, Navigation, and Railroad Companies. Of the above amount $1,646,756 were appropriated for construction of roads *wholly* by the State. The amounts of appropriations to the above various objects were as follows :—

Railroads.	Navigation.	Plank-roads.	Turnpikes.	Bridges.	Common roads.
$10,667,833	$4,682,199	$422,708	$2,144,253	$108,888	$1,646,756

Showing a total, as above stated, of $23,283,240.

The total registered debt now is $11,512,479; of the coupon debt $11,318,000 are 6 per cent bonds, and $1,875,000 are 5 per cent sterling bonds.

The periods of redemption for the State debt are as follows :—

FOR THE FUNDED DEBT ON THE 1ST JANUARY, 1852.

1840	$25,300	1860	$314,214
1845	160,000	1861	23,137
1845	8,250	1861	88,884
1846	29,950	1862	60,194
1852	50,000	1862	247,837
1852	80,000	1863	11,261
1854	20,000	1863	14,937
1854	145,000	1866	17,315
1855	50,000	1866	1,435
1855	205,000	1867	277,500
1857	25,500	1868	689,434
1857	60,000	1869	375,522
1857	992,200	1870	132,510
1858	34,500	1872	242,000
1858	43,950	1873	600,000
1858	1,697,668	1874	250,000
1859	6,400	1875	876,098
1859	858,988	1876	1,138,050
1859	9,150	1876	1,718,000

The total funded debt of Virginia on the 1st of January, 1852, was $11,580,088. The periods of redemption of debt contracted between January 1, 1852, and 30th September, 1855, are given in the following table :—

1877.	1878.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.
$680,687	$11,970	$2,584,000	$5,727,446	$3,412,884	$708,403

The total outstanding debt of Virginia on the 30th of September, 1855, was $24,705,479. The funds and resources for meeting these obligations amount in all to $27,261,211. Some of these resources are unproductive at this time, but must eventually become available.

The entire State investments in stocks, loans, &c., other than subscriptions and appropriations for internal improvements, at 30th September last, were $6,624,213, of which $1,143,850 were subscribed to various banking institutions, $326,630 subscribed to railroad companies, $1,801,833 *loaned* to various railroad and canal companies, and $3,170,000 loaned to internal improvement companies, the latter having to be redeemed within thirty-four years.

FINANCES AND DEBT OF ILLINOIS.

The Hon. John Moore, the State Treasurer of Illinois, has addressed a letter to the editors of the Chicago *Tribune*, from which it appears that the amount of payments into the Treasury from the 1st of January to the 30th November, 1855, upon the assessments of 1854 alone, were as follows :—

For revenue purposes.	State debt, 2 mill tax.	Interest fund.	Total.
$288,586 78	$478,753 56	$358,757 32	$1,126,077 66

Commenting on this statement, the reliable editor of the *Tribune* remarks :—

"The principal of the State debt of Illinois may now be stated in round numbers at $10,000,000, and the accumulated interest, upon which no interest is paid, is probably not far from $5,000,000. Take now the $837,490, the sum applied to the State indebtedness, and it will be seen at a glance how easily the annually accruing interest might be discharged, and the credit of the State entirely restored, had not the Constitutional Convention made the proceeds of the two-mill tax applicable directly to the payment of a portion of that principal, which ought properly to have been thought of last.

"It is not reckoning without our host to say that for the next five years the value of the real property now assessed will increase 10 per cent per annum. If that proves to be the case, in 1860 there will be collected a revenue for liquidation purposes equal to $1,256,385, exclusive of the bonus of 7 per cent of the gross

earnings of the Illinois Central Railroad, which cannot fall below, if it does not greatly exceed, $200,000 per annum."

THE DEBT OF TENNESSEE.

The debt of Tennessee, according to the Governor's message, is $8,744,856, of which $4,752,000 consists of bonds issued in aid of railroads, secured by first mortgage of $10,000 per mile on the roads assisted. Of the remainder of the debt, $250,000 was for capital of the Union Bank, and $1,000,000 for the State Bank. The State owns stocks, &c., valued at $2,244,827, costing $3,292,716. The revenue from the Bank stocks is applied to buying up the 6 per cent debt of the State. The disbursements of the State for the last two years have been rather larger than the receipts. The balance in the Treasury is $87,830.

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Governor GARDINER, in his address to the two branches of the Legislature of Massachusetts, says its financial condition is such as to demand rigorous and minute economy in every branch of public expenditure. For several years the annual deficit has been increasing until the sum of $825,000 is necessary, beyond the probable receipts, to liquidate the floating debt of the State. The State owns $750,000 of stock in the Western Railroad, and the general government justly owe the State $227,176 for services performed, and expenditures actually made in in the war of 1812.

The Auditor furnishes the following table of approximate expenditures and receipts for 1855, which are contrasted with those of 1854 :—

EXPENDITURES.	1855.	1854.
Legislative and executive	$473,250	$354,398
Scientific and educational	19,969	20,686
Interest on public debt	108,517	100,652
Charitable and humane purposes	330,656	236,252
Correctional and preventive purposes	236,961	170,355
Military	78,339	67,489
Public buildings not provided for by scrip	130,640	.. ...
Total	$1,378,332	$949,832
RECEIPTS.		
Bank tax	$578,983	$525,868
Alien passengers	9,848	50,000
Income from Western Railroad	101,169	119,696
Sundry accounts	8,410	9,308
Cash on hand	18,609	13,410
Total	$717,019	$718,282
Add State Tax	450,000	150,000
	$1,167,019	$868,282
Excess of expenditures over receipts	$211,313	$81,550
The Auditor estimates the ordinary expenditures for the present year		$1,121,600
And the receipts at about		717,600
Showing a probable deficiency for this year of		$404,000
Add to this the aggregate deficits previous to 1854, amounting to about		128,000
The deficit for 1854		81,550
And the deficit for 1855		211,313
And it shows the amount of our floating debt at the close of our present financial year to be		$824,863

FINANCES OF ALABAMA.

A joint committee of the Legislature of Alabama, appointed to examine the financial condition of the State, report the receipts into the State Treasury for two years, ending September 30th, 1855, at $1,360,292 04, which, with the balance on hand at the commencement of the term, amounting to $1,221,513 60, gives a total means of $2,581,805 64. The expenditures during the two years amounted to $1,368,073 21, leaving a balance on the 30th of September of $1,163,782 43. The receipts into the Treasury from the 30th of September to the 28th of November amount to $39,689 54, and the expenditures to $59,164 27, which reduces the above balance at that date to $1,174,257 70.

FINANCES OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The following statement, derived from an official source, shows the indebtedness of Pennsylvania on the 1st day of December, 1855 :—

FUNDED DEBT.

6 per cent loans	$516,154 93	
5 per cent loans	38,903,445 04	
4½ per cent loans	388,200 00	
4 per cent loans	100,000 00	
		$39,907,799 97

UNFUNDED DEBT.

Relief notes in circulation	$258,773 00	
Interest certificates outstanding	24,708 87	
Interest certificates unclaimed	4,448 38	
Domestic creditors	1,264 00	
		289,194 25
Total debt		$40,196,994 22

Balance remaining unpaid—temporary loans not embraced in the above statement, inasmuch as they are reimbursable as rapidly as the means of the Treasury will permit, viz. :—

Balance temporary loan authorized per act of April 19, 1853	$525,000 00	
Balance temporary loan authorized per act of May 9, 1854	346,000 00	
		$871,000 00
Amount remaining in the Treasury and sinking fund, applicable to the farther cancelation of the State stocks, interest certificates, domestic creditors' certificates, and relief notes		423,837 99

VALUATION OF REAL AND PERSONAL PROPERTY IN STATE OF NEW YORK.

The records on file in the office of the Secretary of State, containing the valuation of the real and personal property in the State, as reported by the Assessors, give the following figures :—

Real estate	$1,107,272,715	Personal estate	$294,012,564
Total			$1,402,849,564

THE FOLLOWING IS THE TAXATION ON THE ABOVE VALUATION :—

State tax of 1⅞ mills	$1,753,561	Town taxes	$1,976,951
County taxes	$7,947,503		
Total			$11,678,015

This makes the rate of tax 8 3-10 mills upon every $1 valuation.

THE BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE FIGURES INDICATE THE CONDITION OF THE BANKS ON THE FIRST DAY OF JANUARY, 1856, OR AT A PERIOD JUST PRIOR THERETO.

[COMPILED EXPRESSLY FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

		LIABILITIES.					RESOURCES.			
States.	No. of banks, including branches.	Capital.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Profits.	Total.	Notes, bills of exchange, &c.	Specie.	Real estate.	Total.
Maine	71	$7,301,262	$3,674,819	$3,128,657	$623,386	$14,728,124	$13,486,754	$1,128,676	$112,694	$14,728,124
New Hampshire	46	4,449,300	2,578,336	958,475	342,246	8,328,357	8,037,427	234,411	56,519	8,328,357
Vermont	40	3,323,856	966,745	952,673	1,342,171	6,605,445	6,294,870	205,897	104,678	6,605,445
Massachusetts	169	58,187,000	18,057,762	20,730,217	5,995,970	102,970,949	97,222,876	4.497,731	1,250,342	102,970,949
Connecticut	63	15,641,397	11,314,256	6,819,430	1,141,200	34,916,283	33,218,536	1,312,947	384,800	34,916,283
Rhode Island	87	19,945,897	5,213,496	3,825,167	993,612	29,978,172	29,186.458	438,756	352,958	29,978,172
New York	284	85,589,590	41,899,056	99,234,681	4,776,753	231,500,080	212,964,128	12,678,415	5,857,537	231,500,080
New Jersey	38	5,147,741	4,431,812	3,152,720	333,934	13,066,207	11,983,473	814,927	267,807	13,066,207
Pennsylvania	64	19,864,825	8,132.246	23,793,336	4,708,481	56,498,889	51,394,547	3,944,602	1,159,740	56,498,889
Delaware	6	1,343,185	871,234	872,345	165,619	3,252,383	2,987,645	139,876	124,862	3,252,383
Maryland	25	10,678,804	3,612,405	7,476,653	1,295.901	23,063,763	19,527,877	3,214,879	321,007	23,063,763
Virginia	58	12,796,466	10,813,327	7,478,410	639,250	31,727,453	27,211,960	3,758,942	756,551	31,727,453
North Carolina	9	4,818,465	4,987,774	2,612,352	246,062	12,664,653	10,629,856	1,897,643	137,154	12,664.653
South Carolina	18	13,383,196	11,213,969	7,312,895	708,695	32,618,755	30,486,927	1,712,458	419,370	32,618,755
Georgia	21	13,413,100	5,389,137	6,987,452	715,048	26,504,737	16,581,951	1,613,857	8,308,929	26,504,737
Alabama	3	2,100,000	3,428,917	1,936,425	104,603	7,569,945	6,369,798	1,134,826	65,321	7,569,945
Mississippi	1	240,165	142,857	34,986	11,722	429,730	413,947	5,813	9,970	429,730
Louisiana	19	20,179,167	7,222,574	14,747,467	1,234,865	43,384,013	31,874,969	8,191,622	3,317,422	43,384,013
Texas	1	332,000	149,327	79,482	34,085	594,894	582,283	7,314	5,297	594,894
Tennessee	32	6,599,872	5,127,456	3,614,325	367,034	15,708,687	13,156,837	2,034,960	516,890	15,708,687
Kentucky	34	10,869,665	11,587,492	5,247,869	537,979	28,243,005	23,124,867	4,701,946	416,192	28,243,005
Ohio	66	5,775,250	7,113,255	7,668,209	731,372	21,288,086	18,908,435	1,978,145	401,506	21,288,086
Michigan	6	1,084,718	498,765	1,843,927	69,832	3,497,242	2,986,465	365,829	144,948	3,497,242
Indiana	59	7,261,934	4,817,305	2,289,605	3,229,299	17,598,143	15,454,488	1,894,357	249,298	17,598,143
Illinois	29	2,513,790	1,407,022	967,813	128,817	5,017,442	4,397,865	588'419	31,158	5,017,442
Missouri	1	1,215,405	2,237,862	1,415,723	66,737	4,935,727	3,619,852	1,217,455	98,420	4,935,727
Wisconsin	23	1,536,000	268,205	2,783,687	6,850	4,594,742	4,180,688	358,127	55,927	4,594,742
Total	1,273	$335,611,990	$177,157,412	$237,964,981	$30,551,523	$781,285,906	$696,285,779	$60,072,830	$24,927,299	$781,285,906

BOSTON BANK STOCKS IN 1855 AND 1856.

We are indebted to JOSEPH G. MARTIN, Esq., Stock and Exchange Broker in Boston, for carefully prepared tabular statements of the fluctuations of the various kinds of stock sold in the Boston market in the year 1855. Mr. Martin's tables show the prices of Bank, Manufacturing, Railroad, Insurance, City, and State Bonds, &c., on the 1st of each month during the year 1855, and on the 1st of January, 1856. The following table, which we have compiled from Mr. Martin's, it will be seen, shows the capital on the 1st of January 1856, surplus on the 1st of October, 1855, the par value, number of shares sold in 1855, the price on the 1st of January, 1855 and 1856, together with the semi-annual dividends of the several Banks in Boston :—

Banks.	Par.	Capital Jan., 1856.	Surplus Oct., 1855.	Shares sold in 1855.	1855. Jan. 2.	1856. Jan. 2.	Dividends. —1855.— Apr.	Oct.
Atlantic	100	$500,000	$32,192	158	104	96	4	3
Atlas	100	500,000	49,860	40	99	104	4	4
Blackstone	100	750,000	23,653	456	97	102½	4	4
Boston	50	900,000	98,347	216	56	59	4	4
Boylston	100	400,000	28,882	73	110	110½	4½	4½
Broadway	100	150,000	703	None.	100	102	4	4
City	100	1,000,000	99,440	64	100	105½	3½	3½
Columbian	100	750,000	41,000†	23	100	105	3½	3½
Commerce	100	2,000,000	80,000	1,604	95	100¼	4	4
Eagle	100	700,000	66,000	89	103	107	4	4
Eliot	100	600,000	12,325	1,109	95	98¼	4	4
Exchange	100	1,000,000	135,436	146	106	111	4	4
Fanueil Hall	100	500,000	36,526	55	103	110	4	4
Freeman's	100	400,000	50,000	5	112	116	5	5
Globe	100	1,000,000	165,000	35	110	116	4	4
Granite	100	900,000	58,800	266	97½	99	3½	3½
Grocers'	100	Stopped.	31,000	604	92	...	4	3½
Hamilton	100	500,000	87,000	24	110	114	4	4
Howard	100	500,000	12,998	597	92	95	4	4
Market.	70	560,000	91,400	75	82	84	5	5
Massachusetts	250	800,000	53,459	32	250	260	3 1-5	3 1-5
Maverick	100	400,000	8,500	293	93	90	3	3½
Mechanics'	100	250,000	10,000	None.	104	110	4	4
Merchants'	100	4,000,000	281,099	1,942	103½	104½	4	4
National	100	750,000	21,090†	240	100	100	4	3½
New England	100	1,000,000	58,560‡	158	107	110	4	4
North	100	750,000	66,009	245	99	102½	4	4
North America	100	750,000	41,247†	150	100	102½	4	4
Shawmut	100	750,000	28,266	199	100	104	4	4
Shoe & Leather	100	1,000,000	130,000	29	107	110½	4	4
State	60	1,800,000	211,428	756	61	65¼	3½	3½
Suffolk	100	1,000,000	200,093	106	127	124	5	5
Traders'	100	600,000	47,624	121	100	103½	4	4
Tremont	100	1,250,000	40,000‡	105	105	110	4	4
Union	100	1,000,000	93,582	113	106	111	4	4
Washington	100	750,000	50,317	32	98	103	3½	3½
Webster	100	1,500,000	39,332	486	99	103	3½	3½

DIVIDENDS ON STOCKS IN BOSTON IN 1855.

The following statement of the dividends paid in Boston on various stocks, was originally prepared by JOSEPH G. MARTIN, Stock and Exchange Broker, for the daily journals of that city. It has been revised and corrected by the compiler for the *Merchants' Magazine*:—

† Unearned discounts included in these three, all others not. ‡ New England and Tremont real estate (say $100,000) beside.

RAILROAD COMPANIES.

Stocks.	Capital.	DIVIDENDS. July, 1855.	DIVIDENDS. Jan., 1856.	Amount Jan., '56
Berkshire	$320,500	1¾	1¾	$5,909
Boston and Lowell	1,830,000	3	3	54,900
Boston and Maine	4,155,700	3	3	124,671
Boston and Worcester	4,500,000	3	3½	157,500
Lex. and W. Camb. (preferred)	120,000	3	3	3,600
Lex. and W. Camb. (old)	120,000	2½	2½	3,000
Manchester and Lawrence	800,000	0	4	32,000
Michigan Central	6,032,000	4	6	361,920
Old Colony and Fall River	3,015,100	3	3	90,450
Peterboro' and Shirley	340,000	2	3	10,200
Pittsfield and North Adams	450,000	3	3	13,500
Stoughton Branch	85,400	4	4	3,416
Taunton Branch	250,000	4	4	10,000
Western	5,150,000	3½	3½	180,250
Worcester and Nashua	1,522,000	2	2	30,440
				1,081,456

MANUFACTURING COMPANIES.

Cocheco	2,000 shares	$18	$20	40,000
Contoocook	140,000	12	4	5,600
Douglass Axe	300,000	6	3	9,000
Lancaster Mills (par 450)	900,000	0	3	27,000
Lowell	2,900 shares	0	$30	87,000
Lowell Bleachery	300,000	5	5	15,000
Nashua	1,000,000	0	3	30,000
Naumkeag	700,000	4	4	28,000
Perkins	1,000,000	2	2	20,000
Salmon Falls	1,000,000	0	3	30,000
Stark Mills	1,250,000	4	4	50,000
				$341,600

INTEREST ON BONDS.

Albany City, 1855	140,000	3	3	4,200
Albany 6's Western RR.	1,000,000	3	3	30,000
Boston City Stock	About	..	..	37,000
Boston and Providence RR.	About	3	3	3,000
Boston and Worcester	500,000	3	3	15,000
Cheshire 6's	769,500	3	3	23,085
Concord and Montreal	About	..	..	6,000
Dorchester and Milton	39,500	3	3	1,185
Grand Junction, first mortgage	350,000	3	3	10,500
Massachusetts State 5's	500,000	2½	2½	12,500
Michigan Central	About	..	..	25,000
Norwich City	.....	..	..	1,500
Old Colony and Fall River	136,500	3	3	4,095
Peterboro' and Shirley	23,400	3	3	702
Portland City 6's	About	3	3	15,000
United States Loan	About	..	..	50,000
Vermont and Massachusetts 6's, July, '55	956,800	3	3	28,704
				$267,417

MISCELLANEOUS.

East Boston Dry Dock Co.	250,000	3½	3	7,500
Fishing Bounties	About	..	..	300,000
Franklin Insurance Co.	300,000	6	4	12,000
Massachusetts Hospital Life Ins.	Interest	About	..	200,000
North American Ins. Co.	200,000	4	5	10,000
United States Hotel Company	208,500	2	2	4,170
Western Railroad	Sinking Fund	..	..	50,000
Miscellaneous				$583,670

THE TOTAL DIVIDENDS PAID IN THE UNDERMENTIONED YEARS, WERE AS FOLLOWS:—

Jan., 1856.	July, 1855.	Jan., 1855.	July, 1854.	Jan., 1854.
$2,274,197	$1,472,422	$2,240,580	$1,917,772	$3,021,440

The above dividends are payable in January, all in Boston—excepting the Peterboro' and Shirley Railroad, at Charlestown, and the Worcester and Nashua Railroad, at Worcester, but a large portion of these are owned in Boston or the immediate vicinity. The dividend of the Berkshire Railroad is a quarterly one, at the rate of 7 per cent per annum.

The dividends of July, 1855, are also given, for comparison, but such corporations as have passed two or more dividends, are omitted. Among these are the Boston and Providence, Cape Cod, Eastern, and Fitchburg railroads, and the Chicopee, New England Worsted, Manchester Mills, and Middlesex Manufacturing companies. The payments of the Massachusetts Hospital Life Insurance Company, Fishing Bounties, and Western Railroad Sinking Fund, are annual. The Cheshire Railroad paid a two per cent dividend in bonds in July last, but omits a dividend for January.

CONDITION OF THE PHILADELPHIA BANKS, JANUARY, 1856.

We give below a statement of the condition of the several banks in the city of Philadelphia on the 4th of January, 1856 :—

Name.	Circulation.	Due depositors.	Bills discounted.	Specie.
Philadelphia Bank	$423,330	$1,285,174	$2,858,981	$301,512
Bank of Pennsylvania	834,139	1,675,791	3,098,360	583,814
Bank of Commerce	155,925	525,562	680,512	332,318
Manuf. & Mechanics' Bank	335,675	566,930	943,707	317,446
Mechanics' Bank	337,556	1,129,335	1,679,696	187,066
Western Bank	226,245	915,342	1,221,498	193,364
Bank of Northern Liberties	195,284	868,412	1,075,810	88,509
Farmers and Mechanics' Bank	881,600	1,734,171	2,624,399	436,870
Bank of Penn Township	182,065	747,703	1,018,637	102,016
Commercial Bank	285,019	989,616	2,027,494	67,331
Girard Bank	633,940	1,042,948	1,493,517	404,223
Bank of North America	424,690	1,794,452	2,033,429	408,264
Southwark Bank	157,215	772,846	877,869	197,735
Kensington Bank	155,230	595,398	748,896	154,168
Tradesmen's Bank	160,365	428,886	444,248	134,585
Consolidation Bank	73,915	184,413	381,303	50,033
Bank of Germantown	121,404	280,764	538,292	41,223
Totals	$5,063,585	$14,637,855	$24,966,666	$4,101,478

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF MASSACHUSETTS IN 1855.

From the Annual Abstract, exhibiting the condition of the banks in Massachusetts on the fourth Saturday of August, 1855, prepared from official returns by Hon. EPHRAIM M. WRIGHT, Secretary of that Commonwealth, we compile the subjoined summary. This "abstract" is a document of 118 pages, and gives a detailed statement of the condition of each bank in the State.

The number of banks in Massachusetts, according to this statement, is 169 ; of which 37 are located in Boston, and 132 out of Boston. We should not forget in this connection to acknowledge our indebtedness to Mr. LOVETT, the efficient Assistant Secretary of State, for his uniform courtesy and kindness for the last ten or more years, in furnishing us with valuable documents. Mr. Lovett has been connected with the State department of the Commonwealth for fifteen years,

and a more faithful public officer is not, we venture to say, connected with any State government in the Union.

AGGREGATE CONDITION OF THE BANKS IN AND OUT OF BOSTON :—

DUE FROM BANKS.

	37 banks in Boston.	132 banks out of Boston.	Total— 169 banks.
Capital stock paid in.....	$32,710,000 00	$25,922,350 00	$58,632,350 00
Bills in circulation	7,562,289 00	15,553,735 55	23,116,024 55
Net profits on hand	4,086,762 98	2,999,516 31	7,086,279 29
Balances due to other banks....	5,384,547 71	563,288 08	5,947,835 79
Cash deposited*.....	15,176,690 56	6,302,026 94	21,478,717 50
Cash deposited, bearing interest.	263,599 85	230,942 65	494,542 50
Total amount due from banks..	$65,183,890 10	$51,571,859 53	$116,755,749 63

RESOURCES OF THE BANKS.

