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Art. I.—WESTWARD SCIENCE IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

EXACTLY at the era when the great European race was dismembered, the Latin tongue was disused. This had formerly been the universal tie between dissimilar tribes, and when it was sundered by such men as Dante, who rose to stamp the seal of their genius upon the idiom of the common people, science soared sublimely amid the new growth of national languages, and became the supreme and most universally uniting bond. When Italy had gradually become nationalized as one Italy, Spain as one Spain, Germany as one Germany, France as one France, and Britain as one Great Britain; and when that still mightier process of civilization, the Reformation, had supervened, ecclesiastical union was destroyed, and then it was that enlarged invention came to the rescue and supplied the conservative influence which was most in demand. Increased ardor in the pursuit of knowledge led to wider and more frequent intercommunications both mental and physical, while these in turn were encouraged and protected by the improved polity of aspiring States. A new voice even more cosmopolitic than contemporaneous creeds broke upon the roused and exulting peoples saying, "One is your master, Thought, and all ye are brethren!" Sciences lead most directly, and with greatest efficiency to general views; and, above all, natural law, that science which treats of inherent and universal rights, arose and was cultivated with propitious zeal. The dawn was begun, and the noon was not far off when in central Europe a great proficient in universal history could say: "The barriers are broken, which severed States and nations in hostile egotism. One cosmopolitic bond unites at present all thinking minds, and all the light of this century may now freely fall upon a new Galileo or Erasmus."

From the sixth to the fourteenth century the science of government, as laid down by Justinian, was illustrated by the labors and comments of numerous celebrated juriconsults. The Byzantine legislation yielded on two essential points to the influence of Christianity. The institution of marriage, which in the Code and Pandects was only directed by motives of policy, assumed, in 911, a legal religious character; and domestic slavery disappeared gradually, to be replaced by serfdom. A charter was even granted to the serfs by the emperor Emanuel Comnenus in 1143. Irnerius, at the beginning of the twelfth century, opened the first law-school in his native city, Bologna, and thenceforth that science absorbed republican intellects, and led to a clearer defining of civil rights. A passion for this study possessed even the gentler sex; as in the case of Novella Andrea da Bologna, who was competent to fill the professor's chair during her father's absence, and delivered eloquent lectures on arid law. Sybil-like, she took care to screen her lovely face behind a curtain, "lest her beauty should turn those giddy young heads she was appointed to edify and enlighten." Modeled after this pattern, law-schools spread widely, and the study of the Lombard and Tuscan municipal constitutions eventually roused the European communities to break the bonds of feudalism. The principle of personal and political freedom so indelibly rooted in each individual consciousness respecting the equal rights of the whole human race, is by no means the discovery of recent times. At the darkest hour of the middle period of history this idea of "humanity" in no mean degree existed, and began to act slowly but continuously in realizing a vast brotherhood in the midst of our race, a unit impelled by the purpose of attaining one particular object, namely, the free development of all the latent powers of man, and the full enjoyment of all his rights.

In this department, as in all the rest, Florence was the seat of supreme mental power during the age of Leo X.; she fostered the genius which spread widely in beauty and might. In the fifteenth century, an ancient and authentic copy of the Justinian constitutions was captured at Pisa, and given by Lorenzo de Medici to the custody of Politiano, the most distinguished mediæval professor of legal science. He corrected numerous manuscripts, supervised the publication of repeated editions, and prepared the way for all the great improvements which, in his profession, have since been made. Politiano and Lorenzo, as they together took daily exercise on horseback, were wont to converse on their morning studies, and this was characteristic of the intellectual life of that age and city. The vivifying light which began to pour on a hemisphere was especially concentrated on the Tuscan capital, and all the sciences simultaneously awoke from torpor under the invigorating beams. Like a sheltered garden in the opening of spring, Florence re-echoed with the earliest sounds of returning energy in every walk of scientific invention. The absurdities of astrology were exposed, and legitimate deduction was substituted in the place of conjecture and fraud. Antonio Squarcialupi excelled all his predecessors in music, and Francesco Berlinghieri greatly facilitated the study of geography. Lorenzo de Medici himself gave especial attention to the science of medicine, and caused the most eminent professors to prosecute their researches under the auspices of his name and bounty. Paolo Toscanelli erected his celebrated Gnomon near the Platonic academy; and Lorenzo da Volpaja constructed for his princely namesake a clock, or piece of mechanism, which not only marked the hours of the day, but the motions of the

sun and of the planets, the eclipses, the signs of the zodiac, and the whole revolutions of the heavens.