Gold, silver, and other coined metals in banking-houses	3,348,830 40	1,060,571 95	4,409,402 35
Real estate	650,466 44	631,135 47	1,281,601 91
Bills of banks in this and other New England States	4,082,457 10	465,253 38	4,547,710 48
Balances due from other banks..	3,447,706 64	3,562,616 69	7,010,323 33
Amount of all debts due†.....	53,654,429 52	45,852,282 04	99,506,711 56
Total resources of the banks..	$65,183,190 10	$51,571,859 53	$116,755,749 63
Amount of dividends, Oct., 1854.	1,154,451 79	912,891 15	2,067,342 94
Amount of dividends, April, '55.	1,272,998 00	955,114 65	2,228,112 65
Amount of reserved profits at the time of declaring last dividends	2,537,431 25	1,947,994 37	4,485,425 62
Amount of debts due to banks, secured by pledge on their stock	436,637 47	312,998 19	749,635 66
Amount of debts due and not paid, and considered doubtful.....	265,115 38	200,002 23	465,117 61

Average dividend of thirty-six banks in Boston from which the amount is returned in October, 1854, is 3.57 per cent; of thirty-seven banks in April, 1855, is 3.89 per cent.

Average dividend of one hundred and thirteen banks out of Boston in October, 1854, is 3.85 per cent; of one hundred and twenty-two banks in April, 1855, is 3.90 per cent.

Average dividend of one hundred and forty-nine banks in and out of Boston in October, 1854, is 3.69 per cent; of one hundred and fifty-nine banks in April, 1855, is 3.89 per cent.

Average dividend of one hundred and forty-one banks in the State April, 1854, is 4.06 per cent.

The capital stock of the Brighton, Market, City, Worcester, Fairhaven and Marine banks, was increased, at the session of 1855, $100,000 each, and the Milford Bank, Ocean, Newburyport, Rockport, and Union Bank, Haverell, were increased at the same time $50,000 each. The Cape Ann Bank, Gloucester, capital $150,000; Cape Cod, Harwich, $100,000; and the Mutual Redemption, Boston, $3,000,000, chartered by the Legislature in 1855, are not embraced in the foregoing abstract.

* This includes all sums whatsoever due from the banks not bearing interest, their bills in circulation, profits, and balances due to other banks excepted.

† Including notes, bills of exchange, and all stocks and funded debts of every description, excepting the balances due from other banks.

SAVINGS BANKS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

In 1854 there were in Massachusetts seventy-three, and in August, 1855, eighty savings institutions. Savings banks have since been chartered in Foxborough and Holyoke, and Five-Cent Savings Banks have also been chartered in Cape Cod, Fall River, Lynn, New Bedford, Plymouth, Salem, Shelburn Falls, and Stoneham. The rate of dividend in 1854 was 4.04 per cent, and in 1855 it was 4.97 per cent. The average annual per cent of dividends for the five years ending in 1854 was 7.28, and for the five years ending in 1855 it was 6.75 per cent.

AGGREGATE CONDITION OF SAVINGS BANKS IN MASSACHUSETTS IN 1854 AND 1855:

	1854.	1855.
Number of depositors	136,654	148,263
Amount of deposits	$25,936,857 63	$27,296,216 75
Public funds	745,954 64	697,247 14
Loans on public funds	6,500 00	10,300 00
Bank stock	6,054,197 54	6,366,067 41
Loans on bank stock	992,109 66	975,315 50
Deposits in banks bearing interest	588,152 17	487,468 14
Railroad stock	130,621 25	119,914 00
Loans on railroad stock	256,268 00	199,913 00
Invested in real estate	164,667 49	176,310 16
Loans in mortgage of real estate	8,519,828 67	9,423,135 05
Loans to county or town	2,331,401 26	2,487,917 75
Loans on personal security	6,498,948 58	6,909,846 07
Cash on hand	276,931 78	344,827 95
Amount of dividend for last year	999,877 33	1,049,435 66
Annual expenses of the institutions	63,470 85	77,756 63

The savings institutions in Massachusetts have generally been managed with discretion. The large and increasing amount deposited in these institutions—chiefly the savings of servants and the laboring classes—speaks well for the industrial condition of the people of that thriving and frugal State.

CHANGE IN THE CURRENCY OF CHINA.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for December, 1855, (vol. xxxiii., page 725,) we noticed the project of an iron currency in China. Since the publication of that article, a correspondent, residing at Shanghai, writes that a proclamation has been issued by his Excellency Chaow, Superintendent of Customs, which decrees that all dollars, whether of old or new coinage, shall circulate at par on and after the Chinese new year, which is the 17th day of February next. This decree is of great importance to American Commerce, as heretofore all duties had to be paid in Spanish (usually designated "Carolus") dollars, which, in consequence of the comparatively small number in circulation, always command a high premium.

THE ADOPTION OF THE DECIMAL CURRENCY IN ENGLAND.

It has been finally decided to introduce the decimal currency all over the United Kingdom. The pound will be retained as the unit, and divided into one thousand parts. The half-crown will be abolished—the shilling fifty, the sixpence twenty-five, and a new coin will be introduced representing five farthings, while the present farthing will be depreciated one-twenty-fifth in value—that is, there will be a thousand to the pound sterling, instead of nine hundred and sixty.

THE UNITED STATES BR NCH MINT, SAN FRANCISCO.

The *Alta California* furnishes the subjoined statement of the operations of the Branch Mint at San Francisco from the 1st of January to the 1st of December, 1855 :—

Months.	Double eagles.	Eagles.	Half eagles.	Three-dollar pieces.	Unparted bars.	Parted bars.
January.....	$796,000	.....	.....	.....	$385 955 84	.....
February.....	1,376,000	.....	.....	.....	197,757 37	.....
March.....	1,365,000	.....	.....	.....	196,515 61	.....
April	52,500	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
May.....	1,260,000	.....	.....	.....	185,826 68	.....
June.....	2,800,000	.....	.....	.....	246,500 71	$15,199 03
July.....	1,890,000	.....	$75,000	.....	397,806 40	10,185 94
August.....	1,390,000	$90,000	155,000	.....	500,174 19	26,100 83
September.....	2,460,000	.....	.....	.....	478,496 16	12,623 10
October.....	2,000,000	.....	.....	.....	327,933 45	24,673 60
November.....	1,400,000	.....	75,000	$19,800	285,000 00	.....
Total.....	16,783,500	$90,000	$305,000	$19,800	$2,201,966 41	$88,782 50

RECAPITULATION.

Double eagles	$16,784,500 00	Three-dollar pieces.....	$19,800 00
Eagles..... ...	90,000 00	Unparted bars.....	3,201,966 41
Half-eagles.....	305,000 00	Parted bars.....	88,782 50

Showing a total gold coinage for the eleven months of 1855 of $20,489,048 91. The silver coinage same period amounted (half-dollars and quarters) to $164,075. Total coinage, $20,653,123 91.

Amount of gold deposited from the 1st of January, 1855, to the 1st of December, 1855, exclusive of from 22d March to 8th of May, 1855, at which time the last annual settlement was made :—

Ounces.....	1,174,443.48	Value of same about...	$21,374,871 70

COLLATERAL SECURITY FOR A BANK LOAN.

At a recent (1855) session of the Circuit Court in Rhode Island, Judge Curtis decided a case of some interest to Banks loaning money on collateral security. John Lockwood and others were plaintiffs, and the Traders' Bank of Newport defendant. We quote a summary of the case and the decision of the Judge, from a cotemporary :—

"The Bank had loaned the plaintiffs $5,000 on the pledge of one hundred shares of stock in the Newport Gas Light Company, to be returned on the payment of the draft discounted. Pending the maturity of the draft, the Bank delivered the stock to Henry Bull, upon his written promise to return it to the Bank seasonably. Bull surrendered the stock to the company, and obtained new certificates in his own name, and transferred them to the Bank in blank.

"The Bank forwarded them to New York, where the plaintiff's draft was payable, but they refused to receive them, and allowed the draft to be protested. The Bank then sold enough of the stock to reimburse the loan and expenses, and notified the plaintiffs that the balance of it was subject to their order. The plaintiffs sued the bank, claiming that they were not bound to receive the new certificates in place of those left by them with the bank. They also contended that an election in the Gas Company was claimed to be illegal in a petition filed in the Supreme Court of the State.

"Judge Curtis decided that the stock itself was something that was not tangible and visible, and therefore could not have been left with or demanded from the bank—that the certificates were, in both the delivery to the bank and the tender

by the bank, the evidence of title to the stock; that the certificates tendered by the bank being perfect evidence of such title, the plaintiffs had no right of action, and that as to the contested election, whatever might hereafter be decided as to its validity, it was sufficient as between the parties to this suit, that the directors elected had acted as such. He therefore non-suited the plaintiffs."

CONDITION OF THE BANKS OF BALTIMORE, JANUARY, 1856.

The condition of several banks in Baltimore on the 1st of January, 1856, is given in the subjoined table, and totals of all the banks near the first of January for the last five years:—

BANKING MOVEMENT OF BALTIMORE, JANUARY 1.

Banks.	Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Merchants'	$2,554,766	$452,766	$301,555	$639,097
Union	2,092,722	325,525	387,990	800,803
Baltimore	1,837,546	237,458	202,165	657,395
Farmers and Planters'	1,362,762	216,709	326,132	491,491
Farmers and Merchants'	701,889	142,074	216,097	282,182
Commercial and Farmers'	956,158	172,111	156,439	383,862
Western	775,387	285,788	314,584	390,160
Franklin	947,610	131,815	263,755	342,372
Marine	544,422	103,718	68,696	263,337
Mechanics'	1,411,298	167,541	257,130	814,266
Citizens'	1,178,519	311,479	468,062	535,900
Chesapeake	641,768	58,269	159,835	331,979
Commerce	643,498	144,824	178,415	382,871
Howard	94,619	39,301	34,645	94,619
Fell's Point	454,897	46,378	52,870	75,921
January 1, 1856	$16,397,369	$2,832,762	$3,388,430	$6,485,352
January 1, 1855	14,279,363	2,484,946	2,638,708	5,858,628
January 2, 1854	14,069,213	2,848,708	2,956,532	6,962,938
January 3, 1853	14,291,221	2,991,910	3,328,058	6,021,707
January 5, 1852	11,428,509	1,967,564	2,108,667	8,912,977
January 6, 1851	11,783,716	2,330,174	3,281,918	4,528,936
January 7, 1850	10,924,113	2,113,758	2,973,588	3,648,817
January 2, 1849	9,797,417	1,781,911	1,781,911	2,827,896

THE "CREDIT MOBILIER" IN EUROPE.

The formation of institutions known under the title of "Credit Mobilier," is progressing very fast on the continent, and promises to extend to every state in Europe. The profits realized by the original institution in Paris, France, and the many facilities which it has afforded the shareholders of realizing extraneous profits, by means of a preferential distribution of shares in such public undertakings as it has been the means of forming, have contributed very greatly to the success of precisely similar projects in other countries. By the accounts received from the continent we learn that the subscriptions to the Credit Mobilier at Vienna, have already reached the sum of 644,666,000 florins—about $322,000,000—whilst the progress of the negotiations for the formation of one at Madrid is said to promise equal success.

METHOD OF PREVENTING THE ALTERATION OF BANK BILLS.

We frequently have occasion to notice in the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, some new invention to prevent counterfeiting and altering notes and bank bills, but none of these inventions have as yet proved entirely successful. The rogues

seem to be more ingenious in their devices than the inventors. According to a London cotemporary, it appears that WILLIAM Ross, of Falcon-square, London, has recently patented an invention for preventing the alteration of bank bills from one denomination to another. During the manufacture of the paper, when in a pulpy state, the characters or letters which indicate the denomination of the bill, whether "five," "ten," and so on, are imprinted upon it. This is accomplished by water-lining in the ordinary manner. To render the character impressed more apparent, it is proposed to print the words in colors, in such a manner as to secure the color penetrating the paper itself, which, by this means, will become part and parcel of the material, so that erasure will be impossible, without accomplishing the utter destruction of the substance upon which the impression is made.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

STATISTICS OF THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for January, 1856, (vol. xxxiv.,) under the appropriate department, we occupied much space with tablular statements of the "Commerce and Navigation of the United States" for the year ending June 30, 1855, condensed from the Annual Report of the Register of the Treasury, as transmitted to both houses of Congress on the first Monday in December, 1855. We now proceed to lay before our readers several other tables, which, for want of room, we were compelled to reserve for the present number. These tables will be found equally valuable for present and future reference, as those given in the previous number, and together exhibit a very complete view of our Commerce with all nations.

We commence with a summary statement of the quantity and value of goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into the United States during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1855. The value of each article is given, while the quantity of a great number is omitted. The latter is the most important to merchants, and we trust the present efficient head of the Treasury Department will take measures to secure returns of the quantities of each article imported or exported, as far as it may be practicable, that the same may be embraced in future reports.

MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES—1854–55 :—

FREE OF DUTY.

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Animals for breed	.....	$103,921
Bullion—		
Gold	.....	404,217
Silver	.....	139,743
Specie—		
Gold	.....	688,585
Silver	.....	2,427,267
Cabinets of coins, medals, and other collections of antiquities	.....	370
Models of inventions and improvements in the arts	.....	2,220
Teas ..... lbs.	25,203,884	6,930,986
Coffee	190,764,259	16,872,929

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Copper—		
In plates suited to sheathing	.....	$740,223
Ore	.....	889,007
Cotton, unmanufactured .....lbs.	2,115,367	131,457
Adhesive felt for sheathing vessels	.....	16,057
Paintings and statuary of American artists	.....	49,012
Specimens of natural history, &c.	.....	8,866
Sheathing metal	.....	903,618
Platina, unmanufactured	.....	40,332
Plaster, unground	.....	108,113
Wearing apparel, &c., of emig'nts & citiz'ns dying abroad	.....	236,534
Old junk and oakum	.....	20,095
Garden seeds, shrubs, trees, plants, &c.	.....	234,401
Articles, the produce of the U. States, brought back	.....	870,073
Guano.....tons	173,961	459,947
Articles imported for philosophical societies, &c.	.....	30,224
All other articles not subject to duty	.....	7,782,139
PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM.		
Manufactures of wool—		
Piece goods, including wool and cotton	.....	9,144,861
Shawls of wool, wool & cotton, silk, and silk & cotton	.....	2,240,104
Blankets	.....	1,170,642
Hosiery and articles on frames	.....	1,083,957
Worsted piece goods, including cotton and worsted	.....	8,590,506
Woolen and worsted yarn	.....	160,599
Manufactures not specified	.....	274,514
Flannels .....running yards	356,545	134,811
Baizes and bockings	378,457	97,578
Carpeting—		
Wilton, Saxony, Aubusson, Brussels, Turkey, and treble-ingrained, Venetian and other ingrained	1,492,952	1,327,707
Not specified	.....	178,870
Manufactures of cotton—		
Piece goods	.....	12,563,522
Velvets	.....	432,715
Cords, gimps, and galloons	.....	128,500
Hosiery and articles made on frames	.....	2,055,595
Twist yarn and thread	.....	997,673
Hatters' plush, of silk and cotton	.....	45,081
Manufactures of, not specified	.....	1,534,026
Silk, and manufactures of silk—		
Piece goods	.....	20,069,957
Hosiery and articles made on frames	.....	459,093
Sewing silk	.....	189,220
Hats and bonnets	.....	110,586
Manufactures not specified	.....	3,480,716
Floss	.....	9,366
Raw	.....	742,251
Bolting cloths	.....	56,984
Silk and worsted piece goods	.....	1,133,839
Goats' hair or mohair piece goods	.....	240,722
Manufactures of flax—		
Linens, bleached or unbleached	.....	7,552,865
Hosiery and articles made on frames	.....	1,409
Manufactures not specified	.....	1,062,891
Manufactures of hemp—		
Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps	.....	52,184
Articles not specified	.....	185,826
Sail duck, Russia, Holland, and Ravens.....pieces	2,367	11,828
Cotton bagging .....running yards	120,046	16,991
Clothing—		
Ready made	.....	388,410
Articles of wear	.....	1,587,252

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Laces—		
Thread and insertings	.....	$318,511
Cotton insertings, trimmings, laces, braids, &c	.....	767,055
Embroideries of wool, cotton, silk, and linen	.....	3,892,749
Floor-cloth, patent, painted, &c.....running yards	15,312	11,221
Oil-cloth of all kinds	73,814	32,261
Lasting and mohair cloth for shoes and buttons	.....	50,109
Gunny cloth and gunny bags	.....	779,387
Matting, Chinese and other, of flags, &c	.....	242,674
Hats, caps, and bonnets, flats, braids, plaits, &c., of straw, chips, grass, &c	.....	1,990,195
Manufactures of iron, and iron and steel—		
Muskets and rifles.....number	5,661	28,797
Fire-arms not specified	.....	659,650
Side-arms	.....	5,701
Needles	.....	211,604
Cutlery	.....	1,822,191
Other manufactures and wares of, not specified	.....	4,369,232
Cap or bonnet wire.....pounds	169,387	5,936
Nails, spikes, tacks, &c	2,121,689	109,670
Chain cables	17,510,799	633,674
Mill-saws, cross-cut, and pit-saws.....number	9,804	28,761
Anchors, and parts thereof.....pounds	1,741,405	87,076
Anvils, and parts thereof	1,194,761	67,495
Iron—		
Bar-iron.....cwt.	2,338,216	5,938,732
Rod-iron	127,639	352,236
Hoop-iron.....pounds	15,774,260	428,300
Sheet-iron	32,650,041	1,009,138
Pig-iron.....cwt.	1,978,495	1,979,463
Old and scrap iron	305,989	249,172
Railroad iron	2,550,327	4,993,900
Steel—		
Cast, shear, and German	181,506	1,737,406
All other	86,286	855,731
Copper, and manufactures of copper—		
In pigs and bars, and old	.....	2,227,457
Wire	.....	854
Braziers'	.....	3,947
Copper bottoms	.....	4,536
Manufactures of, not specified	.....	154,013
Rods and bolts.....pounds	3,471	640
Nails and spikes	6,243	1,686
Brass, and manufactures of brass—		
In pigs, bars, and old	.....	20,119
Wire	.....	9,733
Manufactures of, not specified	.....	228,918
Tin, and manufactures of tin—		
In pigs and bars	.....	699,720
In plates and sheets	.....	3,390,114
Foil	.....	20,320
Manufactures of, not specified	.....	32,260
Lead, and manufactures of lead—		
Pig, bar, sheet, and old.....pounds	56,745,247	2,556,523
Shot	129,134	5,995
Pipes	47,778	2,671
Manufactures of, not specified	.....	974
Pewter—		
Old	.....	10,300
Manufactures of, not specified	.....	1,101
Zinc, and manufactures of zinc—		
In pigs	.....	19,846
In sheets	.....	404,081
In nails	.....	3,797

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Spelter	.....	$252,872
Manufactures of gold and silver—		
Epaulets, wings, laces, galloons, tresses, tassals, &c.	.....	$35,115
Gold and silver leaf	.....	13,170
Jewelry, real or imitations of	.....	492,359
Gems, set	.....	4,320
Otherwise	.....	155,360
Manufactures of, not specified	.....	63,129
Glaziers' diamonds	.....	1,223
Clocks	.....	69,258
Chronometers	.....	12,405
Watches, and parts of	.....	3,651,187
Metallic pens	.....	94,499
Pins, in packs or otherwise	.....	33,415
Buttons—		
Metal	.....	25,449
All other, and button molds	.....	611,044
Glass, and manufactures of glass—		
Silvered	.....	437,859
Paintings on glass, porcelain, and colored	.....	11,834
Polished plate	.....	396,550
Manufactures of, not specified	.....	81,116
Glassware cut	.....	95,832
plain	.....	157,063
Watch crystals.....gross	11,461	25,170
Bottles	22,308	133,798
Demijohns.....number	67,860	15,066
Window glass.....square feet	20,852,737	599,999
Paper, and manufactures of paper—		
Paper, writing	.....	261,769
Sheathing paper	.....	232
Playing cards.....packs	189,745	17,229
Papier-mache, articles and wares of	.....	29,548
Paper-hangings	.....	277,226
Paper boxes and fancy boxes	.....	29,346
Paper, and manufactures of paper, not specified	.....	137,374
Blank books	.....	10,042
Parchment	.....	5,356
Printed books, magazines, &c.—		
In English	.....	602,917
In other languages	.....	168,473
Periodicals and illustrated newspapers	.....	21,902
Periodicals & other works in course of republication	.....	129
Engravings	.....	191,363
Mathematical instruments	.....	74,989
Musical instruments	.....	556,168
Daguerreotype plates	.....	133,309
Ink and ink powders	.....	20,792
Leather, and manufactures of leather—		
Tanned, bend, sole, and upper.....pounds	2,947,977	1,252,369
Skins, tanned and dressed.....dozen	79,016	436,031
Skivers	14,762	68,496
Boots and shoes.....pair	65,283	90,813
Gloves for men, women, and children	194,173	986,225
Manufactures of leather, not specified	.....	235,926
Wares—		
China, porcelain, earthen, and stone	.....	3,717,670
Plated or gilt	.....	196,551
Japanned	.....	37,542
Britannia	.....	32,948
Silver plated metal	.....	5,033
Silver or plated wire	.....	7,860

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Saddlery—		
Common tinned or japanned	.....	$116,184
Plated, brass, or polished steel	.....	221,355
Furs—		
Undressed on the skin	.....	497,368
Hatters' furs, dressed or undressed, not on the skin.	.....	906,210
Dressed, on the skin	.....	84,685
Manufactures of fur	.....	23,071
Manufactures of wood—		
Cabinet and household furniture	.....	48,705
Cedar, mahogany, rose, and satin wood	.....	25,021
Willow	.....	132,638
Other manufactures of	.....	670,051
Wood, unmanufactured—		
Cedar, grenadilla, mahogany, rose, and satin	.....	558,781
Willow	.....	45,459
Firewood and other, not specified	.....	592,224
Dyewood, in sticks	.....	792,947
Bark of the cork-tree—		
Corks	.....	267,324
Unmanufactured	.....	17,388
Ivory—		
Manufactures of	.....	22,332
Unmanufactured	.....	343,707
Marble—		
Manufactures of	.....	26,055
Unmanufactured	.....	232,385
Burr-stones	.....	67,754
Quicksilver	.....	26,983
Brushes and brooms	.....	189,260
Blacklead pencils	.....	77,756
Slates of all kinds	.....	126,372
Raw hides and skins	.....	8,048,015
Boots and shoes, other than leather.....pair	23,417	12,520
India rubber—		
Manufactures of	.....	43,720
Unmanufactured	.....	1,660,141
Hair—		
Manufactures of	.....	85,803
Unmanufactured	.....	545,751
Grass cloth	.....	41,590
Umbrellas, parasols, and sunshades, of silk and other	.....	94,073
Unmanufactured articles—		
Flaxseed or linseed.....bushels	1,102,545	1,009,381
Angora, Thibet, and other goats' hair or mohair.lbs.	65,369	16,832
Wool	18,534,415	2,072,139
Wines, in casks—		
Burgundy.....gallons	5,563	2,506
Madeira	71,912	46,445
Sherry and St. Lucar	383,398	208,414
Port	186,460	97,987
Claret	1,371,400	440,631
Teneriffe and other Canary	26,617	6,699
Fayal and other Azores	43,714	19,234
Sicily and other Mediterranean	197,700	65,359
Austria and other of Germany	22,919	9,628
Red wines, not enumerated	1,513,942	457,479
White wines, not enumerated	846,104	286,696
Wines, in bottles—		
Burgundy.....dozen	375	2,547
Champagne	157,717	909,922
Madeira	875	3,344
Sherry	7,080	25,915

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Port	6,286	$11,667
Claret	136,831	232,776
All other	159,520	290,081
Foreign distilled spirits—		
Brandy ..... gallons	1,024,497	1,479,362
From grain	1,190,642	575,560
From other materials	397,572	151,378
Cordials	39,178	53,186
Beer, ale, and porter—		
In casks	481,934	194,765
In bottles	798,183	557,808
Honey	437,159	138,189
Molasses	26,385,593	3,502,370
Oil and bone, of foreign fishing—		
Spermaceti	450	353
Whale and other fish	103,394	36,297
Whalebone ..... lbs.	35,945	14,937
Oil—		
Olive, in casks ..... gallons	126,478	88,646
Olive, in bottles ..... dozen	192,383	316,154
Castor ..... gallons	38,716	25,425
Linseed	1,243,035	776,097
Rapeseed and hempseed	45,381	26,658
Palm	767,784	295,211
Neatsfoot and other animal	5,284	2,899
Essential oils	.....	117,250
Tea and coffee, &c.—		
Teas ..... lbs.	129,213	43,013
Coffee	714,398	67,471
Cocoa	2,427,707	127,899
Sugar—		
Brown	468,307,442	14,418,887
White, clayed, or powdered	5,241,272	241,569
Loaf and other refined	207,990	13,091
Candy	74,371	8,949
Sirup of sugar-cane	53,143	2,798
Fruits—		
Almonds	3,716,251	250,316
Currants	1,626,070	94,389
Prunes	759,797	64,568
Plums	1,379,264	50,957
Figs	2,850,529	111,638
Dates	1,124,257	17,671
Raisins	21,183,339	1,064,243
Oranges, lemons, and limes	.....	848,676
Other green fruit	.....	144,431
Preserved fruit	.....	138,794
Nuts	7,802,675	243,027
Spices—		
Mace	48,235	25,107
Nutmegs	506,845	283,886
Cinnamon	52,096	14,552
Cloves	722,174	53,972
Pepper, black	3,470,229	183,112
Pepper, red	187,197	10,010
Pimento	2,931,386	225,286
Cassia	1,413,438	176,336
Ginger, ground	28,503	668
Ginger, in root	1,362,235	39,721
Camphor, crude	193,909	29,564
Candles—		
Wax and spermaceti	18,818	6,315

Species of merchandise.		Quantity.	Value.
Stearine	lbs.	63,972	$14,467
Cheese		1,526,942	146,269
Soap, perfumed		228,237	23,729
other than perfumed		2,973,430	175,150
Tallow		53,445	3,777
Starch		44,387	2,034
Arrowroot		93,591	13,410
Butter		1,485,209	97,658
Lard		103,608	2,294
Beef and pork		158,397	6,194
Hams and other bacon		75,216	9,411
Bristles		507,847	315,113
Saltpetre—			
Crude		25,205,332	1,066,204
Refined, or partly refined		118,405	7,573
Indigo		1,322,726	853,335
Woad or pastel		5,586	220
Cochineal		377,867	294,419
Madder		10,652,548	851,979
Gums—			
Arabic, Senegal, &c.		4,929,437	226,206
Other gums		4,799,725	486,891
Borax		647,478	121,853
Copperas		381,781	3,594
Verdigris		90,735	20,156
Brimstone—			
Crude		24,763,263	204,123
Rolled		467,042	9,100
Chloride of lime, or bleaching powder		9,932,510	241,636
Soda ash		46,660,962	869,953
Soda, sal		2,627,505	31,014
Soda, carb		7,423,569	169,234
Barilla		4,382,804	32,313
Sulphate of barytes		5,985,585	42,467
Acids, acetic, &c.		599,529	88,764
Vitriol—			
Blue or Roman		181,233	14,375
Oil of		8,766	170
Sulphate of quinine	ounces	80,822	154,098
Liquorice—Root	lbs.	607,596	12,739
Paste		2,858,716	287,075
Bark—			
Peruvian or quilla		1,952,742	411,197
Other		31,654	3,851
Ivory and bone-black		1,100	27
Opium		111,229	407,683
Glue		121,832	13,209
Gunpowder		21,363	5,307
Alum		247,811	4,532
Tobacco—			
Unmanufactured		4,363,104	614,076
Snuff		22,259	4,729
Cigars	M.	376,019	3,438,997
Manufactured, other than snuff and cigars	lbs.	139,950	21,867
Paints—			
Dry ochre		1,778,714	15,317
Red and White lead		2,319,099	134,885
Whiting and Paris white		9,549,650	40,779
Litharge		243,618	12,051
Sugar of lead		480,807	36,578
Cordage—			
Tarred and cables		1,746,750	134,486
Untarred		589,624	52,638

Species of merchandise.	Quantity.	Value.
Twine and seines .....lbs.	792,437	$55,704
Hemp, unmanufactured .....cwt.	19,217	112,763
Manilla, sun, and other hemp of India, &c.....	285,090	2,045,653
Jute, Sisal grass, coir, &c.	93,306	295,162
Codilla or tow of hemp or flax	3,043	19,503
Flax unmanufactured	28,961	286,809
Rags of all kinds .....lbs.	40,013,516	1,225,151
Salt .....bushels	12,926,234	1,718,980
Coal.....tons	287,408	903,067
Breadstuffs—		
Wheat .....bushels	1,012,132	1,456,180
Barley	155,782	121,687
Rye	42,381	32,601
Oats.....	49,051	19,148
Wheat flour.....cwt.	505,751	1,982,694
Rye meal.....	198	587
Oatmeal	3,647	8,844
Potatoes .....bushels	516,241	222,314
Fish, dried, smoked, or pickled—		
Dried or smoked.....cwt.	111,913	265,934
Salmon .....barrels	6,316	85,796
Mackerel	80,990	432,431
Herrings and shad	46,902	129,938
All other.....	26,050	86,231
Value of merchandise not enumerated—		
At 5 per cent	.....	1,108,468
At 10 per cent	.....	375,925
At 15 per cent	.....	19,057
At 20 per cent	.....	3,477,187
At 25 per cent	.....	164,725
At 30 per cent	.....	1,871,020
At 40 per cent	.....	367,324
Paying duties	.....	221,378,184
Free of duty	.....	40,090,336
Total	.....	261,468,520
By amount to be deducted from the above on account of allowances made for deficiencies in settling invoices, which were not closed when the quarterly returns were transmitted	.....	85,560
Total	.....	261,382,960

INDIRECT TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

For a few years past the reports from the Treasury Department have furnished statements exhibiting the value of our indirect trade; that is, the value of imports, the produce and manufacture of the States forming the German Zollverein, Switzerland, and Austria, included in importations from the Hanseatic Towns, Holland, Belgium, France, and England. The following table of this indirect trade is for the year ending June 30th, 1855. The articles are, as above stated, included in importations from the Hanseatic Towns, France, England, &c., &c. :—

Species of merchandise.	Zollverein.	Switzerland.	Austria.	Total.
Manufactures of wool.....	$5,223,820	$69,526	$40,572	$5,333,918
Cotton	1,529,477	212,700	1,756	1,743,933
Silk, &c.....	2,088,954	4,346,534	7,330	6,442,818
Flax and linens, &c.....	66,929	546	.....	67,475
Hemp	5,211	.....	.....	5,211
Iron and steel	522,390	28,426	433	551,249
Copper.....	20,468	.....	.....	20,468

Species of merchandise.	Zollverein.	Switzerland.	Austria.	Total.
Brass	$56,343	$1,959	.....	$58,302
Gold and silver	125,822	14,510	$4,452	144,784
Glass	282,237	.....	14,875	297,112
Paper, &c.	84,757	1,354	2,733	88,844
Leather, &c.	232,065	8,829	3,261	244,155
Wood, &c.	217,613	1,300	9,532	228,445
Tin	91	.....	.....	91
Watches	593	2,573,416	.....	2,574,009
Watch crystals	.....	23,650	.....	23,650
Watch makers' tools	.....	140	.....	140
Clothing, articles of wear	223,074	5,940	139,098	368,112
Ready-made	465	.....	.....	465
Laces, thread and cotton	23,921	336	588	24,845
Oil-cloth	3,224	.....	.....	3,224
Hair-cloth, &c.	4,826	.....	.....	4,826
Lastings	3,721	.....	.....	3,721
Furs, dressed and undressed	401,189	.....	.....	401,189
Wares, earthen, &c.	53,727	.....	4,464	58,191
Japanned	569	.....	.....	569
Plated	5,576	.....	9,271	14,847
Pebbles for spectacles	430	.....	.....	430
Artificial flowers	617	.....	663	1,280
Argoles	137	5,857	.....	5,994
Alabaster, manufactures of	196	.....	.....	196
Bone, manufactures of	42	.....	.....	42
Baskets	3,390	.....	66	3,456
Bacon, hams	663	.....	.....	663
Bladders	1,008	.....	.....	1,008
Brushes and brooms	2,609	.....	.....	2,609
Books, printed	43,664	173	30	43,867
Pocket	812	.....	.....	812
Bristles	33,123	.....	.....	33,123
Buttons	167,757	.....	43,172	210,929
Block tin	7,468	.....	.....	7,468
Building stones	182	.....	.....	182
Bronze, powders	13,883	.....	.....	13,883
Manufactures of	129	.....	.....	129
Barytes, sulphate of	654	.....	.....	654
Bleaching powders	69	.....	.....	69
Burr-stone	1,912	.....	.....	1,912
Barley	947	.....	.....	947
Cod-liver oil	20	.....	.....	20
Cobalt	294	.....	.....	294
Clay, unwrought	354	.....	.....	354
Cheese	24,511	5,702	.....	30,213
Chemical apparatus	569	.....	.....	569
Preparations	142	.....	.....	142
Instruments	644	.....	.....	644
Camomile flowers	2,870	.....	.....	2,870
Cornelian rings	5,989	.....	458	6,447
Chicory	2,659	.....	.....	2,659
Chalk	158	.....	.....	158
Cologne water	16,959	.....	.....	16,959
Combs	2,538	.....	12	2,550
Canes, walking	1,001	.....	321	1,322
Corks	1,141	.....	.....	1,141
Cranberries	125	.....	.....	125
Confectionery	967	.....	98	1,065
Clay, prepared	41	.....	.....	41
Clocks	.....	408	474	882
Cream tartar	.....	470	.....	470
Chessmen	116	.....	.....	116
Chocolate	63	.....	.....	63

Species of merchandise.	Zollverein.	Switzerland.	Austria.	Total.
Corsets	$201	.....	.....	$201
Cords, gimps, and galloons	2,535	.....	.....	2,535
Cantharides	160	.....	.....	160
Coral	.....	$2,158	.....	2,158
Cameos	800	.....	.....	800
Chenile	309	.....	.....	309
Drugs and medicines	11,211	1,199	$432	12,842
Dutch metal	13,917	.....	.....	13,917
Engravings	7,818	.....	302	8,120
Embroideries	238,366	311,638	.....	550,004
Essential oils	5,338	.....	.....	5,338
Ergot	158	.....	.....	158
Extracts	449	.....	.....	449
Fruits	14,005	.....	.....	14,005
Fancy goods	17,571	58	646	18,275
Feathers	445	.....	.....	445
Galvanic apparatus	14	.....	.....	14
Garden and other seeds	921	.....	.....	921
Gems	12,213	.....	991	13,204
Glue	1,454	.....	.....	1,454
Grind-stones	21	.....	.....	21
Hair, manufactured	519	961	.....	1,480
Unmanufactured	480	.....	.....	480
Hats, caps, and bonnets, &c.	19,486	149,853	.....	169,339
Hops	1,983	.....	.....	1,983
Herrings	52	.....	.....	52
India-rubber	373	.....	.....	373
Manufactures of	1,002	.....	.....	1,002
Lamps	31	.....	.....	31
Lead, in pig, bar, &c.	86,252	.....	.....	86,252
Manufactures of	1,139	.....	.....	1,139
Lentils	1,765	.....	.....	1,765
Litharge	697	.....	.....	697
Lithographic stones	2,641	.....	.....	2,641
Madder	4,900	.....	.....	4,900
Magnesia	232	.....	.....	232
Matches for pocket-lights	87	.....	1,422	1,509
Mathematical instruments	10,233	984	.....	11,217
Meats, prepared	31	.....	.....	31
Medical preparations	5,515	.....	.....	5,515
Mill-stones	1,780	.....	.....	1,780
Mineral water	134	.....	.....	134
Mosaics	74	.....	382	459
Mohair	10,207	.....	.....	10,207
Molds, plaster of Paris	41	.....	.....	41
Musical instruments	138,731	7,732	32,676	179,139
Music, printed and in sheets	7,671	.....	251	7,922
Mustard	43	.....	.....	43
Nickel	19,025	.....	.....	19,025
Nitric acid	83	.....	.....	83
Nuts	.....	172	.....	172
Oats, &c.	238	.....	.....	238
Oil, Harlem	240	.....	.....	240
Optical instruments	7,937	.....	.....	7,937
Paintings	3,300	453	107	3,860
Paints and painters' colors	4,223	.....	1,487	5,710
Paving tiles	487	.....	.....	487
Peas and beans	38	.....	.....	38
Pencils, black lead	51,501	.....	1,985	53,486
Percussion caps	1,922	.....	.....	1,922
Perfumery	194	.....	.....	194
Philosophical instruments	278	.....	.....	278

Species of merchandise.	Zollverein.	Switzerland.	Austria.	Total.
Phosphorus	$425	.....	.....	$425
Pins	215	.....	.....	215
Pipes	15,204	.....	$66	15,270
Printed labels	179	.....	.....	179
Prints, lithographic	92	.....	.....	92
Polishing stones	96	.....	.....	96
Portmonaies	56	.....	.....	56
Potash hydt	104	.....	.....	104
Potatoes	1,204	.....	.....	1,205
Quinine	3,305	.....	.....	3,305
Rugs	29	.....	....	29
Sago	9	.....	.....	9
Salts of tin	124	.....	.....	124
Sand crucibles	545	.....	....	545
Seltzer water	301	.....	.....	301
Spectacles	48	.....	.....	48
Sheep skins with wool on	252	.....	.....	252
Shoe patterns	7	.....	.....	7
Slates of all kinds	6,964	.....	.....	6,964
Slate pencils	3,893	.....	.....	3,893
Soap	1,498	.....	30	1,528
Spelter	38,785	.....	.....	38,785
Statuary	616	.....	.....	616
Spirits, brandy	1,609	.....	15	1,624
Cordials	843	.....	702	1,545
Stationery	243	.....	.....	243
Steel, German, in bars	18,728	.....	.....	18,728
Stereotypes	253	.....	.....	253
Succory	3,643	.....	.....	3,643
Surgical instruments	653	.....	.....	653
Sausages	55	.....	.....	55
Sugar of milk	83	.....	.....	83
Sirups	298	.....	.....	298
Sponges	2,043	$522	.....	2,565
Thibets	11,699	.....	.....	11,699
Thermometers	746	.....	.....	746
Tobacco, cigars	339,000	.....	.....	339,000
Snuff	308	.....	.....	308
Unmanufactured	40	.....	.....	40
Telescopes	101	.....	.....	101
Tin, other	10	.....	.....	10
Toys	47,498	.....	.....	47,498
Types	350	.....	.....	350
Twine	149	.....	.....	149
Ultra marine	10,888	.....	.....	10,888
Umbrellas	102	.....	.....	102
Vegetables	1,075	.....	.....	1,075
Vermillion	642	.....	799	1,441
Vinegar	126	.....	.....	126
Violin strings, of gut	1,594	.....	.....	1,594
Of wire	582	.....	.....	582
Vitriol	.....	.....	305	305
Wafers	45	.....	.....	45
Wax candles	1,460	.....	.....	1,460
Other manufactures of	.....	.....	109	109
Tapers	243	.....	.....	243
Willow cloth	248	.....	.....	248
Sticks	29	.....	.....	29
Wines, in casks	35,618	593	3,070	39,281
In bottles	24,524	33	6,186	30,743
Wire, silver	832	.....	.....	832
Wool flocks	17,191	.....	279	17,470

Species of merchandise.	Zollverein.	Switzerland.	Austria.	Total.
Zinc, in sheets	$5,728	.....	.....	$5,728
Free goods—				
Paintings	298	.....	.....	298
Seeds	615	.....	.....	615
Total	$12,835,530	$7,778,132	$335,904	$20,949,566

The following table (in continuation of indirect trade) exhibits the value of imports, the produce and manufacture of the States forming the German Zollverein, (or Germanic Union of Customs,) Switzerland, and Austria, during the same period, the details of which appear in the preceding table :—

	VIA PORTS OF			
Imported from	Bremen.	England.	France.	Belgium.
Prussia	$1,982,313	$1,942,463	$1,926,249	$840,604
Bavaria	692,048	26,878	60,711	5,886
Saxony	2,013,910	168,915	114,745	25,303
Frankfort-on-the-Main	225,137	42,936	304,570	85,024
Baden	33,751	9,553	74,764	115,768
Wirtemburg	75,441	34,263	21,819	9,472
Hesse	186,744	35,974	130,306	26,590
Brunswick	3,223	.....	.....	.....
Oldenburg	1,047	.....	138	.....
Saxe Meningen	6,171	.....	.....	.....
Saxe Weimar	9,194	.....	.....	.....
Hanover	43,409	.....	.....	868
Countries not specified	52,583	581,844	4,445	47,435
Total Zollverein	$5,324,971	$2,842,826	$2,637,747	$1,156,950
Total Switzerland	569,168	3,405,266	3,791,004	.....
Total Austria	188,995	59,555	56,966	.....
Total value	$6,083,134	$6,307,647	$6,485,717	$1,156,950

	VIA PORTS OF			
Imported from.	Holland.	Hamburg.	Rotterdam.	Total.
Prussia	$67,314	$264,714	$905	$7,024,562
Bavaria	1,261	35,764	945	823,493
Saxony	6,437	381,281	.....	2,710,591
Frankfort-on-the-Main	12,819	11,721	.....	682,207
Baden	42,844	259	1,153	278,092
Wirtemburg	7,394	813	201	149,403
Hesse	11,435	5,369	.....	396,418
Brunswick	.....	.....	.....	3,223
Oldenburg	.....	23	.....	1,208
Saxe Meningen	.....	.....	.....	6,171
Saxe Weimar	.....	4,215	.....	13,409
Hanover	.....	.....	.....	44,277
Countries not specified	16,169	.....	.....	702,476
Total Zollverein	$165,673	$704,159	$3,204	$12,835,530
Total Switzerland	9,542	3,152	.....	7,778,132
Total Austria	500	29,888	.....	335,904
Total value	$175,715	$737,199	$3,204	$20,949,566

THE ICE TRADE.

We published in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, an elaborate paper on the Ice Trade which had its origin in Boston. The *Journal of Commerce* says, that there is now invested in this single branch of business, in all parts of the United States, between $6,000,000 and $7,000,000 ; and the number

of men to which it gives employment, during the winter months, is supposed to be from 8,000 to 10,000. The total annual consumption of ice in New York alone exceeds 100,000 tons. Boston consumes about 50,000 tons of ice yearly; and Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington, nearly an equal amount. Besides this large domestic consumption, there is every year a large amount exported to Southern cities. Boston exports much more than New York.

MERCANTILE MARINE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

Table No. 60 in the finance accounts of the United Kingdom, printed near the close of 1855, shows the number of vessels, their tonnage, and number of persons navigating them, belonging to the several ports of the British Empire, in the years 1852, 1853, and 1854, years ending December 31 in each year :—

	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.
1852.			
England	19,600	2,907,999	147,212
Scotland	3,450	535,008	29,512
Ireland	2,178	254,997	13,900
Guernsey, Jersey, and the Isle of Man	858	61,274	5,973
British plantations	8,316	665,114	46,816
Total	34,402	4,424,392	243,513
1853.			
England	20,078	3,150,653	152,184
Scotland	3,451	559,141	29,583
Ireland	2,219	259,364	14,683
Guernsey, Jersey, and the Isle of Man	860	61,043	5,701
British plantations	8,701	734,218	52,365
Total	35,309	4,764,422	253,806
1854.			
England	20,336	3,365,330	162,426
Scotland	3,393	556,978	29,055
Ireland	2,257	262,377	13,263
Guernsey, Jersey, and the Isle of Man	873	64,065	5,911
British plantations	9,101	794,520	55,860
Total	35,960	5,043,270	266,415

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

NOTES ON INSURANCE AND INSURANCE COMPANIES.

We abstract from MARTIN'S "Twenty-One Years in the Boston Stock Market," notes appended to some interesting tabular statements of stock fluctuations in that market :—

INSURANCE PROFITS. The profits of insurance companies are from two sources: the gains in their business and the investment of their capital. For example, supposing an office to have its capital invested in bank stock, paying 8 per cent; the company would only have to earn 12 per cent net, over office expenses, to make an annual dividend of 20 per cent. And, on the other hand, were it to earn only enough to pay office expenses, it could still pay 4 per cent semi-annually from investment of its capital. It is therefore a principal item with an insurance company to have its capital profitably invested.

Large as the dividends have in some cases been, the profits on marine risks, taking three of our best Boston offices as a test, have not exceeded, for the past thirty years, 4 per cent annually on capital stock. The extra profits have been realized from investment of capital. Had the dividends on this class of risks depended on the profits thereon, they would have been exceedingly small, even with the best paying offices. A State-street office which declared 20 per cent dividends for several years, made but 4 per cent on its marine, and 6 per cent on its fire risks—the remaining 10 per cent being earned by its invested capital.

Marine Offices. The actual business of three of the Boston insurance companies, confined solely to marine writing, from 1826 to 1853, shows average dividends of 9 642-1000 per annum. Of this, 7 247-1000 per cent was derived from interest on investments, leaving a net profit of only 2 395-1000 from marine insurance. Since 1853, the marine losses, as is well known, have been unusually severe, and had these years been included in the above statement, the profits from this source would have shown even a smaller percentage. It is stated that the enormous sum of $18,972,092 74 was absorbed in marine losses, by the insurance companies of Massachusetts and New York, during the disastrous year of 1854.

Dark Times. During the bank troubles in 1837 and following years, the insurance companies sustained a serious loss from bank failures, and reduction of capital consequent upon losses—the long period of very small dividends by the banks, and, in some cases, none at all; the capitals of these companies being very largely invested in bank stock. In 1843 the amount thus invested was $4,708,410, out of $7,170,000 capital.

Closing up of Companies. Several companies closed business between 1841 and 1844; and, generally, quite well. The Atlantic, in March, 1843, sold a quantity of bank and railroad stock, and gave notice that a dividend of 80 per cent would be allowed any stockholder purchasing, in part payment for the stock purchased.

In April, the New England Insurance Company sold a large lot of bank and railroad stocks. Among the same were 400 shares of the Suffolk Bank, which brought from 15¾ to 16 per cent advance. Stockholders were reminded that a dividend of 65 per cent was due, which would be received in part payment for any stock purchased.

PROPERTY DESTROYED BY FIRES IN 1854 AND 1855.

The following table shows the number of fires, and the value of property destroyed in each month, years ending December 31st, 1854 and 1855 :—

	1855.		1854.	
	No. of Fires.	Loss.	No. of Fires.	Loss.
January	19	$1,093,000	25	$2,252,000
February	20	1,195,000	22	1,668,000
March	26	1,678,000	11	1,221,000
April	19	1,450,000	22	1,916,000
May	21	1,448,000	8	393,000
June	16	1,285,000	16	895,000
July	13	1,217,000	24	3,270,000
August	8	392,000	27	4,412,000
September	13	1,102,000	15	708,000
October	14	803,000	16	1,040,000
November	10	650,000	17	937,000
December	14	736,000	20	1,866,000
Total	193	$13,049,000	223	$20,578,000

To which must be added the amount of property destroyed by fires where the loss was less than twenty thousand dollars, which would probably increase the aggregate to at least twenty-five millions in 1854, and to about eighteen millions in 1855, which shows a decrease in the amount of property destroyed by fire during the past year compared with 1854, of seven millions of dollars.