The study of scientific progress requires us again to notice the wonderful use which Providence makes of the three original elements of postdiluvian humanity in the execution of infinite designs. The Arabians were a Shemitic race, raised into power in near neighborhood to the heritage of Ham, and were the contributors of numerous mental stores which were happily adapted yet further to augment the superiority of Japhet. These children of Ishmael existed at a gloomy period, and performed a most important work. They drew from the last living sources of Grecian wisdom, and directed numerous new tributaries into the great central current of civilization.

Arabia is the most westerly of the three peninsulas of southern Asia, a position remarkably favorable to political influence and commercial enterprise. The Mohammedans were an energetic and intelligent people, whose ancestors led a nomadic life for more than a thousand years; but from the middle of the ninth century they rose rapidly in the appreciation and extension of ennobling science. The same race who, two centuries before, had fearfully ravaged the great conservatory of learning at Alexandria, themselves became the most ardent admirers of the muses, and were unequaled proficients in the very studies they had previously, in their bigoted fury, so nearly annihilated. They garnered Greek manuscripts with the greatest assiduity, and became sufficiently masters of their import, to set a proper estimate on these valuable relics of ancient knowledge.

To the Arabian mathematicians, we are indebted for most valuable improvements in arithmetic, if not in fact for its invention. They also transmitted to Europe the knowledge of algebra; and rendered still more important service to geometrical science, by preserving many works of the ancients, which, but for them, had been inevitably lost. The elements of Euclid, with other valuable treatises, were all transmitted to posterity by their means. The Arabian mathematicians of the middle ages were the first to apply to trigonometry the method of calculation which is now generally adopted. Astronomy, optics, and mechanics were cultivated with no less success; and to the Arabs especially must be accredited the origin of chemistry, that science which has been productive of so many invaluable results. This gave them a better acquaintance with nature than the Greeks or the Romans ever possessed, and was applied by them most usefully to all the necessary arts of life. "Alchemy" is an Arabic term, denoting a knowledge of the substance or composition of a thing. The transmutation of common metals into gold and silver, and the discovery of a universal medicine, were futile pursuits; but they led to the method of preparing alcohol, aqua-fortis, volatile alkali, vitriolic acid, and many other chemical compounds, which might have remained much longer unknown but for the persevering labors and patient experiments of the mediæval alchemists.

History records many laudable efforts on the part of the Arabians in cultivating the natural sciences. Abou-al-Ryan-Byrouny, who died in the year 941, traveled forty years for the purpose of studying mineralogy; and his treatise on the knowledge of precious stones, is a rich collection of facts and observations. Aben-al-Beithar, who devoted himself with equal zeal to the study of botany, traversed all the mountains and plains of Europe in search of plants. He afterward explored the burning wastes of

Africa, for the purpose of describing such vegetables as can support the fervid heat of that climate; and finally passed into the remote countries of Asia. The animals, vegetables, and fossils common to the three great portions of earth then known, underwent his personal inspection; and he returned to his native West loaded with the spoils of the South and East.

Nor were the arts cultivated with less success, or less enriched by the progress of natural philosophy. A great number of inventions which, at the present day, add to the comforts of life, are due to the Arabians. Paper is an Arabic production. It had long, indeed, been made from silk in China, but Joseph Amrou carried the process of paper-making to his native city, Mecca, A. D. 649, and caused cotton to be employed in the manufacture of it first in the year 706. Gunpowder was known to the Arabians at least a century before it appeared in European history; and the compass also was known to them in the eleventh century. From the ninth to the fourteenth century, a brilliant light was spread by literature and science over the vast countries which had submitted to the yoke of Islamism. But the boundless regions where that power once reigned, and still continues supreme, are at present dead to the interests of science. Deserts of burning sand now drift where once stood their academies, libraries, and universities; while savage corsairs spread terror over the seas, once smiling with commerce, science, and art. Throughout that immense territory, more than twice as large as Europe, which was formerly subjected to the power of Islamism, and enriched by its skill, nothing in our day is found but ignorance, slavery, debauchery and death.

Herein we have a striking illustration of the wonder-working of Providence. At a time when the nations of Europe were sunk in comparative barbarism, the Arabians were the depositaries of science and learning; when the Christian States were in infancy, the fair flower of Islamism was in full bloom. Nevertheless, the sap of the Mohammedan civilization was void of that vitality and of those principles which alone insure eternal progress, therefore was it requisite that the whole system should be transferred and exhausted on a more productive field, in order to secure the desired end.