BOSTON INSURANCE COMPANIES IN 1855 AND 1856.

The subjoined table shows the par value, number of shares sold, highest and lowest price in 1855, and the price on the first of January, 1855 and 1856, together with the semi-annual dividends paid by the insurance companies in Boston.

		1855.					Dividends.		
	Par.	Highest.	Lowest.	Shares sold.	Jan. 1, 1855.	Jan. 2, 1856.	1855.		Jan., 1856.
American	100	143	125	1	125	133	8	8	8
Boston	100	70	53	5	59	72	0	0	..
Boylston	100	110½	100	..	100	108	0	0	..
Cochituate	50	43	40	..	42	40	4	3	..
Eliot	50	57	47	98	47	55	5	5	..
Firemen's	25	50	44	20	47	50	10	10	12
Franklin	100	102	94	9	94	95	6	6	4
Hope	100	48	35	1	40	40	0	0	..
Manufacturers'	100	155	130	6	150	135	5	5	..
Mercantile Marine	100	97	80	..	90	87	4	5	..
National	50	73	65	10	65	70	6	6	..
Neptune	100	115	85	17	85	113	0	0	..
North American	100	103	90	15	90	100	5	4	4
Suffolk	100	97	85	..	95	85	4	0	..
United States	50	43	33	..	35	42	0	5	..
Warren	100	72	40	..	40	71	0	0	..
Washington	100	53	41	..	50	53	0	0	..

POSTAL DEPARTMENT.

FRANKING PRIVILEGE TO MEMBERS OF CONGRESS.

In answer to inquiries from postmasters, we learn the Postmaster-General decides that, under the law, as the right *to send* or *receive* mail matter free of postage is a *personal* privilege, and travels with the person possessing it, it follows, of course, that it can be exercised in but one place at the same time. Therefore, a member of Congress while at Washington, for instance, cannot have mailable matter sent free, under his frank, from the post-office at the place of his residence, nor such matter *received free* at such office by his family, partner, or agent, on the ground that it is addressed to a person enjoying the right to frank. A member may have any of his mail matter, entitled to go free, forwarded to him wherever he may be, free of charge. In like manner, a letter or packet, duly franked, may be forwarded from one office to another free of postage, if the person to whom it is addressed has changed his location.

SAILING OF THE UNITED STATES MAIL STEAMERS AND POSTAL REGULATIONS FOR 1856.

POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON, January 14, 1856.

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

SIR:—I transmit herewith, agreeably to your request of the 9th inst., a copy of the schedule for 1856 of the days of sailing of the United States Mail Steamers between this country and Europe.

I also inclose a copy of the last issue of "Tables of Postages to Foreign Coun-

tries," together with the regulations with respect to the registry of valuable letters, &c.

The circular letter inclosed may also be serviceable to you as it contains many important instructions, with copies of the recent acts of Congress modifying the rates of postage, &c.

I am, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JAMES M. CAMPBELL.

SCHEDULE OF THE DAYS OF SAILING OF THE UNITED STATES MAIL STEAMERS BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND EUROPE FOR 1856.

Line.	From New York.	From Liverpool.	From Southampton.	From Havre.	From Bremen.
Collins.....	January 5	January 12			
Havre.....	January 12	.....	Febr'ary 13	Febr'ary 13	
Collins.....	January 19	January 23			
Bremen.....	January 26	.....	Febr'ary 27	.....	Febr'ary 23
Collins.....	Febr'ary 2	Febr'ary 6			
Havre.....	Febr'ary 9	.....	March 12	March 12	
Collins.....	Febr'ary 16	Febr'ary 20			
Bremen.....	Febr'ary 23	.....	March 26	.....	March 22
Collins.....	March 1	March 5			
Havre.....	March 8	.....	April 9	April 9	
Collins.....	March 15	March 19			
Bremen.....	March 22	.....	April 23	.....	April 19
Collins.....	March 29	April 2			
Havre.....	April 5	.....	May 7	May 7	
Collins.....	April 12	April 16			
Bremen.....	April 19	.....	May 21	.....	May 17
Collins.....	April 26	April 30			
Havre.....	May 3	.....	June 4	June 4	
Collins.....	May 10	May 14			
Bremen.....	May 17	.....	June 18	.....	June 14
Collins.....	May 24	May 28			
Havre.....	May 31	.....	July 2	July 2	
Collins.....	June 7	June 11			
Bremen.....	June 14	.....	July 16	.....	July 12
Collins.....	June 21	June 25			
Havre.....	June 28	.....	July 30	July 30	
Collins.....	July 5	July 9			
Bremen.....	July 12	.....	August 13	.....	August 9
Collins.....	July 19	July 23			
Havre.....	July 26	.....	August 27	August 27	
Collins.....	August 2	August 6			
Bremen.....	August 9	.....	Septem. 10	.....	Septem. 6
Collins.....	August 16	August 20			
Havre.....	August 23	.....	Septem. 24	Septem. 24	
Collins.....	August 30	Septem. 3			
Bremen.....	Septem. 6	.....	October 8	.....	October 4
Collins.....	Septem. 13	Septem. 17			
Havre.....	Septem. 20	.....	October 22	October 22	
Collins.....	Septem. 27	October 1			
Bremen.....	October 4	.....	Novem. 5	.....	Novem. 1
Collins.....	October 11	October 15			
Havre.....	October 18	.....	Novem. 19	Novem. 19	
Collins.....	October 25	October 29			
Bremen.....	Novem. 1	.....	Decem. 3	.....	Novem. 29
Collins.....	Novem. 8	Novem. 12			
Havre.....	Novem. 15	.....	Decem. 17	Decem. 17	
Collins.....	Novem. 22	Novem. 26			
Bremen.....	Novem. 29	.....	Decem. 31	.....	Decem. 27
Collins.....	Decem. 6	Decem. 10			
Collins.....	Decem. 20	Decem. 24			

IMPORTANT INSTRUCTIONS.

The single rate of letter postage *by either of the above lines*, (and the same in respect to the British lines,) to or from any point in the United States, (except Oregon and California,) for or from any point in Great Britain, is 24 cents—*prepayment optional.* Newspapers, each two cents United States, and two cents British; each country to collect *its own postage*, whether the paper is sent *from* or received *in* the United States. [British newspapers usually come *British* postage paid by a penny stamp, equal to two cents.] They must be sent in narrow bands, open at the ends. Letters for the continent of Europe, to pass *through* Great Britain in the *open* mail, must be prepaid 21 cents when the Atlantic conveyance is by United States packets, and 5 cents when by British packets, except from California or Oregon, when the sum to be prepaid is, in the former instance, 26 cents, and in the latter, 10 cents. Thus, in the one case, the Atlantic sea postage is to be collected at the mailing office in the United States, and in the other left to be collected, together with the British transit and other foreign postage, at the office of delivery. Between Great Britain and Oregon and California, the single rate of letter postage is 29 cents.

Periodical works and pamphlets may be sent from the United States to the United Kingdom, and *vice versa*, at 2 cents of United States postage each, if they do not exceed two ounces in weight, and at 4 cents per ounce, or fraction of an ounce, when they exceed that weight, to be collected in all cases in the United States; and the same will be subject to an additional like charge in the United Kingdom. When sent to foreign countries, *without passing through the United Kingdom*, they will be chargeable with 1 cent an ounce, or fraction of an ounce, United States postage—*prepayment required.*

Single rate of letter postage to or from Bremen, *by the Bremen line*, 10 cents—*prepayment optional.* Newspapers, each 3 cents, being the United States and German postage—*prepayment required.* Letters and newspapers to other parts of the continent may also go by this line, subject to various rates; for which see Foreign Postage Table.

Single rate of letter postage to or from France, *by the Havre line*, 20 cents, to be *prepaid* on letters sent and collected on letters received. Newspapers, 2 cents each, to be collected in the United States, whether the paper is sent or received.

Single rate of letter postage by the Prussian *closed* mail to Prussia, Austria, and all the other German States, 30 cents, being the full postage—*prepayment optional.* Newspapers, 6 cents each, being also the full postage—*prepayment required.* This mail is sent by every steamer, being landed at Liverpool by the Collins, and at Southampton by the Bremen and Havre lines.

N. B. ALL LETTERS to and from FOREIGN COUNTRIES (the British North American Provinces excepted) are to be charged with single rate of postage, if not exceeding the weight of half an ounce; double rate if exceeding half an ounce, but not exceeding an ounce; quadruple rate if exceeding an ounce, but not exceeding two ounces; and so on, charging *two rates* for every ounce, or fractional part of an ounce, over the first ounce. As this rule differs from that followed in respect to domestic letters, great care is requisite to prevent mistakes. Postmasters should be careful, also, where the postage is prepaid, to collect the proper amount. They should be particular to notice the *route indicated* on the envelopes of letters, and to collect postage accordingly. Letters mailed at some offices, marked "*via England*," or "*via Prussian closed mail*," for the German States, are frequently taken upon the prepayment of Bremen rates, and those marked "*via Bremen*," at Prussian closed mail rates, &c. Refer in all cases to the Postage Tables.

The mails for the Pacific leave New York on the 5th and 20th; Charleston and Savannah on the 4th and 19th; and New Orleans on the 5th and 20th of each month.

Mails for Mexico will be dispatched tri-monthly by the New Orleans and Vera Cruz United States Steamship Line. United States letter postage, 10 cents under 2,500 and 20 cents over 2,500 miles from the mailing office; to be prepaid

when sent from, and collected when received in, the United States. Newspapers, 2 cents each, to be collected in the United States, as above.

Single rate of letter pastage to Havana and the British West Indies, 10 cents under 2,500 and 20 cents over 2,500 miles; newspapers, 2 cents; and to West Indies, (not British,) Carthagena, Honduras, and St. Juan, (Nicaragua,) 34 cents under 2,500 and 44 cents over 2,500 miles; newspapers, 6 cents each—*prepayment required.*

JAMES CAMPBELL, Postmaster-General.

POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, December 1, 1855.

REGISTERED LETTERS AND THE FRANKING PRIVILEGE.

Any persons having the franking privilege for their private communications may frank a registered letter, but their frank does not cover the registration *fee*, which must always be paid. Except in the case of public documents, a member of Congress cannot send nor receive free any letter or packet weighing over two ounces. The excess above two ounces on any such private packet, to or from a member of Congress, must be charged and collected.

Postmasters should bear in mind that the regulation which required all packages of registered letters to be sealed has been revoked by the Postmaster-General.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NOTICES TO MARINERS.

LIGHTS ON EHE SOUTHWEST COAST OF NORWAY.

The Royal Norwegian Marine Department at Christiania has given notice, that on the 28th day of November last the following channel lights were established at the entrances to Egersund, on the southwest coast of Norway:—

FIXED LIGHT AT VIBBER-ODDE.

This light is placed on the southeastern point of Egero, on the western side of the southern entrance to Egersund. The height of the light is sixty-nine feet above the level of the sea, and it should be visible in clear weather at a distance of twelve miles, from S. ½ W. round easterly to N. ⅜ E. It will be lighted all the year round. The light-tower stands in latitude 58° 24′ N. longitude 5° 56′ E. of Greenwich. The S. ½ W. limit of this light falls just to the eastward of the rocks Ionsbo and Marra lying on the west side of the channel off Skarvo. On the eastern side of the channel, on a S. ½ E. and S. ½ E. bearing from the light, lie the rocks Isaks-flue and Svanas-flue The mariner must be careful, therefore, not to bring the light on a bearing to the westward of north, nor to the eastward of north-half-east while within three miles of the light.

FIXED LIGHT AT GRUNDSUNDHOLM.

This light is placed at the northwestern point of Grundsundholm, the innermost and most easterly holm in the western or northern channel to Egersund. The height of the light is forty-one feet above the level of the sea, and it should be visible to seaward in clear weather at a distance of about ten miles between the limits of W. by S. and W. by S. ⅜ S. Inside the islet of Guleholm the light is visible from W. S. W. round northerly to E. N. E. It will be lighted all the year round. The light-tower stands in latitude 58° 26′ ¼ N., longitude 5° 50′ ¼ E. of Greenwich.

This light serves as a guide to vessels passing through the channel leading between the northwest side of Egero and Guleholm (the southernmost of the larger holms lying on the Grundsundholm) to the anchorage on the east side of the Housholm, (to the northwest of the light,) and to Skadberghagen, inside the light. The channel is narrow and intricate, and should not be attempted without a pilot. All bearings are magnetic. By command of their lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, LONDON, December 10, 1855.

This notice affects the following admiralty charts:—Norway, West Coast, sheet 1, No. 2,281, and North Sea, No. 2,339. Also the Norway Lighthouse List, Nos. 240 *a*, *b*.

LIGHTS ON THE WEST COAST OF NORWAY.

The Royal Norwegian Marine Department at Christiania has given notice, that on the 16th day of December next, (1855,) the following channel lights will be established in the southern passage leading to Bergen, on the west coast of Norway. They will be lighted all the year, except from the 15th May to the 15th July:—

FIXED LIGHT ON LILLE BLEGEN.

This light is placed at Langevaad, on the east side of the island of Bommelo. It stands at a height of sixteen feet above the level of the sea, and is visible from three to four miles. It lights the channel from N. N. E. round by east and south to W. S. W. A reef extends thirty yards west from the rock on which the light-house is built. The tower stands in latitude 59° 37′ N., longitude 5° 16′ E. of Greenwich.

FIXED LIGHT ON MIDTHOLMEN.

This light is placed at Mosterhavn, at a height of thirty-seven feet above the level of the sea, and is visible from four to five miles from N. N. E. round by east south by S. W. to W. The light is shaded towards Mosterhuk to the southwest, and towards Orsnæs or Oustnæs to the N. N. E., so that vessels keeping the light in sight will pass clear of these points, which both lie on the west side of the channel. About two cables' length N. E. by N. of the light lies Svarte-skiær, and half a cable north of that rock is Rafnæs-flue, on which is a depth of only two feet water. The tower stands in latitude 59° 42′ N., longitude 5° 24¾′ east of Greenwich.

FIXED LIGHT ON FOLGEROEN.

The light on Folgeroen in Stoksund is placed at a height of forty-nine feet above the level of the sea, and is visible from five to six miles. It lights the channel from north round by east and south to west. The tower stands in latitude 49° 58′ N., longitude 5° 20′ east of Greenwich.

FIXED LIGHT ON LEEROEN.

This light is placed on the west side of the island for leading through the passage called Leer-osen. It stands at a height of fifty-four feet above the sea, and is visible about six miles. It lights on the channel from south round by west and north to N. E. ½ N. About three cables' length north of the lighthouse a shoal extends from Leeroen two cables' length to the westward, ending in a rock named Tangekulten, having only from two to three feet water on it. The light-house is in latitude 60° 14′ N., longitude 5° 11′ east of Greenwich. All bearings are magnetic. By command of their lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, LONDON, December 10, 1855.

NANTUCKET SOUTH SHOALS LIGHT-VESSEL.

The Nantucket New South Shoals Light Vessel was placed at her station on or about the 25th of January, 1856. She is moored in fourteen fathoms water, about two miles south of the southern extremity of the New South Shoals of Nantucket. The Old South Shoal bears from the station north by east, distant eight miles. Tom Never's Head bears from the station north northwest one-fourth west twenty-one miles, Block Island Light bears from the same station west northwest, distant seventy-eight miles, and Sandy Hook Light one hundred and eighty miles from the same station. This light-vessel is schooner-rigged, and has two lanterns, each having eight lamps and reflectors. She has also two hoop iron day marks, (one at each mast-head,) painted red. Her hull is painted red, with the words "South Shoals" in white letters on each side. The foregoing information is furnished by C. H. B. Caldwell, Light-House Inpectors of the Second District, and is published by order of the Light-House Board for the information of navigators.

HUMANE SOCIETY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

BOSTON, January 7th, 1856.

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

DEAR SIR:—I have the pleasure to hand you herewith a list of the Life-boats, Mortar Stations for communicating with wrecks, Houses of Refuge, &c., belonging to and under the care of the "Humane Society of Massachusetts," the publication of which in your magazine will be useful to navigators.

I am very truly your servant,

R. B. FORBES,
Chairman Standing Committee Massachusetts Humane Society.

STATEMENT OF THE LOCATIONS OF LIFE-BOATS, MORTAR STATIONS, HUTS OF REFUGE, ETC., BELONGING TO AND UNDER THE CARE OF THE HUMANE SOCIETY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Francis's Metallic Boats—furnished by government—at Manchester, inside of Baker's Island, 1; Scituate, near the Lighthouse, 1; Nanset, near the entrance to the harbor, 1; at Chatham, on the beach, near the town, 1. The two last include also mortar, life-car, hawser, lines, house of refuge, with bunks, &c. Monomoy Point, near the harbor, 1; Nantucket, near the entrance to harbor 1—making of metallic boats, 6.

Ipswich, one on River and one at Light—2; Annisquam and Rockport, Cape Ann, each 1—2; Gloucester harbor 1, Marblehead 2—3; Swampscott, boat and carriage for transporting, 1; Nahant, near the Hotel Cove, 1; Deer Island, near Broad Sound, 1; Point Alderton, 1, Nantasket Beach, 1—2; Hull Beach, where is also a mortar station, 1; Pleasant Beach, west of Cohasset harbor, 1; Cohasset harbor, on the west side of entrance, 2; North Scituate Beach, inside Minot's Rocks, 1; Bass Cove, one mile northeasterly of Scituate, 2; White's Ferry, E. Marshfield, boat and carriage, 1; Marshfield Beach, at Cut River, 1; Duxbury Beach, at Powder Point, 1; Plymouth Harbor and Beach, each 1—2; Monomet Point, south of Plymouth, 1; Race Point, Cape Cod, near Light, 1; one-and-a-half miles, southeast of this, 1; about same distance, southeasterly, 1; Peaked Hill Bar, boat, life-car, house of refuge, mortar station, 1; North of Highland Light about one mile, 1; Newcomb's Hollow, 5′ S. of Highland Light, 1; Cahoone's Hollow, 2′ S. of latter station, and a house of refuge, 1; Nanset Beach, 1′ S. of the Three Lights, 1; Nanset Harbor, a mortar station and house of refuge, as above stated; Orleans Beach, near latter station to the S., 1; North Chatham, near entrance, 1; Chatham, at village, near the Lights, 1; Chatham Beach, mortar station and house of refuge, as above stated; Monomoy Point, near the Lighthouse, 1; Nantucket East End, Croskaty Farm, where is a house

of refuge, 1 boat, 1 Dory—2; Great Point, on the inside, near Light, 1; Nantucket West End, south side, 1, also a house of refuge; Tuckernuck Island, Sound side, 1; Nantucket town, a mortar station, &c.; Chappequidick, near Martha's Vineyard, 1; South Beach, 3′ from Edgartown, 1; Gay Head, about 1′ northerly of Light, 1; Cuttihunk, east end of Elizabeth Islet, near Light, inside, 2; on board the R. B. Forbes towboat, 1—total, 54; mortar stations, 5.

Besides the huts of refuge named, there are others at Tucker's Island, near Marblehead, Nantasket, and Scituate beaches; Duxbury beach and Marshfield beach, North Chatham beach, and on each side of Peaked Hill Bar station, there are posts planted with hands on them pointing towards the station, for the purpose of guiding the shipwrecked mariner towards a place of succor.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

PASSAGES OF THE ATLANTIC STEAMSHIPS IN 1855.

We have compiled with our usual care the subjoined tabular statements of the eastern and western passages of the Collins, Bremen, and two lines of Havre steamships, for the year 1855, compared with the previous year. The *Herald*, in publishing these tables, says, as the Cunard steamers have run to Boston from Liverpool, and the Collins to New York, it has added eighteen hours to each passage of the Cunarders, in order to make it a just comparison between the two lines. We adopt the figures of the *Herald*:—

COLLINS STEAMERS—EASTERN PASSAGES.

Name.	Left New York.	Arrived at Liverpool.	Passage. D.	H.	M.
Baltic	Dec. 9 12 .. M.	Dec. 20 11 .. P. M.	11	11	..
Pacific.*a*	Dec. 28 9 .. A. M.	Jan. 9 7 .. P. M.	12	10	..
Atlantic	Jan. 10 12 .. M.	Jan. 22 5 .. A. M.	11	17	..
Baltic.*b*	Jan. 25 9 .. A. M.	Feb. 5 2 30 P. M.	11	05	30
Pacific.*c*	Feb. 8 12 .. M.	Feb. 23 12 .. M.	15	00	..
Atlantic	Feb. 21 12 .. M.	Mar. 4 1 30 A. M.	10	13	30
Baltic	Mar. 7 11 20 A. M.	Mar. 18 10 30 P. M.	11	09	10
Nashville	Mar. 21 12 .. M.	Apr. 3 9 .. A. M.	12	21	..
Atlantic	Apr. 4 9 .. P. M.	Apr. 15 1 .. P. M.	10	16	..
Baltic	Apr. 18 5 .. P. M.	Apr. 29 7 .. P. M.	11	07	..
Pacific	May 2 12 .. M.	May 3 1 50 P. M.	11	01	50
Atlantic	May 16 2 .. P. M.	May 26 6 50 P. M.	10	04	50
Baltic	May 30 1 .. P. M.	June 9 5 30 A. M.	10	15	30
Pacific	June 13 12 .. M.	June 24 11 40 A. M.	10	23	40
Atlantic	June 27 12 .. M.	July 8 2 .. A. M.	10	14	..
Baltic.*d*	July 11 12 .. M.	July 22 12 40 P. M.	11	00	40
Pacific.*e*	July 25 12 .. M.	Aug. 5 2 15 A. M.	10	14	15
Atlantic	Aug. 8 12 .. M.	Aug. 19 11 05 A. M.	10	23	05
Baltic	Aug. 22 12 15 P. M.	Sep. 2 4 .. A. M.	10	15	15
Pacific	Sep. 5 12 .. M.	Sep. 16 1 .. P. M.	10	01	..
Atlantic	Sep. 19 12 .. M.	Sep. 30 8 .. A. M.	10	20	..
Baltic	Oct. 3 12 .. M.	Oct. 14 11 15 A. M.	10	23	15
Pacific	Oct. 17 12 .. M.	Oct. 28 3 15 A. M.	10	15	45
Atlantic	Oct. 31 12 .. M.	Nov. 12 1 35 A. M.	11	13	35
Baltic	Nov. 14 12 .. M.	Nov. 26 6 .. A. M.	11	18	..
Pacific	Nov. 28 12 .. M.	Dec. 9 12 25 A. M.	10	12	25
Total time of twenty-six eastern passages			281	15	15
Average time of each passage			10	20	..

a Detained over from 27th by a fog. *b* Detained at quarantine by a snow storm. *c* Detained over from 7th by a snow storm. *d* Detained outside Liverpool several hours by a fog. *e* Detained two hours at bar.

COLLINS STEAMERS—WESTERN PASSAGES.

Names.	Left Liverpool.	Arrived at New York.	Passage. D.	H.	M.
Atlantic	Dec. 18 9 30 A. M.	Dec. 31 5 .. P. M.	13	07	30
Baltic	Dec. 30 11 .. A. M.	Jan. 11 3 .. P. M.	12	04	..
Pacific	Jan. 13 4 .. P. M.	Jan. 25 9 .. A. M.	11	17	..
Atlantic	Jan. 27 4 .. P. M.	Feb. 9 10 .. A. M.	12	18	..
Baltic	Feb. 10 1 45 P. M.	Feb. 21 12 30 P. M.	10	22	45
Pacific	Feb. 27 8 .. A. M.	Mar. 14 9 .. A. M.	15	01	..
Atlantic	Mar. 10 2 .. P. M.	Mar. 27 7 .. A. M.	16	17	..
Baltic	Mar. 24 12 .. M.	Apr. 6 7 .. P. M.	13	01	..
Nashville	Apr. 7 3 .. P. M.	Apr. 22 12 30 P. M.	14	21	30
Atlantic	Apr. 23 3 30 P. M.	May 4 12 .. M.	10	20	30
Baltic	May 5 1 30 P. M.	May 18 5 30 P. M.	13	04	..
Pacific	May 19 12 .. M.	May 30 7 .. A. M.	10	19	..
Atlantic	June 2 12 .. M.	June 13 7 30 A. M.	10	19	30
Baltic	June 16 11 15 A. M.	June 28 1 .. A. M.	11	13	45
Pacific	June 30 12 .. M.	July 11 6 .. A. M.	10	18	..
Atlantic	July 14 12 .. M.	July 25 9 .. P. M.	11	09	..
Baltic	July 28 11 10 A. M.	Aug. 8 7 .. A. M.	10	20	50
Pacific	Aug. 11 10 30 A. M.	Aug. 22 6 35 A. M.	10	20	05
Atlantic	Aug. 25 9 .. A. M.	Sep. 6 3 .. P. M.	12	06	..
Baltic	Sep. 8 10 .. A. M.	Sep. 19 11 .. P. M.	11	13	..
Pacific	Sep. 22 5 .. P. M.	Oct. 3 8 .. A. M.	10	15	..
Atlantic	Oct. 6 4 .. P. M.	Oct. 18 8 .. A. M.	11	16	..
Baltic	Oct. 20 3 15 P. M.	Nov. 3 8 30 A. M.	13	17	15
Pacific	Nov. 3 2 .. P. M.	Nov. 15 8 .. A. M.	11	20	..
Atlantic	Nov. 17 1 .. P. M.	Nov. 30 9 .. P. M.	13	08	..
Baltic	Dec. 2 1 .. P. M.	Dec. 13 11 .. A. M.	12	21	..
Pacific	Dec. 15		13	02	..
Total time of twenty seven western passages			322	12	40
Average time of each passage			11	22	40

CUNARD STEAMERS—EASTERN PASSAGES—FROM BOSTON.

Names.	Left Boston.	Arrived at Liverpool.	Passage. D.	H.	M.
Canada	Dec. 6 12 30 P. M.	Dec. 17 8 .. A. M.	10	19	30
America	Jan. 3 12 .. M.	Jan. 17 8 45 A. M.	13	20	44
Asia	Jan. 17 10 15 A. M.	Jan. 30 10 20 A. M.	13	00	05
Canada	Jan. 31 10 20 A. M.	Feb. 12 11 30 P. M.	12	13	10
Africa	Feb. 14 10 15 A. M.	Feb. 27 5 45 P. M.	13	07	30
Asia	Feb. 28 10 .. A. M.	Mar. 10 8 .. P. M.	10	10	..
Canada	Mar. 17 10 .. A. M.	Mar. 29 7 .. A. M.	11	21	..
Africa	Mar. 28 10 .. A. M.	April 7 5 30 P. M.	10	07	30
Asia	April 11 3 .. P. M.	April 22 12 .. M.	10	21	..
America	April 25 1 20 P. M.	May 7 12 .. M.	11	22	40
Africa	May 9 12 .. M.	May 20 10 40 A. M.	10	22	20
Asia	May 23 12 40 P. M.	June 2 9 30 P. M.	10	08	50
America	June 6 12 30 P. M.	June 17 6 .. P. M.	11	05	30
Africa	June 20 1 30 P. M.	July 1 2 .. A. M.	10	12	30
Asia	July 4 12 .. M.	July 15 9 45 A. M.	10	21	45
America	July 18 12 35 P. M.	July 29 8 45 P. M.	11	08	10
Canada	Aug. 1 6 45 P. M.	Aug. 12 6 45 P. M.	11	..	..
Asia	Aug. 15 11 15 A. M.	Aug. 25 11 15 P. M.	10	12	..
America	Aug. 29 12 30 P. M.	Sept. 9 5 30 P. M.	11	05	..
Canada	Sept. 12 12 45 P. M.	Sept. 23 12 45 P. M.	11	..	..
Africa	Sept. 26 12 .. M.	Oct. 6 4 .. P. M.	10	04	..
America	Oct. 10 12 15 P. M.	Oct. 22 6 .. A. M.	11	17	45
Canada	Oct. 24 12 .. M.	Nov. 4 9 40 A. M.	10	21	40
Africa	Nov. 7 10 .. A. M.	Nov. 18 10 .. A. M.	11	..	..
Asia	Nov. 21 10 30 A. M.	Dec. 1 10 30 A. M.	10	12	..
Total time of twenty-five eastern passages			281	06	40
Average time of each passage			11	06	01

CUNARD STEAMERS—WESTERN PASSAGES—TO BOSTON.

Names.	Left Liverpool.			Arrived at Boston.			Passage. D.	H.	M.
Asia	Dec. 23	11	25 A. M.	Jan. 4	10	.. P. M.	12	10	35
Canada	Jan. 6	11	.. A. M.	Jan. 19	9	.. A. M.	12	22	..
Africa	Jan. 20	11	.. A. M.	Feb. 1	8	15 A. M.	11	21	15
Asia	Feb. 3	11	.. A. M.	Feb. 15	10	30 A. M.	11	23	30
Canada	Feb. 17	11	10 A. M.	Mar. 2	1	25 P. M.	13	02	05
Africa	Mar. 3	11	10 A. M.	Mar. 17	7	.. A. M.	13	19	50
Asia	Mar. 17	10	40 A. M.	Mar. 31	12	.. M.	14	01	20
America	Mar. 31	10	.. A. M.	April 14	10	30 A. M.	14	..	30
Africa	April 14	12	.. M.	April 26	8	30 A. M.	11	20	30
America	May 12	12	.. M.	May 25	8	15 P. M.	12	20	45
Africa	May 26	12	.. M.	June 7	4	.. A. M.	11	16	..
Asia	June 9	1	.. P. M.	June 21	11	30 A. M.	11	22	30
America	June 23	12	.. M.	July 6	9	30 A. M.	12	21	30
Canada	July 7	12	.. M.	July 20	4	30 A. M.	12	19	30
Asia	July 21	1	.. P. M.	Aug. 2	12	.. M.	11	23	..
America	Aug. 4	1	.. P. M.	Aug. 17	3	30 A. M.	12	14	30
Canada	Aug. 18	12	.. M.	Aug. 30	3	45 P. M.	12	03	45
Africa	Sept. 1	12	.. M.	Sept. 12	12	.. M.	11	..	..
America	Sept. 15	12	30 P. M.	Sept. 28	9	.. P. M.	13	08	30
Canada	Sept. 29	12	.. M.	Oct. 11	6	.. A. M.	11	18	..
Africa	Oct. 13	12	.. M.	Oct. 25	9	.. P. M.	12	09	..
Asia	Oct. 27	10	30 A. M.	Nov. 8	10	30 A. M.	12	..	..
Canada	Nov. 10	11	40 A. M.	Nov. 24	5	.. A. M.	13	17	20
America	Nov. 24	12	.. M.	Dec. 6	1	.. P. M.	12	01	..
Asia	Dec. 8	12	.. M.	Dec. 19	7	.. P. M.	11	07	..
Total time of twenty-five western passages							312	11	55
Average time of each passage							12	12	..

BREMEN STEAMERS—EASTERN PASSAGES.

Names.	Left New York.			Arrived at Cowes.			Passages. D.	H.	M.
Hermann	January 27	12	M.	February 13	8	A. M.	16	20	..
Washington	February 24	12	M.	March 10	12	M.	14	..	..
Hermann	March 24	12	M.	April 7	2	P. M.	14	01	..
Washington	April 21	12	M.	May 6	11	A. M.	14	23	..
Hermann	May 20	10	A. M.	June 3	9	A. M.	13	23	..
Washington	June 16	12	M.	June 29	6	P. M.	13	06	..
Hermann	July 16	12	M.	July 29	9	A. M.	12	21	..
Washington	August 11	12	M.	August 24	1	P. M.	13	01	..
Hermann	Septemb'r 8	12	M.	Septemb. 24	6	A. M.	15	18	..
Washington	October 6	12	M.	October 22	5	A. M.	15	17	..
Hermann	November 3	12	M.	Novemb'r 22	1	A. M.	18	13	..
Total time of eleven eastern passages							162	23	..
Average time of each passage							14	19	..

BREMEN STEAMERS—WESTERN PASSAGES.

Names.	Left Cowes.			Arrived at New York.			Passage. D.	H.	M.
Hermann	February 28	..		March 18	12	M.	18	..	..
Washington	March 28	7	P. M.	April 11	7	P. M.	14	..	..
Hermann	April 25	5	P. M.	May 9	2	P. M.	13	21	..
Washington	May 23	6	P. M.	June 6	8	P. M.	14	02	..
Hermann	June 20	5	P. M.	July 5	8	A. M.	14	15	..
Washington	July 18	3	P. M.	August 2	6	A. M.	14	15	..
Hermann	August 15	2	P. M.	August 29	10	P. M.	14	08	..
Washington	Septemb. 12	4	P. M.	Septemb. 27	2	P. M.	14	22	..
Hermann	October 10	9	P. M.	October 27	6	A. M.	16	09	..
Washington	November 7	6	P. M.	Novemb. 27	5	P. M.	19	23	..
Hermann	December 5	4	P. M.	Decemb. 21	6	A. M.	15	14	..
Total time of eleven western passages							170	09	..
Average time of each passage							15	12	..

HAVRE STEAMERS—EASTERN PASSAGES.

Names.	Left New York.			Arrived at Cowes.			Passage. D.	H.	M.
Union	Dec. 16	12 ..	M.	Decemb. 30	..	P. M.	14	..	..
St. Louis*	Jan. 13	12 ..	M.	January 30			17	..	..
Union	Feb. 10	12 ..	M.	February 26	3	P. M.	16	03	..
St. Louis	Mar. 10	12 ..	M.	March 24	9	A. M.	13	21	..
Union*	April 9	12 ..	M.	April 25			16	..	..
St. Louis	May 5	12 ..	M.	May 18	12	M.	13	..	..
Arago	June 2	12 ..	M.	June 15	..	A. M.	13	..	..
Union	June 30	12 ..	M.	July 12	..	P. M.	12	..	..
Arago*	July 28	12 ..	M.	August 18			13	..	..
Union*	Aug. 25	12 ..	M.	Septemb'r 8			14	..	..
Arago*	Sept. 22	12 30	P. M.	October 5	..	P. M.	13	..	..
St. Louis*	Oct. 29	12 ..	M.	Novemb. 12			14	..	..
Arago*	Nov. 17	12 ..	M.	Decemb. 30			13	..	..
Total time of thirteen eastern passages							182	..	..
Average time of each passage							14	..	..

HAVRE STEAMERS—WESTERN PASSAGES.

Names.	Left Cowes.			Arrived at New York.			Passage. D.	H.	M.
Union*	January 18	12	M.	February 3			16	..	..
St. Louis	February 15	2	A. M.	March 1	7	P. M.	14	17	..
Union*	March 15			April 4			20	..	..
St. Louis	April 12	8	A. M.	April 26	7	A. M.	13	23	..
Union*	May 9	10	P. M.	May 26	9	P. M.	16	22	..
St Louis	June 7	1	A. M.	June 19	11	P. M.	12	23	..
Arago	July 5	1	A. M.	July 16	2	P. M.	12	13	..
Union*	August 1			August 17			16	..	..
Arago*	August 29			Septem. 11			13	..	..
Union	Septem. 26	11	P. M.	October 11	8	A. M.	14	09	..
Arago	October 24	10	P. M.	Novem. 6	4	P. M.	12	18	..
St. Louis*	Novem. 21			Decem. 6			15	..	..
Total time of twelve western passages							178	05	..
Average time of each passage							14	20	..

HAVRE STEAMERS—VANDERBILT'S LINE—EASTERN PASSAGES.

Name.	Left New York.			Arrived at Cowes.			Passage. D.	H.	M.
North Star*	April 21	12 ..	M.	May 5			14	..	..
Ariel*	May 19	12 ..	M.	May 31			12	..	..
North Star*	June 9	12 ..	M.	June 20			11	..	..
Ariel*	June 30	12 ..	M.	July 12			12	..	..
North Star*	July 21	12 ..	M.	August 3			13	..	..
Ariel	Aug. 11	12 ..	M.	August 23	11	A. M.	11	23	..
North Star*	Sept. 1	12 ..	M.	Septem. 12			11	..	..
Ariel*	Sept. 22	12 30	P. M.	October 6			14	..	..
North Star	Oct. 13	12 ..	M.	October 26	4	P. M.	13	04	..
Ariel*	Nov. 3	12 ..	M.	Novem. 18			15	..	..
Total time of ten eastern passages							127	03	..
Average time of each passage							12	17	..

HAVRE STEAMERS—VANDERBILT'S LINE—WESTERN PASSAGES.

Name.	Left Havre.			Arrived at New York			Passage. D.	H.	M.
North Star	May 19	1	P. M.	June 1	5	A. M.	12	16	..
Ariel	June 9	6	P. M.	June 22	3	P. M.	12	21	..
North Star	June 30	12	M.	July 13	6	A. M.	12	10	..
Ariel	July 21	12	M.	August 4	8	A. M.	13	20	..
North Star	August 11	12	M.	August 24	1	A. M.	12	13	..

* Hour of arrival out not given.

Name.	Left Havre.			Arrived at New York.			Passage. D.	H.	M.
Ariel	Septem.	1	1 P. M.	Septemb'r	14	6 A. M.	12	17	..
North Star	Septem.	22	12 M.	October	5	6 A. M.	12	10	..
Ariel	October	13	12 M.	October	27	6 P. M.	14	06	..
North Star	Novem.	3	6 P. M.	November	21	2 A. M.	17	08	..
Ariel	Novem.	24	12 M.	December	9	4 A. M.	14	06	..
Total time of ten western passages							136	06	..
Average time of each passage							13	15	..

We give a summary recapitulation of the passages, eastern and western, as follows :—

EASTERN PASSAGES.

	D.	H.	M.
Average time of Collins steamers	10	20	..
Average time of Cunard steamers	12	..	..
Average time of Bremen steamers to Southampton	14	19	..
Average time of Havre steamers	14	..	..
Average time of Vanderbilt's Havre steamers	12	17	05
In favor of the Collins over the Cunard steamers	1	04	01
In favor of the Collins over the Bremen steamers	3	23	..
In favor of the Collins over the Havre steamers	3	04	..
In favor of the Collins over the Vanderbilt line	1	23	..

WESTERN PASSAGES.

	D.	H.	M.
Average time of Collins steamers	11	22	40
Average time of Cunard steamers	13	06	..
Average time of Bremen steamers from Southampton	15	12	..
Average time of Havre steamers	14	20	..
Average time of Vanderbilt's Havre steamers	13	15	..
In favor of the Collins over the Cunard steamers	1	07	20
In favor of the Collins over the Bremen steamers	3	16	20
In favor of the Collins over the Havre steamers	2	21	20
In favor of the Collins over the Vanderbilt line	1	16	20

The following table shows the average time of the passages of the Collins and Cunard lines for the years 1854 and 1855 :—

	EASTERN PASSAGES.						WESTERN PASSAGES.					
	1854.			1855.			1854.			1855.		
	D.	H.	M.	D.	H.	M.	D.	H.	M.	D.	H.	M.
Collins steamers ..	11	06	06	10	20	..	12	02	35	11	22	40
Cunard steamers...	11	14	56	12	..	01	13	15	40	13	06	..
In favor of Collins.	..	08	50	1	04	01	1	13	05	1	07	20

The subjoined table exhibits the number of passengers by each line of steamers, both to and from Europe :—

	EASTERN PASSAGES.			WESTERN PASSAGES.		
	Pas-sages.	Pas-sengers.	Aver-age.	Pas-sages.	Pas-sengers.	Aver-age.
Collins line	26	3,592	138	27	3,584	133
Cunard line	25	3,230	120	25	3,080	123
Bremen line	11	1,188	108	11	2,027	184
Havre line	13	1,210	78	13	1,181	91
Havre line, Vanderbilt	10	1,231	123	10	1,245	125
Total	85	10,261	121	86	11,117	129

No steamer of the Collins, Cunard, Bremen, and the two Havre lines, has been lost during the year 1855. The *Union*, of the Havre line, broke her water-wheel shaft October 22d, 1855, and returned to New York on the 25th of that month.

The Collins steamers are to leave New York during the year 1856 on every alternate Saturday instead of Wednesday, as in 1855. The Cunard steamers have not resumed their trips to the port of New York, part of the line being employed by the British government during the past year in transporting men, &c., to the Crimea. The line between Liverpool, Halifax, and Boston, has been regularly maintained.

The Cunard steamers *Asia* and *Africa* made one passage each between New York and Liverpool, which are not included in the table. The *Asia* sailed from this port on the 29th of November, 1854, and arrived at Liverpool on the 10th of December, making a passage of about 11 days; the *Africa* sailed on the 13th of December, at 12 M., and arrived at Liverpool on the 24th, at 12 : 30 P. M., thus making her passage in 11 days and 30 minutes.

The screw steamer *Lebanon*, belonging to the Cunard line, made one voyage between Liverpool and New York during the year 1855. Six times during the year past some one of the Collins steamers from Liverpool arrived at New York early enough on the morning of the departure of one of the same line to enable merchants to answer their letters by return steamer.

HUDSON RIVER AND ERIE CANAL NAVIGATION.

Mr. Lacy, the commercial editor of the *Albany Register*, furnishes the following comparative statement of the period of the opening and closing of the Hudson River and Erie Canal; and also showing the number of days each was open :—

	HUDSON RIVER.			ERIE CANAL.		
	Opened.	Closed.	Days.	Opened.	Closed.	Days.
1844....	March 14	December 11....	272	April 18	November 26....	223
1845....	Febr'y 21	" 4....	286	April 16	November 29....	220
1846...	March 15	" 16....	276	April 16	November 25....	224
1847....	April 6	" 24....	262	May 1	December 1....	214
1848....	March 22	" 27....	280	May 1	" 9....	223
1849....	March 9	" 25....	291	May 1	" 5....	219
1850....	March 19	" 17....	273	April 22	" 5....	225
1851 ...	Febr'y 25	" 13....	291	April 15	" 5....	235
1852....	March 28	" 22....	269	April 20	" 15....	235
1853....	March 21	" 21....	275	April 20	" 15....	239
1854....	March 17	" 8....	266	May 1	" 3....	217
1855....	March 20	" 20.....		May 1	" 18	

Thus it will be seen that river navigation remained open twelve days later in 1855 than in 1854, and the canal fifteen days later. During these few days the worth of several millions of dollars in produce reached tide-water over that of the previous year. Still, the railways will have enough to do during the present winter to bring down the balance now waiting shipment.

RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

We usually publish in the *Merchants' Magazine* an annual statement in detail of the railroads in the United States. This we shall endeavor to do in a future number. In the meantime, we give a summary of miles of railroad in operation in the different States of the Union on January 1st, 1855 and 1856. It is derived from *Dinsmore's Railway Guide for January*, 1856. It is probably as near correct as any account, under the circumstances, can be. Mr. Dinsmore's facili-

ties for collecting these facts are good, and we have no doubt he has the most of them :—

	1855. Miles.	1856. Miles.	Inc. Miles.		1855. Miles.	1856. Miles.	Inc. Miles.
Maine	407	494	87	Alabama	302	467	165
New Hampshire	649	660	11	Mississippi	159	296	137
Vermont	516	516	...	Louisiana	173	337	164
Massachusetts	1,317	1,409	92	Texas	36	36	...
Rhode Island	106	145	39	Arkansas	...	37	37
Connecticut	632	699	67	Tennessee	317	455	138
New York	2,692	2,794	102	Kentucky	192	284	92
New Jersey	411	504	93	Ohio	2,427	2,725	298
Pennsylvania	1,627	1,746	119	Indiana	1,482	1,789	307
Delaware	49	86	37	Michigan	527	590	63
Maryland	412	466	57	Illinois	1,892	2,215	323
Virginia	1,122	1,295	173	Wisconsin	195	647	272
North Carolina	403	631	228	Missouri	37	139	102
South Carolina	755	846	91	Iowa	...	67	67
Georgia	971	1,013	42	California	...	8	8
Florida	26	26	...				
Total					19,834	23,242	3,408

THE FOLLOWING TABLE EXHIBITS THE PROGRESSIVE ANNUAL INCREASE OF THE MILES OF RAILWAY IN THE UNITED STATES SINCE THE YEAR 1828 :—

Years.	Miles.	Years.	Miles.	Years.	Miles.
1828	3	1838	1,843	1848	5,682
1829	28	1839	1,920	1849	6,350
1830	41	1840	2,167	1850	7,355
1831	54	1841	3,319	1851	9,090
1832	131	1842	3,877	1852	11,631
1833	576	1843	4,174	1853	13,379
1834	762	1844	3,311	1854	16,928
1835	918	1845	4,511	1855	19,664
1836	1,102	1846	4,870	1856	23,242
1837	1,421	1847	5,336		

From the above tables it will be perceived that without including double and treble tracks, we have now in the Union 23,242 miles of railways, and we have probably 2,000 miles of double track, making in all more than 25,000 miles of iron way, or a length more than sufficient to encircle the globe at the equator. Within ten years the length has been quadrupled, and since 1850 alone, tripled. It will also be seen that the annual increase has been in an increasing ratio; and that this increase is to be continued in the future, it need only be stated that there are now at least 6,000 miles in process of construction that will be in use before the end of the year 1857. Valuing the completed railways at $30,000 per mile, the capital now invested in this interest amounts to $697,260,000.

SAFETY OF RAILWAY TRAVELING IN ENGLAND.

At a meeting of the English Railway Club, which is composed of the representatives of the principal English railways, Mr. Edward G. Watkin, the general manager of one of the most extensive lines, presided, and made a speech, which was received with great attention. He said those present represented £300,000,000, employed more than 90,000 men, and administered a revenue of £20,000,000 annually. In regard to the safety of railway traveling, Mr. Watkin furnished some novel statistics. He said that he had often thought that if a person wanted to be in the safest place in this world, he should get into the first-class railway carriage, and never leave it.

In 1854 the English railways carried 111,000,000 ; the number killed in consequence of accidents beyond their control was 12. Those 111,000,000 traveled about 15 miles each, so that it was clear a man must make between ten and eleven journeys, traveling between 150,000,000 and 160,000,000 miles—and that would take, he calculated, between 2,000 and 3,000 years—before a fatal accident might be expected to happen to him. Now, he challenged comparison, in point of safety, between railway traveling and that of any other mode of traveling, or any other avocation. Two-thirds of the accidents occur from moral causes, and not from physical ones, as the breaking of an axle, or some defect in the permanent way.

CANAL COMMERCE OF OSWEGO.

The following table, derived from an official source, shows the tonnage of property shipped and received at Oswego, by canal, for a series of years :—

	1853.	1854.	1855.
Cleared .....tons	495,553	334,498	352,560
Arrived	221,460	202,518	209,075
Total	717,013	536,986	561,635

THE FOLLOWING TAELE SHOWS THE TONNAGE OF PROPERTY SHIPPED AND RECEIVED AT OSWEGO, BY CANAL, FOR A SERIES OF YEARS :—

1847 .....tons	203,026	1852 .....tons	580,110
1848.....	235,060	1853.....	717,013
1849.....	401,242	1854.....	536,986
1850.....	461,879	1855.....	561,635
1851.....	576,162		

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF TOLLS COLLECTED AT OSWEGO FOR TWO SEASONS :—

1855.....	$271,158 94	1854	$219,194 02
Increase in 1855			$51,964 91

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

OF THE EXPORTATION OF GRAIN FROM THE OTTOMAN DOMINIONS.

CONSTANTINOPLE, Nov. 26, 1855.

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

The following is a copy of an official note from the Sublime Porte to each of the foreign legations, on the subject of the prohibition issued against exporting Grain from the Ottoman dominions, and the total exemption from all duties whatever of grain imported into this capital.

JOHN P. BROWN,
Dragoman and Acting Consul.

[Translation.]

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF THE SUBLIME PORTE.—NO. 4.

Some doubts having been expressed on the subject of the meaning to be attached to the word "grain," used in the official note recently communicated to the diplomatic corps, on the subject of the notice which it contained that the exportation from the empire was prohibited, and that no duties would be collected for the period of three months, upon any grain imported into this capital, it has been deemed proper to relieve the matter from every possible misconception by the present explanation.

The grain of which the exportation is prohibited from the empire is maize, (Indian corn,) barley, wheat, oats, rye, and when these are imported into the capital, they will be exempted from the payment of any duties whatever. With these different kinds of grain is also included flour and biscuit.

You are therefore respectfully requested to make these explanations known wherever they may interest; and occasion is taken of the opportunity which it offers, to renew assurances of the most profound respect and the most perfect consideration.

November 21, 1855.

A correct translation.
JOHN P. BROWN, U. S. Dragoman.

BRITISH LAW RELATING TO BILLS OF LADING.

AN ACT TO AMEND THE LAW RELATING TO BILLS OF LADING.

Whereas, by the custom of merchants, a bill of lading of goods being transferable by indorsement, the property in the goods may thereby pass to the indorsee, but nevertheless all rights in respect of the contract contained in the bill of lading continue in the original shipper or owner, and it is expedient that such rights should pass with the property; and whereas, it frequently happens that the goods in respect of which bills of lading purport to be signed have not been laden on board, and it is proper that such bills of lading in the hands of a *bona fide* holder for value should not be questioned by the master or other person signing the same, on the ground of the goods not having been laden as aforesaid: be it therefore enacted by the Queen's Most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. Every consignee of goods named in a bill of lading, and every indorsee of a bill of lading to whom the property in the goods therein mentioned shall pass, upon or by reason of such consignment or indorsement, shall have transferred to and vested in him all rights of suit, and be subject to the same liabilities in respect of such goods as if the contract contained in the bill of lading had been made with himself.

2. Nothing herein contained shall prejudice or affect any right of stoppage *in transitu*, or any right to claim freight against the original shipper or owner, or any liability of the consignee or indorsee, by reason or in consequence of his being such consignee or indorsee, or of his receipt of the goods by reason or in consequence of such consignment or indorsement.

3. Every bill of lading in the hands of a consignee or indorsee for valuable consideration representing goods to have been shipped on board a vessel, shall be conclusive evidence of such shipment as against the master or other person signing the same, notwithstanding that such goods or some part thereof may not have been so shipped, unless such holder of the bill of lading shall have had actual notice at the time of receiving the same that the goods had not been in fact laden on board: provided that the master or other person so signing may exonerate himself in respect of such misrepresentation by showing that it was caused without any default on his part, and wholly by the fraud of the shipper, or of the holder, or some person under whom the holder claims.

BRITISH LAW RESPECTING WRECKS.

We extract from the Merchants' Shipping Act of 1854 the following paragraphs, which should be understood by our American navigators:—

Paragraph 6. The receivers and officers of the coast-guard and customs must do their utmost to keep on good terms with each other, and also with Lloyd's agents, or other agents acting for insurers, and with the consuls, vice-consuls, and consular agents of foreign countries. Disputes between these parties have often

led to great delay and loss. Should they occur in future they will be strictly investigated, with a view to discover who is the party in fault, and what have been the causes of the disagreement.

Paragraph 15. In cases where a vessel is in distress, as well as in other cases falling within the scope of these instructions, the receivers and officers of the customs, and coast-guard, will endeavor to procure the co-operation of Lloyd's agents, or other agents of the insurers, and if the vessel is a foreign vessel, of the consignee and of the consul or vice-consul of the nation to which she belongs.

Paragraph 64. In case of foreign ships, and of property saved from them, the receiver will, if neither the master nor any other agent appointed by the owner be present, treat with the consul-general of the country to which the ship belongs; or, in the case of cargo, the consul-general of the country to which the owners of the cargo belong, or any consul or vice-consul authorized by treaty in that behalf, as the agent for the owner, and, if he so requires, will deliver the property to him accordingly. If the master is present, he of course is to be treated as agent for the owner, and it will be the receiver's duty, in offering and giving him assistance, and in dealing with property which comes to the receiver's hands, to act in harmony with the consul, vice-consul, or consular agent of the country to which the ship or property belongs.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

POPULATION OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK IN 1855.

The Secretary of the State of New York has transmitted to the Senate the preliminary report, prepared by his predecessor, of the census of New York. We are indebted to the *Albany Argus* for the subjoined statement of the population of each county in the State, as shown by this official document, with the increase in each county since the last State census in 1845. Five counties have decreased in population during the last ten years, as follows:—

Cortland, 506; Greene, 820; Otsego, 774; Tompkins, 6,652, (by the formation of Schuyler county); and Yates, 965.

The total population of the State on the 1st day of June last was 3,470,059. This is an increase since 1845 of 865,564, and since 1850 of 372,665. There are 632,753 aliens included in the population of the State. The number of voters in New York is as follows:—

Native.....	516,745	Naturalized.....	135,076
Total.....			651,821

The total population of the State, says the *Argus*, upon which the legislative apportionment is to be made—after deducting aliens and colored persons not taxed—is 2,797,416. The right-hand column in the subjoined table gives the population upon which the apportionment is to be found. Dividing the footing of that column, 2,797,416, by the number of members of Assembly, 128, and it gives 21,854 as the ratio of representation in the Assembly. Applying this rule, it will be easy for the residents of each county to learn how many members of Assembly they will have under the new apportionment. The only embarrassment in making the apportionment will be in disposing of the cases where large fractions occur:—

	Total population.	Inc. since 1845.	No., deducting aliens, &c.
Albany	103,681	26,413	82,811
Alleghany	42,910	11,508	40,788
Broome	36,650	10,842	34,228
Cattaraugus	41,463	11,294	36,822
Cayuga	53,571	3,908	48,488
Chautauque	53,380	6,832	48,540
Chemung	27,288	9,546	25,002
Chenango	39,915	15	38,826
Clinton	42,482	11,204	33,985
Columbia	44,391	2,415	39,583
Cortland	24,575	.....	23,858
Delaware	39,749	2,759	38,066
Dutchess	60,635	5,511	52,324
Erie	132,407	53,696	94,470
Essex	28,539	3,437	25,497
Franklin	23,897	6,758	21,734
Fulton	23,284	4,705	21,620
Genesee	31,532	2,189	26,910
Greene	31,137	.....	29,070
Hamilton	2,543	661	2,371
Herkimer	38,266	1,142	34,531
Jefferson	65,420	421	59,904
Kings	216,355	137,664	147,293
Lewis	25,229	5,011	22,454
Livingston	37,943	5,849	33,480
Madison	43,788	2,701	40,217
Monroe	96,324	25,425	73,235
Montgomery	30,808	1,165	27,808
New York	629,810	258,587	386,325
Niagara	48,628	13,732	37,638
Oneida	107,809	22,973	88,834
Onondaga	85,924	16,400	72,745
Ontario	42,672	80	37,569
Orange	60,868	8,641	51,058
Orleans	28,435	2,590	24,579
Oswego	69,398	20,953	61,811
Otsego	49,735	.....	47,937
Putnam	13,934	676	12,606
Queens	46,266	14,417	35,110
Rensselaer	79,234	16,896	63,596
Richmond	21,389	7,716	15,824
Rockland	19,511	5,770	15,651
St. Lawrence	74,977	12,623	64,976
Saratoga	49,379	7,902	43,092
Schenectady	19,572	2,942	16,449
Schoharie	32,519	1,031	32,254
Schuyler	18,777	1,450	18,150
Seneca	25,358	386	23,128
Steuben	62,965	11,186	59,099
Suffolk	41,666	6,323	36,218
Sullivan	29,487	10,760	25,787
Tioga	26,962	4,506	25,850
Tompkins	31,516	.....	30,198
Ulster	67,936	19,029	57,330
Warren	19,669	4,761	17,989
Washington	44,505	3,851	39,416
Wayne	46,760	4,246	41,813
Westchester	80,678	33,284	62,357
Wyoming	32,148	1,457	29,293
Yates	19,812	.....	18,828
Total	3,470,059	865,564	2,797,416

ALIEN PASSENGERS ARRIVED AT BOSTON IN 1855.

According to the report of A. G. Goodwin, Superintendent of Alien Passengers, the number of vessels arrived at the port of Boston and boarded by him during the year ending December 31, 1855, was 910, and the number of passengers arrived in the same, 20,850. The Americans and those who have been in the States before, from whom no security commutation could be required, 8,128; bonds were taken for 238; commuted at $2 per head, 12,364; extra commuted from $5 to $25, 100.

The number of aliens who arrived was 18,313, and the places of birth are reported as follows:—

Ireland	7,614	Tuscany	18
British Provinces	4,796	West Indies	16
England	2,534	Poland	14
Germany	597	Denmark	13
Scotland	512	Cape of Good Hope	12
Canada	394	Smyrna	10
Sweden	345	Africa	8
Portugal	261	Mexico	8
Prussia	245	Brazil	7
Western Islands	204	Austria	5
France	185	Bavaria	5
Italy	86	Russia	5
Belgium	48	Hungary	4
Holland	32	Norway	3
Cuba	27	Bremen	3
East Indies	22	China	2
Spain	19	Unknown	259

Showing a total immigration of 18,313 during the year.

IMMIGRATION AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK.

The following statement of the number of passengers arrived at the port of New York during the year 1855, compared with a similar statement for 1854, is derived from the report of the Commissioners of Emigration:—

	1854.			1855.		
	Aliens.	Citizens.	Total.	Aliens.	Citizens.	Total.
January	15,534	2,796	18,307	7,485	1,839	9,344
February	4,446	2,055	6,501	6,123	1,954	8,077
March	3,758	2,837	6,595	2,069	2,386	4,455
April	31,148	5,744	36,892	10,195	4,223	14,418
May	54,078	6,001	60,079	24,177	7,145	31,322
June	25,807	5,121	30,928	19,427	6,024	25,451
July	35,247	5,516	40,763	15,716	5,055	20,771
August	39,416	4,476	40,892	9,180	4 332	13,512
September	26,759	4,317	30,076	11,706	3,183	14,889
October	38,378	3,810	42,188	13,342	3,857	17,197
November	20,276	2,983	23,259	7,453	3,908	11,361
December	25,396	2,478	27,874	8,124	2,124	10,605
Total	319,223	48,131	364,354	134,987	46,379	181,384

PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN ILLINOIS.

The growth of the population of Illinois is unexampled. In 1850, according to the United States census, the population was 851,470; in 1855, according to the State census, it was 1,300,251—an increase of 448,781, or nearly 53 per cent in

five years. A corresponding increase during the coming five years will make the population of the State, in 1860, about two millions, and it is very probable that she will then be the fourth State in the Union, New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio alone outranking her. The population of Illinois, at several successive periods was as follows :—

In 1810.....	12,282.				
In 1820.....	55,211.	Increase per cent in ten years,			349.52
In 1830	157,445.	"	"	"	185.17
In 1840.....	476,183.	"	"	"	202.44
In 1850.... ...	851,470.	"	"	"	78.81
In 1855.....	1,300,251.	Increase per cent in five years,			52.59

The ratio of increase, although less now than it was during the early years of the State, is far greater than that of any other State at a corresponding period of its existence. This is owing chiefly to the sudden construction of a vast system of railroads, which covers the whole territory, and opens up the vast and fertile prairies, rendering access to market easy, and inviting immigration. The railroads too have cost the inhabitants little, their construction in a country of level plains being easy, and the grants of lands by Congress enabling the companies to pay for most of the roads without expense to the stockholders. In this respect Illinois has been favored beyond all other States, and she is reaping the results of it in an amazing increase in her inhabitants and an immense advance in her productions and wealth.

PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The State Census of Massachusetts for 1855 has been completed, and is, we understand, in the hands of the printer. Governor *Gardner* says, in his address to the two branches of the Legislature, that the statistics of the industrial pursuits are not yet so classified as to enable him to give with accuracy their aggregate results. The following is a table of the total population, as exhibited by each census since 1800, the amount of the increase in each decade, and the average gain per cent per annum :—

Years.	Census.	Increase in numbers.	Average gain per ct. per ann.
1800.....	422,845	.....	....
1810.....	472,040	49,195	1.11
1820.....	533,287	51,247	1.04
1830.....	610,408	87,121	1.55
1840.....	737,700	127,292	1.91
1850.....	973,715	236,015	3.20
1855.....	1,133,033	159,318	3.27

The population of the State by the census of 1855 is 1,133,033. The increase in 55 years has been 710,183. That is, by the census of 1800, the population was 422,845, and by the census of 1855 it is, as above stated, 1,133,033.

THE NUMERICALLY GREAT FAMILIES OF ENGLAND.

A curious and amusing article on English surnames is given in the last number of the *Edinburgh Review*. It shows that the great families of England, numerically speaking, are the Smiths, the Taylors, the Wrights, the Walkers, &c. The Smiths head the list, and constitute quite a formidable army. The following table gives the number of births, deaths, and marriages, in the single year in England and Wales, of some of the most extensive families :—

	Births.	Deaths.	Mar'ges.		Births.	Deaths.	Mar'gs
Smith.....	5,588	4,044	3,005	Cooper.....	1,103	950	640
Taylor.....	2,647	2,275	1,518	Clark.....	1,096	952	635
Wright.....	1,398	1,142	729	Baker.....	1,033	839	513
Walker	1,324	1,070	754	Cook	910	742	483
Turner.....	1,217	1,011	680	Parker	824	694	471

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1855.

We are indebted to our esteemed friend, D. J. Brown, Esq., the able and efficient Superintendent of the agricultural division of the bureau in the United States Patent Office, at Washington, for the subjoined approximate estimate of the Agricultural Productions of the United States for the year 1855. These estimates are made up from the most authentic accessible data, and it is stated that if there be any error in the estimate, it is in falling below rather than above the truth, either in the quantity or value of the products:—

VEGETABLE PRODUCTS.

	Quantity.	Price.	Total value.
Indian corn.....bush.	600,000,000	$0 60	$360,300,000
Wheat	165,000,000	1 50	247,500,000
Rye	14,000,000	1 00	14,000,000
Barley	6,600,000	0 90	5,950,000
Oats.....	170,000,000	0 40	68,000,000
Buckwheat	10,000,000	0 50	5,000,000
Potatoes (all sorts).....	110,000,000	0 37	41,250,000
Flaxseed	58,000	1 25	72,500
Beans and peas.....	9,500,000	2 00	19,000,000
Clover and grass seed	1,000,000	3 00	3,000,000
Rice ....lbs.	250,000,000	0 04	10,000,000
Sugar (cane)	505,000,000	0 07	35,350,000
Sugar (maple)	34,000,000	0 08	2,720,000
Molasses .....galls.	14,000,000	0 30	4,200,000
Wine	2,500,000	1 00	2,500,000
Hops ....lbs.	3,500,000	0 15	525,000
Orchard products.....	.....	....	25,000,000
Garden products	.....	....	50,000,000
Tobacco ....lbs.	190,000,000	0 10	19,000,000
Cotton.....	1,700,000,000	0 08	136,000,000
Hemp .....tons	34,500	100 00	3,450,000
Flax .....lbs.	800,000	0 10	80,000
Hay and fodder.....tons	16,000,000	10 00	160,000,000
Pasturage	.....	....	143,000,000

DOMESTIC ANIMALS AND ANIMAL PRODUCTS.

Horned cattle .....each	21,000,000	20 00	420,000,000
Horses, asses, and mules.....	5,100,000	60 00	306,600,000
Sheep.....	23,500,000	2 00	47,000,000
Swine	32,000,000	5 00	160,000,000
Poultry	.....	....	20,000,000
Slaughtered animals	.....	....	200,000,000
Butter and cheese.....lbs.	500,000,000	0 15	75,000,000
Milk, (exclusive of that used for butter and cheese).....galls.	1,000,000,000	0 10	100,000,000
Wool.....lbs.	60,000,000	0 35	21,000,000
Beeswax and honey.....	16,000,000	0 15	2,400,000
Silk cocoons	5,000	1 00	5,000

THE CATTLE MARKET OF NEW YORK FOR 1855.

We have been compelled to defer our usual annual statement of the cattle market until the present month. We now give a condensed tabular statement of the receipts of beeves reported at the four principal markets in the city of New York, viz. :—at Allerton's, on Forty-fourth-street; at Browning's, on Sixth-street; at Chamberlain's, on Robinson-street; and at O'Brien's, on Sixth-street. We also add a summary of the weekly receipts of sheep and lambs at the first-named three markets.

The great bulk of sales take place at these markets. There are constant irregular sales at Bergen Hill, from the Hudson River boats, and at other places in New York, but we judge these to be about counterbalanced, as the animals that change markets are reported twice, so that the figures given may be set down as approximating somewhat near the actual receipts of *live* beeves, sheep, and lambs :

		BEEVES.					
		Allerton's.	Browning's.	Chamberlain's.	O'Brien's.	Total.	Sheep & lambs.
January	3	1,541	446	365	213	2,565	9,933
"	10	2,133	505	415	297	3,350	10,263
"	17	1,067	517	400	265	2,249	11,102
"	24	2,239	536	597	316	3,688	9 537
"	31	1,495	393	404	312	2,604	8,463
February	7	1,498	397	389	302	2,586	6,609
"	14	1,658	264	394	217	2,533	7,970
"	21	2,298	525	469	244	3,536	8,074
"	28	1,480	489	538	272	2,779	8,183
March	7	2.091	553	329	260	3,233	7,774
"	14	1,833	282	310	314	2,739	6,409
"	21	1,799	370	300	212	2,681	9,603
"	28	1,567	251	250	234	2,302	6,047
April	4	1,820	325	263	214	2,622	4,944
"	11	2,313	200	295	216	3,024	5,747
"	18	2,120	310	341	78	2,849	6,378
"	25	1,789	295	289	226	2,599	4,289
May	2	1,478	220	230	176	2,104	3,674
"	9	1,456	190	211	213	2,070	5,166
"	16	1,734	228	239	176	2,377	4,395
"	23	1,955	244	258	129	2,586	4,978
"	30	2,313	206	215	214	2,948	5,704
June	6	1,968	260	204	134	2,566	8,028
"	13	2,319	228	268	97	2,912	6,842
"	20	2,184	271	201	196	2,852	10,636
"	27	1,534	221	268	132	2,155	11,092
July	4	1,931	212	200	118	2,461	12,349
"	11	2,116	567	151	86	2,920	12,383
"	18	2,188	524	204	126	3,042	12,575
"	25	1,792	418	328	167	2,705	11,289
August	1	2,036	562	309	188	3,095	12,808
"	8	1,810	609	468	168	3,055	13,861
"	15	1,964	642	493	413	3,512	15,193
"	22	2,446	840	544	396	4,226	15,877
"	29	2,620	823	612	406	4,461	17,199
September	5	2,482	790	841	426	4,539	18,928
"	12	1,785	845	634	456	3,770	16,611
"	19	1,973	581	530	496	3,580	14,938
"	26	3,154	1,174	798	450	5,576	17,110
October	3	1,051	638	673	430	2,792	16,216
"	10	2,242	744	561	512	4,059	13,881
"	17	2,717	1,117	523	512	4,869	16,186
"	24	2,286	971	792	413	4,462	15,949

		BEEVES.					Sheep & lambs.
		Allerton's.	Browning's.	Chamberlain's.	O'Brien's.	Total.	
October	31	2,937	1,205	840	622	5,604	18,246
November	7	2,256	598	874	512	4,240	14,387
"	14	2,199	689	635	536	4,059	15,253
"	21	2,015	715	590	597	3,917	15,502
"	28	2,294	870	693	606	4,463	15,927
December	5	1,684	563	690	546	3,483	12,494
"	12	1,909	410	315	560	3,194	11,916
"	19	1,812	650	235	420	3,117	9,448
"	26	1,531	512	483	462	2,988	10,937
Total		103,012	26,996	22,488	16,204	168,700	568,892

Average weekly receipts of beeves..... 3,225
Average weekly receipts at Allerton's..... 1,981
Average weekly receipts of sheep and lambs..... 10,940

The three down-town markets absorb more of the local trade of the country immediately around New York, while the Washington Drove Yard (Allerton's) is more of a general market for the country at large. The following table gives the derivation by States of the beeves received at Allerton's. We give also, as a matter of interest, the receipts by the Erie Railroad and by the Harlem Railroad. The 11,151 by the latter road are chiefly from the eastern portions of the counties of Dutchess, Westchester, Putnam, and Columbia, with a few from Western Connecticut. A large majority of them are from Dutchess. The Hudson River Railroad also brings down large numbers from the western portions of the same counties.

DERIVATION OF THE 103,012 BEEVES RECEIVED AT ALLERTON'S.

		Erie Railroad.	Harlem Railroad.	New York.	Ohio.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Kent'y.
January	3	100	468	1,136	....	31	....	119
"	10	500	400	1,016	....	140	....	....
"	17	250	405	807	167	....	....	....
"	24	900	189	945	445	130	....	109
"	31	608	181	747	297	....	191	27
February	7	319	387	816	417	....	....	....
"	14	350	350	725	412	92	180	....
"	21	1,000	216	878	331	45	254	183
"	28	800	80	436	678	63	163	....
March	7	1,000	211	632	635	143	258	67
"	14	1,100	62	129	533	297	358	....
"	21	1,479	35	322	896	187	215	100
"	28	1,219	44	152	976	187	295	....
April	4	1,187	193	484	1,191	197	255	....
"	11	1,557	23	350	1,230	205	300	....
"	18	1,200	39	366	1,100	356	290	....
"	25	823	42	140	525	600	388	....
May	2	550	8	246	537	117	363	....
"	9	200	10	548	340	....	185	....
"	16	604	98	565	361	180	239	27
"	23	124	30	212	223	173	715	72
"	30	945	89	532	610	162	777	61
June	6	650	30	243	760	110	711	....
"	13	1,100	....	142	618	206	846	304
"	20	802	111	192	512	325	629	388
"	27	931	3	180	468	213	602	140
July	4	1,100	31	173	493	180	935	48
"	11	1,133	112	228	619	44	993	108

		Erie Railroad.	Harlem Railroad.	New York.	Ohio.	Indiana.	Illinois.	Kent'y.
July	18.....	1,079	38	218	623	....	606	342
"	25.....	700	35	81	925	....	395	90
August	1.....	1,200	25	142	893	84	470	372
"	8.....	1,110	26	108	1,197	182	354	....
"	15.....	1,053	90	373	790	199	367	250
"	22.....	1,422	79	367	1,278	333	384	103
"	29.....	1,150	109	356	823	104	571	369
September	5.....	1,500	105	432	820	....	441	417
"	12.....	1,075	141	264	1,076	....	106	339
"	19.....	1,065	218	389	584	240	378	197
"	26.....	1,287	716	1,205	882	100	544	375
October	3.....	494	210	427	461	....	103	60
"	10.....	629	666	994	526	....	342	195
"	17.....	1,067	634	661	727	68	300	577
"	24.....	775	362	842	....	....	....	....
"	31.....	952	740	1,296	824	105	270	91
November	7.....	756	335	730	684	207	97	338
"	14.....	610	282	672	749	202	342	192
"	21.....	700	306	800	514	263	263	304
"	28.....	1,084	460	1,277	429	68	223	75
December	5.....	781	248	630	496	....	312	....
"	12.....	658	606	1,273	365	....	...	60
"	19.....	515	597	1,286	348	....	114	50
"	26.....	539	276	584	334	66	112	102
Total		44,132	11,151	28,749	31,894	6,605	17,482	6,651

SUMMARY BY STATES.

Ohio.....	31,894	Pennsylvania.....	900
New York.....	28,749	Texas.....	749
Illinois.....	17,482	Connecticut.....	528
Kentucky.....	6,651	Michigan	349
Indiana.....	6,605	New Jersey.....	325
Virginia	1,923	Wisconsin.....	159
Iowa.....	930	Canada.....	136

The above figures show that nearly one-third of the beeves are reported from Ohio. Some of them are from Indiana, from whence they have been driven into Ohio, and fed a longer or shorter time, and when brought here they have been credited to the latter State.

It may be seen, also, that we are largely indebted to Illinois for a supply of beef.

THE QUALITY OF AMERICAN WOOL.

The statement has been propagated far and wide that American wool is unfit to give that beautiful finish required for broadcloth of the best quality. It has been stated that our wools were longer in the staple than the foreign kinds, and were excellent for making strong warps, but did not possess the necessary felting property requisite for fine cloth, and for this reason a little foreign wool was necessary. H. C. Merriam, in the last number of the *Country Gentleman*, scatters all such assertions to the winds, and proves conclusively that American wool surpasses all foreign wools for its felting properties, and for making beautiful broadcloth, light or heavy. He states that American-grown wool and fine wool from Saxony have been tested, and the palm awarded to the former. The finest Saxony wool obtained from Hungary contained only 2,400 serrations to the inch, while wool obtained from samples of American flocks contained 2,552 serrations to the inch.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

SHIP-BUILDING IN THE PORT OF NEW YORK IN 1855.

We give below a statement of the number and tonnage of vessels built at the port of New York, with the names of the builders, during the year 1855, as compared with eight previous years—that is, from 1847 to 1855 :—

	Launched.	On stocks.	Total.
A. C. Bell	3,050	700	3,750
Roosevelt, Joyce & Co.	2,593	1,450	4,043
Westervelt Ship-yard	5,625	1,500	7,125
William H. Webb	8,555	5,050	13,605
Smith & Dimon	2,500	....	2,500
J. R. & G. Steers	110	4,200	4,310
John Englis	1,800	....	1,800
Thomas Erskine	420	250	670
J. Simonson	5,800	....	5,800
Mr. Mix	30	....	30
Mr. Letts	17	....	17
Thomas Collyer	...	300	300
Eckford Webb	997	1,400	2,397
E. F. Williams	1,580	400	1,980
William Collyer	100	....	100
Hathaway & Blomfield	150	....	150
Mr. Lupton	880	....	880
E. S. Whitlock	475	....	475
Lawrence & Foulkes	1,750	900	2,650
A. Patterson	....	70	70
Chapman & Dunbar	....	1,200	1,200
Thomas Stack	1,250	875	2,125
Navy Yard	2,000	5,000	7,000
M. S. Allison	460	....	460
I. C. Smith & Son	440	....	440
Total tonnage	40,582	23,295	63,877

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE AMOUNT OF TONNAGE BUILT DURING THE LAST NINE YEARS :—

	L'nched.	On stocks.	Total ton'ge.		L'nched.	On stocks.	Total ton'ge.
1847	36,649	15,710	52,359	1852	46,479	58,749	105,228
1848	38,085	23,890	61,965	1853	56,644	47,580	104,224
1849	52,225	27,516	79,741	1854	81,149	18,375	99,524
1850	65,521	15,240	80,761	1855	40,582	23,295	63,877
1851	53,048	22,576	75,624				

The above shows a falling off, in comparison with 1854, in total tonnage, of 35,647 tons.

The following is a classification of the vessels launched during the past year, and on the stocks on the 31st December :—

	Steamers.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Others.
Launched	9	8	4	5	25
On stocks	4	7	3	1	6
Total	13	15	7	6	31

The above shows a total of 51 vessels launched during the year, and of 21 remaining on the stocks.

ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The *Miners' Journal*, published at Pottsville, Pennsylvania, furnishes the following statement of the official quantities of anthracite coal shipped from the different regions in Pennsylvania during 1855, together with the quantity of semi-bituminous coal sent to market from Dauphin county, Pennsylvania, and also from the Cumberland region, in Maryland, and foreign importations, in comparison with the year 1854 :—

SCHUYLKILL REGION.

	1854.	1855.	Increase.	Decrease.
By railroad.....tons	1,987,854	2,213,294	225,438	.....
By canal.....	907,354	1,105,263	197,909	.....
Pinegrove*	62,462	77,481	15,019	.....
Schuylkill, total.....	2,957,670	3,396,037	438,366	.....

LEHIGH REGION.

Lehigh Canal.....	1,207,186	1,224,842	17,656	.....
Lehigh Valley Railroad....	.....	9,063	9,063	.....

WYOMING.

Delaware and Hudson Co.	440,944	565,460	124,516	.....
Penn. Coal Co.....	496,648	507,803	8,155	.....
N. Branch Canal.....	492,689	464,039	.....	28,650
White Haven Railroad.....	39,232	50,209	10,977	.....
Western Railroad.....	133,965	187,000	53,035	.....
Shamokin	63,506	116,117	52,617	.....
Anthracite	5,831,834	6,517,569	715,385	28,650
	.....	5,831,818	28,650	.....
Increase of anthracite in 1855.....	.....	686,735	686,735	.....

Showing an increase of anthracite coal in 1855 of 686,735 tons, against 734,690 tons last year.

SEMI-ANTHRACITE.

	1854.	1855.	Increase.	Decrease.
Lykens Valley Co ....tons	57,500	66,721	9,221	.....
Short Mt. Co.....	50,000	50,000	500	.....
Dauphin Co.....	63,000	1,000	.....	62,000

BITUMINOUS.

Cumberland Region.....	648,299	664,304	16,005	.....
Foreign coal.....	252,865	287,408	34,543	.....
	1,071,664	1,069,933	60,269	62,000
	1,069,933	.....	.....	60,269
Decrease in 1855.....	1,731	.....	.....	1,731

The increase of semi-anthracite and bituminous coal in 1854, including foreign, over the previous years, was 218,167 tons. This year there is a decrease of 1,731 tons—making the total increase of all kinds in 1855, 684,004 tons, against 952,857 tons in 1854. As the prices ruled high in 1854, and were much lower in 1855, there will in all probability be a clear market in the spring of 1856.

Of the increased supply of anthracite, Schuylkill county furnished 438,366 tons, leaving 248,369 tons for the increase of all the other anthracite regions.

* The quantity sent from the Pinegrove and Swatara Region in 1854 was 91,462 tons, and in 1855, 112,213 tons; but the balance is included in the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad report, it having been received from the Dauphin and Susquehanna Railroad.

Of the 6,517,569 tons of anthracite, Schuylkill county, as usual, has furnished more than half, as the following figures will show :—

Whole supply in 1855.....	6,517,569	Sent from Schuylkill.....	3,396,033
Other regions		.....	3,121,533

It is exceedingly doubtful whether this county will run ahead of all other regions this year, unless moderate rates of toll and transportation are established by the carrying companies.

MANUFACTURING STOCKS IN BOSTON IN 1855 AND 1856.

The following table is compiled from Mr. Martin's statement of stock fluctuations in 1855. It exhibits the par value, capital, number of shares sold, price, and semi-annual dividends of various manufacturing stocks in Massachusetts, &c., during the year 1855 :—

Banks.	Par.	Capital Jan., 1856.	Shares sold in 1855.	1855. Jan. 2.	1856. Jan. 1.	Dividends. —1855.—		Jan., 1856.
Amoskeag.....	$1,000	$3,000,000	82	$1,030	$990	3	3	..
Appleton.....	1,000	600,000	3	750	775	4	4	..
Atlantic.....	1,000	1,800,000	8	750	750	4	4	..
Bates	100	800,000	74	80	90	3	4	..
Bay State	1,000	1,800,000	5	525	500	0	0	..
Boott Mills.....	1,000	1,200,000	4	750	745	0	3	..
Boston	750	450,000	..	500	575	$20	$20	$20
Boston Gas Light.....	500	800,000	27	600	640	5	5	..
Chicopee	1,000	700,000	..	300	300	0	0	0
Cocheco	500	1,300,000	..	475	480	0	$18	$20
Dwight.....	1,000	700,000	..	600	575	0	3	..
Great Falls	200	1,500,000	171	202	205	4	4	..
Hamilton Cotton.....	1,000	1,200,000	4	875	865	4	4	..
Hamilton Woolen.....	100	600,000	12	98	100	5	5	5
Hill Mill.....	100	350,000	26	new	83	0	0	..
Jackson	1,000	600,000	..	375	475	0	0	0
Laconia	1,000	1,000,000	3	675	700	0	3	..
Lancaster Mills.....	450	900,000	20	285	280	$10	0	3
Lawrence.....	1,000	1,500,000	17	850	850	3	4	..
Lawrence Machine Shop .	50	1,000,000	339	19	11	0	0	..
Lowell (average par).....	690	2,000,000	26	425	450	$20	0	$30
Lowell Bleachery	200	300,000	..	215	220	5	5	5
Lowell Machine	500	600,000	2	375	325	0	annual.	
Lyman Mills.....	100	1,470,000	366	60	73	4	4	..
Manchester Print	1,000	1,800,000	7	750	575	3	0	0
Massachusetts Mills	1,000	1,800,000	1	825	800	2	3	..
Merrimack.....	1,000	2,500,000	18	1,145	1,170	5	5	..
Middlesex.....	1,000	1,000,000	..	450	450	0	0	0
Nashua.....	500	1,000,000	4	300	290	0	0	3
New England Glass.....	500	500,000	1	600	550	5	4	..
N. Eng. Worsted, prefer'd.	50	225,000	60	30	20	0	0	0
Otis.....	1,000	500,000	..	1,000	1,040	3	4	..
Palmer.....	1,000	160,000	..	460	300	0	0	..
Pepperell, ($400 paid in).	500	800,000	1	450	525	4	4	..
Perkins.....	1,000	1,000,000	..	500	500	0	2	2
Salisbury.....	1,000	700,000	..	900	500	0	0	..
Salmon Falls.....	500	1,000,000	..	250	300	0	0	3
Sandwich Glass.....	100	500,000	24	100	95	5	5	4
Stark Mills.....	1,000	1,250,000	14	720	730	3	4	4
Suffolk	1,000	600,000	5	750	750	0	4	..
Thorndike	1,000	450,000	..	750	540	2	3	..
Tremont Mills.....	1,000	600,000	1	750	730	0	3	..
York.....	1,000	1,200,000	5	625	500	0	0	..

Under our "JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE," in the present number, we have given a similar statement of the Boston banks, derived from the same reliable source.

MANUFACTURE AND CONSUMPTION OF PERFUMERY.

We learn from a foreign journal that full 159,000 gallons of perfumed spirits are yearly consumed by British India and Europe in titillating the nose. One French house alone annually uses eighty thousand pounds of orange flowers, sixty thousand pounds cassia flowers, fifty-three thousand pounds roses, forty-two thousand pounds of jasmin blossoms, thirty-two thousand pounds of violets, twenty thousand pounds of tuberose, sixteen thousand pounds of lilac, and other odorous plants in still larger portions. Flower plants exist in the south of France, Turkey in Europe, Turkey in Asia, and India. Nor is England without the cultivation. In Mitcham lavender is extensively grown, and produces a plant unrivaled in the world—four times the price even of French lavender; and the same spot is noted for its cultivation of roses. Nor is this extensive use surprising, when we consider the quantity of flowers necessary to produce an essence; a drachm of otter of roses requires two thousand rose blooms. This, however, is nothing to jasmin; the price of its essential oil is £9 the fluid ounce. Of course there is a good deal of "manufacture" going on with the more expensive perfumes. The rose-leaf geranium does duty for the rose; the "perfume of the magnolia is superb," says our author; but "practically it is of no use to the manufacturer," from the scarcity of the plant and other causes; the purchaser, however, gets a combination of half-a-dozen articles instead, and if he is satisfied with his "essence of magnolia," who has any right to complain? The perfume of the lily and the eglantine evaporate to such an extent under any known treatment that they are never used.

THE TREES AND WOODS OF AUSTRALIA.

The London *Building News* says: "The cedar of Australia is a most valuable wood, and almost the only kind used in joiners' and cabinet work among the colonists for the last fifty years; it is said to attain ten feet in diameter. The white beech of the colonists, a species of Vitex, is a noble tree, rising eighty to one hundred and forty feet, whose wood is much prized for the decks of coasting vessels, of fine bright silvery grain, said never to shrink in floors (as do the majority of colonial woods) after moderate seasoning. A magnificent species of Rhamnus has wood very close and hard, likely to prove ornamental, evidently a serviceable wood. The teak wood of the colony, (*Endiandra glauca,*) a noble tree, has wood hard, close, fine, dark color in the duramen, with a powerful aromatic fragrance throughout, is said to be very durable, evidently a valuable timber. The rosewood, a species of *Meliaceæ*, possesses fine timber, durable and ornamental, and an agreeable fragrance, the effect of an essential oil; bedsteads made of it never harbor insects.

AMERICAN COPPER.

Although the copper mining interest in this country is, as yet, in its infancy, it has already produced results that give promise of its soon standing among the foremost of our industrial pursuits, and of adding another to the already greatly diversified resources of wealth and power of our people. Previous to 1840 we

were, in common with the rest of the world, entirely dependent upon England for our supply of this useful metal. We are this year producing about five thousand tons of it, equal to one-seventeenth of the whole amount required to meet the demand of the world. The copper mines of Cornwall, England, have been worked for centuries, while those of our Lake Superior region have only been opened a few years, and not successfully and systematically worked till within the last five years. The opening of the Sault St. Marie Canal—by connecting the navigation of Lake Superior with that of the chain of lower lakes, has given an impetus to the business that will soon make it the great source of supply of copper to our own and foreign countries, on account of its great purity and the inexhaustible beds of its ore. Eighteen new stamping mills have been erected the past year, and at least fifty more will be put in operation this year. The value of the copper produced and sent to market last year is estimated at $2,000,000, and is expected to foot up at least $3,000,000 the coming season.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE BOSTON BOARD OF TRADE.

By an act of the Legislature of Massachusetts, passed in April, 1854, James M. Beebe, Silas Potter, James C. Converse, their associates and successors, were made a corporation, by the name of the "Boston Board of Trade," for the purpose of promoting Trade and Commerce in the city of Boston and its vicinity, with all the powers, privileges, and subject to all the duties, liabilities, and restrictions set forth in the Revised Statutes of that Commonwealth, without authority, however, as a corporation, to traffic in goods, wares, or merchandise of any description. The corporation, by the act, may hold real estate to the amount of $100,000, devoted exclusively to the purposes of the same.

By-laws were adopted May 10th, 1854, and amended March 5th, 1855. The First Annual Meeting of the Board took place on the 17th of January, 1855, when an able and elaborate report of the doings of the first year was presented by Isaac C. Bates, the Secretary of the Board. It appears, from the report of the Treasurer, presented at the same time, that the whole number of members admitted at the organization of the Board was 769.

The Second Annual Meeting was held on the 16th of January, 1856, when the government for the year were chosen, and the report of the Secretary read. This report, with the exception of the tabular statements, is published in the Boston *Daily Advertiser* of January 17th, 1856. It discusses a variety of topics, all of more or less interest to the merchants and business men of Boston, and indeed to the country generally.

The subjects discussed relate to the Capitation Tax on Immigrants arriving at Boston; Insurance and Insurance Companies; Boston Harbor; Difference of expense of Repairing Vessels in Boston and New York; Telegraph to Cape Cod; Rogers's Calm and Storm Signal Flags; Laws for Steamers crossing the Atlantic; Professor Chauvenet's Protractor; Transatlantic Telegraph Company; the Treaty with the British North American Provinces; Scioto and Hocking Valley Railroad, and Mineral Lands in Ohio; Transport of Merchandise; the Clear-

ing-house system of English Railways, &c., &c. The Report, without the tables, covers five closely printed columns of the *Daily Advertiser.*

The pamphlet copy of it will be printed as soon as the statistical tables are completed; and as these tables have been collected with great care at the fountain head, it may be presumed that the details they present of the trade of Boston will be not only highly interesting, but approximately accurate and reliable.

The President, SAMUEL LAWRENCE, Esq., having filled the office for two successive years, (the constitutional term,) retired with the unanimous thanks of the Board for the faithful and energetic manner in which he had discharged the duties of the office. His place has been supplied for the present year by the election of JAMES M. BEEBE, Esq., a man and a merchant every way qualified for the position. The following is a list of the other officers of the Board for the year 1856 :—

VICE-PRESIDENTS : George B. Upton, Andrew T. Hall, William B. Spooner.

STANDING COMMITTEES—*Of Appeals :* Samuel Lawrence, George R. Sampson, Nathan Carruth, A. G. Farwell. *Of Arbitration :* William Perkins, William B. Reynolds, Edward S. Tobey, N. C. Nash, Joseph Whitney. *Of Finance :* Zelotes Hosmer, George C. Richardson, Peter Butler, Jr. *Of Inquiry into Causes of Shipwrecks :* Robert B. Forbes, Samuel T. Dana, Charles O. Whitmore, Charles B. Fessenden, Lewis W. Tappan.

TREASURER : Samuel H. Gookin.

DIRECTORS : B. C. Clark, Samuel S. Lewis, Thomas Hopkinson, James P. Thorndike, Alexander H. Rice, Jonathan Ellis, Otis Norcross, Elijah C. Emerson, Eben C. Stanwood, James Lawrence, William J. Cutler, J. J. Whiting, James C. Converse, Benj. Callender, Silas Potter, H. K. Horton, Charles H. Mills, E. D. Brigham, Abram French, William Blake, George T. Lyman, J. B. Kimball, Charles Sampson, James H. Beal.

ISAAC C. BATES, Esq., the Permanent Secretary, is the only officer who receives a salary, devoting his whole time and attention to the affairs of the Board. Although comparatively a young man, he brings to the office the education of the scholar, a competent knowledge of mercantile and maritime law, and a large experience of the commercial customs and usages of other countries, having visited various parts of Europe, and resided in Germany for some time as United States Consul.

It would be well if the New York Chamber of Commerce—the oldest institution of the kind in the United States, established during the last half of the eighteenth century, and exerting an important influence on the commercial legislation of the country—would take some hints from the Boston Board of Trade. The Secretary of the New York Chamber is generally a merchant actively employed in mercantile pursuits, and discharges the duties of the office, which mainly consist in attending the monthly meetings, and keeping a record of the proceedings of the Chamber. These duties are performed without any compensation.

The Boston Board of Trade has appropriate rooms, and the Secretary and clerks are in attendance during every day in the week. The New York Chamber hold their monthly meetings in the directors' room of the Merchants' Bank, through the courtesy of the officers of that bank, without paying any rent. The Boston Board is collecting a library, by purchase, and the donation of books, maps, and charts, from members. Although a member of the New York Chamber, we are not aware that it has any library, except a few Congressional reports and the reports of kindred associations.

The old Baltimore Board of Trade became inanimate, and a new one was established a few years since, and is now in active and energetic operation, with an appropriate and increasing library.

It is time that New York, the "Commercial Emporium" of the country, and second to no other port in the world, in the extent of its trade, should have a Chamber of Commerce possessing something more than a respectable and even honorable name. Its influence is by no means inconsiderable, but it might be greater, more useful, and more efficient, if it would only adopt more of the energy of some of the associations of the kind in the United States. The merchants of New York are not wanting in liberality or intelligence, and we trust they will see the importance of the hints we have reluctantly been called upon to make, and give them all the consideration which in our judgment they seem to merit.

DUFF'S MERCANTILE COLLEGE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

This institution was founded by the present enterprising proprietor in the city of Pittsburg sixteen years ago, and was subsequently incorporated by the Legislature of Pennsylvania with collegiate powers and privileges. It has for many years rendered important services to the great commercial interests of the country by introducing a more comprehensive and elevated commercial education than that obtained in ordinary commercial academies, and it has attained a reputation which attracts students from every section of the Union. From the circular before us we perceive that it is attended by many from other States.

Nine professors are now constantly employed in the classes, and Mathematics, Commercial Law, Political Economy, have their place in the course of study; but the principal attraction of the establishment is the consummate ability with which the commercial department has been for so many years conducted under the immediate direction of the principal. Mr. Duff has himself formerly officiated in every department of business, from the book-keeper up to the extensive foreign merchant, shipowner, bank director, &c., and, as has been observed by one of our city merchants, "a man of such multiplied and varied experience must know how to direct others what to learn, and how to learn it." He not only unfolds the abstract science of accounts, but his lectures upon every department of Commerce cast a light over all its details and its intricacies, which can be given alone by one familiar with its realities. With this light before him the young merchant enters into the labors and responsibilities of his profession with many valuable practical lessons which he can obtain from no other source.

We have, in a former number, spoken of Mr. Duff's new and excellent treatise upon merchants' accounts, published by the Messrs. Harper. Every merchant will prize it as an indispensable addition to his library, and there are but few accountants so old or so wise as not to derive valuable information from it.

REALIZATION OF MERCANTILE HONESTY.

The Salem *Register* regards the following "commendable example" as an instance of honesty rare enough to make a note of. We are persuaded that many such examples occur among mercantile men, and pass without note or comment:

"About fourteen years ago, a gentleman, then residing in Danvers, failed in business, and, having compromised with his creditors by paying twenty-five cents

on a dollar, obtained a legal discharge. Having since prospered, and lately received a legacy by the death of a relative, on the first of the present month he called around among his old creditors, and paid the remaining seventy-five per cent in full, the sum which he distributed amounting to about *fifteen thousand dollars*. Several of those who received the money had forgotten all about the debt, and many of them were in circumstances which rendered the voluntary payment very acceptable."

A TABLET TO THE MEMORY OF SAMUEL APPLETON.

Since the publication of the memoir of the late SAMUEL APPLETON in the *Merchants' Magazine*, a tablet to his memory has been placed in King's Chapel, (January, 1856.) The Boston *Transcript* says:—"It is surmounted with a medallion head of the deceased of the size of life, and the whole work arranged in excellent taste." This memorial is placed in the north wall of the church, and bears the following just and eloquent inscription:—

Sacred to the memory of
SAMUEL APPLETON,
A Boston Merchant,
Honored for his uprightness, eminent for his liberality,
An integrity without guile,
A child-like faith in God,
A never-failing benevolence towards his neighbor,
Marked his whole character and career.
His charity expanded as his means increased;
And the wealth acquired in honorable labors
Was held, as if in trust,
For the good of his fellow-men.
A friend to the poor, a helper of the humble;
His hand and heart were open to every righteous cause.
Dying in the fullness of years, a private citizen,
He was lamented as a public benefactor.
His name will be preserved to coming time
By the numerous institutions of
Learning, Philanthropy, and Religion,
Which were established, sustained, or aided
By his munificence, alike in Life and Death.
He died July 12, 1853, aged 87 years.

BELL'S COMMERCIAL COLLEGE AT CHICAGO.

Our attention has been called to this institution by an advertisement in the Chicago papers of a series of lectures in course of delivery during the present winter, under the auspices of Judge Bell, the principal of the Commercial College of that city. Most of these lectures involve topics of special interest not only to the merchants of Chicago, but to business men generally. The course was commenced on the 24th of Dec., 1855, by a lecture from William B. Ogden, Esq., on the "True Elements of the Successful Business Man; his Characteristics, Deportment, and Duties." The course, consisting of twelve lectures, is to close on the 11th of March, 1856. Judge Skinner delivers one on "Mercantile Life;" B. F. Taylor, Esq., "On the Duty of Commercial Men to Cultivate Literary Taste;" James W. Sheaham, Esq., of the *Daily Times*, on "Unrestricted Commerce." Dr. J. V. Z. Blaney takes for the title of a lecture a question, (which, we presume, he intends to answer,) "Is Chicago to be a Manufacturing Town?"

and Andrew Harvie, Esq., delivers one on "Modern Commerce: its Influence on Society." All the lectures enumerated, it will be seen, relate to Commerce and the Merchant. The others in the course, though not strictly of the same class, bear on subjects of interest to merchants, as citizens of the great and growing West. George N. Comer, of Boston, who is, we believe, the pioneer in these educational and commercial institutions, gives a course of lectures every year on topics of practical importance to mercantile and business men, one or two of which have been furnished by the authors for publication in our Magazine. The lectures are free to the public, and Judge Bell respectfully invites the citizens to attend. The Mercantile Library Associations in every considerable city in the Union, and the Commercial Schools which have sprung up during the last sixteen years, are doing much to elevate the character and increase the knowledge of our American merchants. We wish them all success.

NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR THE MONTH ENDING JANUARY 25.

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

Since the close of our last monthly report, December 21st, 1855, there has been only a slight variation in price. The sales have also been moderate, owing in part to small stock, and the unusual quantity of orders sent and cotton shipped direct from Southern ports to Eastern manufacturers. The sales for the past five weeks we estimate at 28,000 bales, including about 7,000 bales sold in transitu. The transactions have been principally for export—the home trade being small from the above cause—and speculators have seen no reason for an advance, owing to the enormous receipts, a prospective large crop, and dull foreign advices.

The Southern markets continue active under receipts beyond any former period, and with crop views reaching three-and-a-half million bales. The basis of these transactions is upon the probability of a speedy peace being concluded in Europe, the effect of which, it is conceded by many, would be beneficial to cotton, notwithstanding that during the past year the consumption in England has been greater than any former period, and the home trade a large one, in consequence of the vast sums expended for labor of all kinds, and which a return to peace would materially diminish; and as the Commerce of our greatest consumer has been unrestricted during the war, but slight improvement could be anticipated in her exports. From the Trade Report of Messrs. Du Fay & Co. we learn that the year closed "with fewer stocks of textile fabrics than usual," and that the excess in exports over 1854 is as follows:—

In cotton yarns.....lbs.	8,500,000
In plain calicoes.....yards	122,509,000
In printed and dyed calicoes	87,500,000
The weekly consumption of cotton in 1855.....bales	40,371
The weekly consumption of cotton in 1854.....	37,444
Increased weekly consumption in 1855.....	2,927

The receipts at all the Southern ports to latest mail dates show an increase over last year of 690,000 bales. The increased export to Great Britain is 63,000 bales; to France, 90,000 bales; other foreign ports, 82,000 bales; total increase in exports, 235,000 bales; stock on hand in excess of last year, 365,000 bales.

The sales for the week ending December 28th were 6,000 bales, including 2,000 bales in transitu. Holders showed more readiness to sell, and buyers had the ad-

vantage to the extent of a better selection. The market closed quiet at the following :—

PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 28TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8¼	8¼	8¼	8½
Middling	9¼	9¼	9⅜	9½
Middling fair	9¾	9⅞	10¼	10½
Fair	10	10¼	10¾	11¼

The absence of foreign advices, decreasing stock, and the firmness of holders, limited the sales for the week ending January 4th to 5,000 bales. An advance in freights likewise tended to restrict operations. At the following quotations the market closed steady :—

PRICES ADOPTED JANUARY 4TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8¼	8¼	8¼	8½
Middling	9¼	9¼	9⅜	9½
Middling fair	9¾	9⅞	10¼	10½
Fair	10	10¼	10¾	11¼

The market for the week ending January 11th was less firm ; holders were again more anxious to realize, and the sales for the week reached 6,500 bales, with some slight concessions on sales from the dock and to arrive. Prices ruled irregular throughout the week, closing nominally at the following :—

PRICES ADOPTED JANUARY 11TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8¼	8¼	8¼	8½
Middling	9¼	9¼	9⅜	9½
Middling fair	9⅝	9¾	10¼	10½
Fair	10	10¼	10¾	11¼

For the week ending January 18th the transactions were 5,000 bales, without change in quotations. Holders, generally, were disposed to sell ; owing, however, to a severe snow storm, and the difficulty of discharging and receiving cotton on shipboard, exporters were restricted in their operations. At the following the market closed quiet :—

PRICES ADOPTED JANUARY 18TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary	8¼	8¼	8¼	8½
Middling	9¼	9¼	9⅜	9½
Middling fair	9⅝	9¾	10¼	10½
Fair	10	10¼	10¾	11¼

Our market for the week closing at date opened with more firmness and increased activity, and closed heavy under the unfavorable advices received per *Baltic* of a farthing decline. The smallness of our stock preventing a material decline, holders persist in asking the annexed rates, without inducing purchasers, who insist on a reduction. The following figures must be considered merely nominal. Sales for the week, 5,500 bales.

PRICES ADOPTED JANUARY 25TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas
Ordinary	8	8	8	8¼
Middling	9¼	9¼	9⅜	9½
Middling fair	9⅝	9¾	10¼	10½
Fair	10	10¼	10¾	11¼

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The American Almanac, and Repository of Useful Knowledge for* 1856. 12mo., pp. 376. Boston: Crosby & Nichols.

This repository of facts and figures has now reached its twenty-seventh annual volume, and although it has changed hands in its editorial management and its publishers several times, its character, as a whole, has been well sustained. The several volumes contain a vast amount of authentic and varied information concerning the complex affairs of the general and State governments. The official documents of the general and State governments relating to finance, legislation, and kindred topics, are faithfully digested and skillfully condensed, and a more compact book of ready reference, present and future, on all subjects falling within its scope or design, is nowhere to be found. The volume for 1856, before us, will, in our judgment, be found equal to any of its predecessors in fullness and, to the best of our knowledge and belief, in accuracy of detail. The astronomical and meteorological department covers about 100, and the remaining 276 pages are filled with varied information, alike useful to all professions and all classes of intelligent citizens. With the volumes of the *American Almanac* and the thirty-four volumes of the *Merchants' Magazine*, the classes referred to, and particularly the merchants and business men, need not be ignorant of the Commerce and resources of the United States or of the world.

2.—*A Child's History of the United States.* By John Bonner. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This work is none the worse for having been suggested by Dickens' "Child's History of England." That fact, it is true, may provoke comparisons, but not to the serious detriment of their author. He has executed his task with a remarkable degree of success. Relating the history of our country from its discovery to the present time, he has constructed a lively, flowing narrative, equally adapted to interest young readers and instruct those of a more mature age. His language is never starched or high-flown, but is marked by ease and simplicity. Sometimes, indeed, it is perhaps a little too familiar; at least, it uses terms and phrases which are rarely seen in print. He has rather too much political zeal, now and then, for entire impartiality, but this could hardly be avoided with the strong convictions produced by the study of the subject. We have no doubt that this will prove a welcome manual both in schools and families. Such a work was greatly needed, and we rejoice to see it in such a pleasing form.

3.—*Fowler's English Grammar.*

4.—*Barton's English Grammar.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

These two works will do well to go together. Devoted to the same object, they become mutual complements of each other, by their difference of construction and treatment. Professor Barton's work is concise and elementary; Professor Fowler's is full and expanded. The one aims at compactness; the other at completeness. Both are marked by variety of learning and clearness of statement. The young student will find the former best adapted to his wants; the maturer inquirer will gain a fund of curious knowledge from the latter. In the use of each, nothing will be wanting to a perfect illustration of the English language.

5.—*Harper's Classical Library.* 18mo. New York: Harper & Brothers.

In the recent issues of this series we have Edmond's Cicero, containing "The Offices," "Old Age," "Friendship," &c., and Watson's Xenophon, including "The Anabasis" and "Memorabilia," translated by competent scholars, and presenting in accurate and lucid English the priceless treasures of the immortal originals. The translations are accompanied by concise explanatory notes, furnishing the necessary aids for the elucidation of the text, and almost enabling the student, who is well-grounded in grammar, to dispense with the use of the dictionary.

6.—*A History of the Irish Settlers in North America, from the earliest Period to the Census of* 1850. By THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE. 12mo., pp. 240. Boston: Patrick Donahoe.

7.—*The Catholic History of America.* Five Discourses. To which are added two Discourses on the Relations of Ireland and America. By THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE. 12mo., pp. 239. Boston: Patrick Donahoe.

Mr. McGee, though quite a young man, is the author of some dozen or more works, embracing "O'Connel and his Friends," "Reformation in Ireland," &c. In the first-named volume before us, Mr. McGee gathers up the data going to show how his countrymen in America "have made many a clearing, fonnd many a field, marked out many a noble plan, fighting stoutly for their new country, on land and sea, when so required." Ireland has certainly been represented here, from the beginning, by able and useful men. It is of Irish settlers in America that the last is written, and to them it is appropriately dedicated. The second named volume consists of discourses on the Catholic History of North America, delivered in whole or in part at New York, Boston, Cincinnati, Washington, and Baltimore. He attempts to prove that the discovery and exploration of America were Catholic enterprises and undertakings, and carried out by Catholics; that the only attempts to civilize and Christianize the aborigines, were made by Catholic missionaries, and that the independence of the United States was, in a great degree, established by Catholic blood, talent, and treasure. The discourses possess many of the characteristics of true Irish eloquence, and evince a marked acquaintance with the history of our common country.

8.—*The Immaculate Conception of the Most Blessed Virgin Mary, Mother of God:* a Dogma of the Catholic Church. By J. D. BRYANT, M. D., author of "Pauline Seward." 12mo., pp. 322. Boston: Patrick Donahoe.

The author of this volume is, we believe, a convert to the Catholic Church. In this treatise he maintains and supports the newly enunciated dogma of the Immaculate Conception. The volume is dedicated "to Mary, Most Venerable Mother of my Redeemer, the immaculate maid, favorite daughter of God the Father, Mother of God the Son, and Spouse of God the Holy Ghost; most sweet and perfect model of humility, chastity, modesty, and every other grace," &c., &c. It has an introduction from the "graceful and polished pen of a priest in the Church," has been duly examined by the Bishops of Boston and Philadelphia, and by them "cordially recommended to the Catholic community."

9.—*The British Essayists*, with Prefaces, Historical and Biographical. By A. CHALMERS, F. S. A. 4 vols., 12mo., 413, 423, 417 and 409. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

This edition of Chalmers' British Essayists is a reprint of that published in London. The present volumes contain the papers of the *Tattler*, which, like the *Spectator*, established for itself the reputation of a classic, during the age in which it was written. It has, in fact, come down to us as a standard contribution to English literature, enriched by the brilliant articles of such writers as Addison and Steele. The design of the writers seems to have been to act upon the manners and morals of the age, and it presents something of a reflection of the spirit of the period in which it appeared. The volumes are issued in this edition in a condensed form, and are illustrated with engravings of Steele and Swift.

10.—*Dora Grafton;* or Every Cloud has a Silver Lining. 12mo., pp. 406. Boston: James French & Co.

We have seldom read a novel which leaves a better impression upon the memory than this new work. Its adaptation to daily life renders the book very meritorious, while the great charm rests in the religious unfolding of characters. The aim of the author is to show that in every phase of life there is a bright side; no cloud but has a "silver lining," and to do good, to help to bear the burdens of others, while cheerfully and hopefully bearing one's own, is the surest way to happiness. Many wholesome truths are simply and forcibly illustrated in the characters of the book.

11.—*The Life and Works of Gœthe*, with Sketches of his Age and Cotemporaries. From Published and Unpublished Sources. By G. H. LEWES. In two volumes, 12mo., pp. 435 and 478. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

The life and works of this popular German author, whose reputation in his native land has long been elevated to a point almost amounting to idolatry, are here commemorated in an appropriate form. We are presented with the varied vicissitudes of his career in an agreeable style, and his peculiar intellectual characteristics are faithfully portrayed. Considerable space has been allotted to an analysis of his works, and "the scientific writings," says the author, "have been treated with what proportionately may seem great length, and this partly because science filled a large portion of Gœthe's life, partly because even in Germany there is nothing like a full exposition of his aims and achievements in this direction." We may justly deem these volumes an important addition to the records which we before possessed of this eminent writer.

12.—*Patriarchy; or the Family.* Its Constitution and Probation. By JOHN HARRIS, D. D., President of New College, London. 12mo., pp. 472. Boston: Gould and Lincoln.

To the author of this volume we have been indebted for several works of a religious character. Its design is to show that the constitution of the family is of divine origin, and that its structure is not only attended with benefit to the moral character, but to the individual in his social relations. He attempts to show that the necessary consequence of the family constitution is self-improvement and subordination, and traces the mutual relations subsisting between the members of the family state, both in their filial, paternal, and conjugal character. We may regard the work, upon the whole, as a scholarly treatise.

13.—*My First Season.* By BEATRICE REYNOLDS. Edited by the Author of "Counterparts," and "Charles Chichester." 12mo., pp. 284. New York: W. P. Fetridge & Co.

A tale of more than ordinary merit. It is a sort of autobiography of the authoress, whose acquaintance, as she assures us, with her mother "began in heaven," who married late, and in broken health died almost at her birth. Her first recollection of her father was when his hair was grey, with lines upon his brow which only care or sorrow can draw upon the face of a man not forty years of age. Those who have read "Counterparts" and the other works of the same writer, will not fail to find in this later production those characteristics of mind and thought which marked her earlier efforts.

14.—*The Origin and History of the Doctrine of Endless Punishment.* By T. B. THAYER. 12mo., pp. 251. Boston: James M. Usher.

It is the object of the present volume to show that the doctrine of endless punishment is not of Divine origin. The author enters into an investigation of ecclesiastical and general history, and somewhat into philological discussion, for the purpose of sustaining his argument. In his preface, he states that there has been a sale of the first edition of two thousand copies, without the aid of an advertisement; while considerable additions have been made to the second.

15.—*The Child Wife.* From the "David Copperfield" of CHARLES DICKENS. 12mo., pp. 170. New York: Redfield.

Here is another of the series of works gleaned from the volumes of Dickens. The careers of Little Nell, Oliver, Little Paul, Florence, Dombey, Smike, and the Child Wife, have been detached from the larger works, and have been appropriately adapted to a juvenile class of readers.

16.—*Shandy M'Guire;* or Tricks upon Travelers. Being a Story of the North of Ireland. By PAUL PEPPERGRESS, Esq. 12mo., pp. 354. Boston: Patrick Donahoe.

An Irish story, with strong Catholic tendencies, abounding in passages of Irish wit, intermingled with occasional touches of sarcasm aimed at the opponents of Roman Catholicism.

17.—*India;* Ancient and Modern, Geographical, Historical, Political, Social, and Religious. With a Particular Account of the State and Prospects of Christianity. By DAVID V. ALLEN, D. D., Missionary of the American Board for twenty-five years in India, Member of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, and Corresponding Member of the American Oriental Society. 8vo., pp. 618. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

Since the publication of the voluminous and well-known work of Mr. Mills, much has been written concerning the empire of British India, that most extraordinary country of the Orient, which, in its magnitude and peculiarity of its interests, and its associations with British enterprise, exhibits perhaps the most singular political phenomenon of modern times. The millions who now occupy the territory of Hindoston have, it is well known, long been subjected to the dominion of Great Britain, and this dominion, it would seem, is to be continued, from the renewal, during the year 1853, of the charter of the East India Company, first granted in 1600. The present able work, whose title we have quoted, exhibits a comprehensive yet condensed view of that country, by an author who went to India as a missionary in 1827, but in consequence of a failure of health in 1853, was obliged to return to this, his native land. He seems to have been eminently qualified for the task which he has undertaken. The volume contains a satisfactory account of its geography, products, history, government, population, agriculture, Commerce, and manufactures, with minute details concerning the progress of Christianity within its bounds.

18.—*Sabbath Evening Readings on the New Testament. St. John.* By Rev. JOHN CUMMING, D. D., F. R. S. E., Minister of the Scotch National Church, Crown Court, Covent Garden, London. 12mo., pp. 464. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

These discourses upon the Gospels of St. John constitute the Readings, to quote the language of the author, "as they fell from his lips, in the pulpit, not for the information of scholars, or critics, or theologians, but for the education of plain Christians, the instruction of ordinary families, schools, and classes." They contain much that will interest a large class of religionists.

19.—*God Revealed in the Process of Creation, and by the Manifestations of Jesus Christ:* including an Examination of the Development Theory contained in the Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation. By JAMES B. WALKER, Author of "Philosophy of the Plan of Salvation." 12mo., pp. 273. Boston: Gould & Lincoln.

The author of the present volume, while demonstrating the existence of a God, from the order of creation, has referred to the formation of the earth by Divine Power in support of his argument. The points which he has drawn from theological science are cleverly developed.

20.—*Speeches of Gerrit Smith in Congress.* 12mo., pp. 423. New York: Mason Brothers.

The speeches made in Congress, which are here published, relate to numerous subjects of public interest, and are copied without change from the original reports. They were made in the session of 1853, the speaker remaining in that body during a single session only. Presented as they are in a compressed form, they concern some of the prominent questions discussed while he was a member, and are valuable for reference.

21.—*Ballads.* By WILLIAM M. THACKERAY. 12mo., pp. 228. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

These humorous ballads, composed in the peculiar vein of Thackeray, have been written during the last fifteen years, and are now collected from his own books and the periodicals in which they originally appeared. They sustain his reputation in that particular tone of composition which he has selected for the exercise of his genius, and which has given to his former works so extensive a circulation.

22.—*The Letters of Madame de Sevigne to her Daughter and Friends.* Edited by SARAH J. HALE. 12mo., pp. 438. New York: Mason Brothers.

The letters of Madame de Sevigne, which have long been regarded as a model of epistolary composition, constitute a most valuable acquisition to this department of literature. It is remarked in the volume that "the natural grace, the *curiosa felicitas* of these epistles have rendered them remarkable as to style, and the artist-like pictures of manners, the lively accounts of cotemporaneous incidents, give them very great value as aids to the study of history." Notwithstanding the faults of her husband, the Marquis de Sevigne, she maintained a character throughout a long life distinguished for the beneficent influence which she exerted in the circle in which she moved, at a period which has been denominated the Augustan Age of her country. The work forms one of a series, entitled "The Library of Standard Letters," which is designed to comprise selections from the correspondence of eminent men and women, and is now in the process of publication under the auspices of Mrs. Hale, than whom no one is better qualified for the task.

23.—*Little Nell.* From the "Old Curiosity Shop" of Charles Dickens. 12mo., pp. 202. New York: Redfield.

This little book is designed for a juvenile class of readers, having been gleaned from the well-known works of Dickens, which in their peculiar vein have attained a standard character. It constitutes a part of a series of a more elevated tone which is in progress of publication for children. "The writings of Dickens," remarks the preface, "have been selected as the basis of the scheme, on account of the well-known excellence of his portrayal of children, and the interests connected with children—qualities which have given his volumes their strongest hold on the hearts of parents."

24.—*Mimic Life;* or Before and Behind the Curtain. A Series of Narratives. By ANNA CORA RITCHIE, (formerly Mrs. Mowatt.) 12mo., pp. 408. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

The authoress of the present volume, formerly an actress, is already known to the public by her "Autobiography, or Eight Years upon the Stage." The sketches which are here presented are drawn from her own experience. "Out of the many-colored webs of life thus collected," she remarks, "the narratives that compose this volume are woven. Fiction has lent but few embellishing touches; Truth is left to proclaim her own strangeness." It is an extremely interesting book.

25.—*Tales from English History.* 12mo., pp. 344. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers.

Some of the most marked incidents in the history of England are sketched in the form of tales, and in a popular and pleasing style. While the narratives are made familiar by the manner in which they are presented, the truth of history appears to have been faithfully preserved.

26.—*One Word More.* An Appeal to the Reasoning and Thoughtful among Unbelievers. By JOHN NEAL. 12mo., pp. 220. New York: M. W. Dodd.

The author's views of the general doctrines of Christianity are here set forth in a clear and intelligent light. The work is marked by a pleasing style and by doctrines which commend themselves to the class of readers to whom they are addressed.

27.—*Harper & Brothers' Story Books. Ancient History.* By JACOB ABBOTT.

It presents a bird's-eye view of the history of the world, from the foundation of Nineveh to the downfall of Rome. The narrative flows with great animation, and without a tincture of modern historical skepticism, reproduces the old anecdotes and traditions in a very attractive form.

28.—*Harper's Magazine.*

The Twelfth Volume of Harper opens in excellent style with the present number. It is made up of articles and topics of popular interest, and well rewards attention by the freshness and vitality of its contents. The copious pictorial illustrations are in their usually splendid and beautiful style.

29.—*The Life and Times of St. Bernard.* By M. L'ABBE RATTISBONNE. Translated from the French. With Preface by H. E. MANNING, D. D. 12mo., pp. 487. New York: D. & J. Sadlier & Co.

The extraordinary career of this zealous champion of the Catholic Church is here recorded in a pleasing style. The connection of St. Bernard with his own church, as well as with the interests of his age, is recited, and his influence in producing the results which have, as it were, stereotyped his name upon the age in which he lived, seems to be accurately described. We are informed that the volume has already taken its place as a standard work in the ecclesiastical literature of France, and a wide tract of history with which he was identified is traveled over, for the purpose of exhibiting the circumstances upon which his influence was exercised, appearing, as he did, in the schools, at the altar, in the preacher's chair, amid the negotiations of princes, and the contests of anti-popes. The translation of the original work is believed to be accurate and elegant.

"LIVES OF AMERICAN MERCHANTS."

The first volume of this work is now ready for delivery to subscribers, and it will be sent free by mail to any part of the United States, within *three thousand miles*, on the receipt of the subscription price, which is TWO DOLLARS AND FIFTY CENTS per volume. It forms a volume of nearly six hundred octavo pages, illustrated with *nine* fine engravings on steel, and twenty-one biographies of eminent merchants. In this, the first volume, I begin, as will be seen, with what may be called the First Period of our Commercial History as a Nation, giving the Lives of deceased Merchants only. During this period, although but the life of one man in duration, the seed sown by the merchants of the colonial time has attained the growth—the wonderful growth—of which we are the witnesses, and enjoy the fruits. Of a few of those remarkable men, by whom the work has been carried on, and whose enterprise and wisdom have given scope, and impulse, and permanence to American Commerce and Industry, biographies are given in this first volume. I propose in a second volume, which will probably be published before the close of 1856, to give the lives of other merchants of this period; and to give completeness to this collection of Mercantile Biographies, I hope to be able hereafter to do justice to the merchants of the colonial period.

I am indebted to the eminent literary ability of the Hon. EDWARD EVERETT, Hon. THOMAS G. CARY, Hon. JOSEPH R. CHANDLER, GEORGE R. RUSSELL, LL. D., CHARLES KING, LL. D., S. AUSTIN ALLIBONE, Esq., JOHN A. LOWELL, Esq., Rev. JOHN L. BLAKE, D. D., Rev. WILLIAM BERRIAN, D. D., and others, for valuable contributions.

My design in this publication is more fully developed in the preface to the first volume, which will appear in the next (March) number of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

FREEMAN HUNT.

NEW YORK, *February* 1, 1856.

☞ In Article IV. of the *Merchants' Magazine* for January, on "*Abbott Lawrence, the Man, the Merchant, and the Statesman,*" two paragraphs, part of an entirely different article, were inserted on page 47, through the inadvertence of the printer, during our absence from the city. The reader on turning to the article will at once perceive "out of position," and make the necessary correction.