The Arabians were the aggressive conservators of talent rather than the productive agents of genius; and it must be confessed that they neither had the presentiment, nor have been direct harbingers of any of the great inventions which have placed modern society so far above the ancients. They greatly aggregated and improved the details of knowledge, but discovered none of the fundamental solutions which have totally changed the scientific world. At the needful moment, a new system came suddenly into existence, and spread rapidly from the Indus to the Tagus, under the victorious crescent. Apparently indigenous in every clime, its monuments arose in India, along the northern coast of Africa, and among the Moors in Spain. At Bagdad and Cairo, Jerusalem and Cordova, Arabian taste and skill flourished in all their magnificence. It is said that no nation of Asia, Africa, or Europe, either ancient or modern, has possessed a code of rural regulations more wise, just, and perfect, than that of the Arabians in Spain; nor has any nation ever been elevated by the wisdom of its laws, the intelligence, activity and industry of its inhabitants, to a higher pitch of agricultural prosperity. Agriculture was studied by them with that perfect knowledge of the climate, the soil, and the growth of plants and

animals, which can alone reduce empirical experience into a science. Nor were the arts cultivated with less success, or less enriched by the progress of natural philosophy. What remains of so much glory? Probably not ten persons living are in a situation to take advantage of the manuscript treasures which are enclosed in the library of the Escorial. Of the prodigious literary riches of the Arabians, what still exist are in the hands of their enemies, in the convents of the monks, or in the royal collections of the West. The instant they had brought forward all the wealth of the East, and planted it where by a fruitful amalgamation great and wide benefits could be produced, then Charles Martel, the *hammer*, heading the progressive progeny of Japhet, broke down the might of Shem, and repelled his offspring forever toward the sombre domain and fortunes of Ham.

In this connection, we shall consider the use which Providence made of Feudalism, that great military organization of the middle ages. It pre-eminently conduced to greater centralization and unity among civilizing powers. After having destroyed the majesty and influence of the Germanic and imperial royalty which Pepin and Charlemagne had revived over the ruins of the Roman world, it rapidly declined and gave place ultimately to popular liberty. "Feudality," says Guizot, "has been a first step out of barbarism—the passage from barbarism to civilization; the most marked character of barbarism is the independence of the individual—the predominance of individualism; in this state every man acts as he pleases, at his own risk and peril. The ascendancy of the individual will and the struggle of individual forces, such is the great fact of barbarian society. This fact was limited and opposed by the establishment of the feudal system of government. The influence alone of territorial and hereditary property rendered the individual will more fixed and less ordered; barbarism ceased to be wandering; and was followed by a first step, a surpassing step toward civilization."

Feudalism engendered new institutions, and they entered deeply into the spirit of progress. Such were, for example, the Court of Peers and the establishments of St. Louis, wherein the first trial was made toward a uniform legislation for the whole nation. The Crusades form also a conspicuous feature in the political activity of the Japhetic nations during the middle ages. The great movement that induced western Europe to rush to the East had, by no means, the expected results; yet its consequences became numerous and beneficial. Oppressing Shem was repulsed in a new direction, and great wealth of science was attained through his avaricious and violent hands. Thus the turbulent energy of the military classes, which threatened the progress of civilization, was exhausted in a distant land; and at the same time the different races of Europe were made to know each other better, and to banish all mental hostility, by uniting in one uniform devotion to a lofty design. Another great consequence of the Crusades was the change of territorial property, the sale of the estates of the nobles, and their division among a great number of smaller proprietors. Hence the feudal aristocracy was weakened, and the lower orders arose with acquired immunities, ennobled by the spirit of independence, and protected by municipal laws.

To excel in arms, not in arts, was the ambition of the crusading knights; and if they gazed for a while with stupid amazement upon the classic treasures of the East, it was only to calculate the vastness of their booty, and to collect force for the campaign. Blind frenzy often characterized

the instruments, but infinite wisdom was in the purpose which governed them. The Crusades contributed to the stability of governments, the organization of institutions, the cultivation of arts, the emancipation of thought, and the enlargement of the various realms of science. Had they not accomplished the needful preparation, under the guidance of Providence, the influx of literature into Europe consequent on the fall of Constantinople would have been worse than in vain. It was, therefore, wisely ordained that these romantic expeditions should not be occasions for the acquisition of knowledge which would transcend the capacities of its agents; but of preparatory changes fitted to facilitate the adaptation and profitable application of eastern elements, when on the vast expanse of the West, the full time should arrive for them to be completely introduced. The Crusades tend to confirm and extend pre-existing impressions; to import rather than to originate knowledge. For any considerable proficiency in literature or art, unknown to pilgrims in the East, we search in vain previous to the fifteenth century; but, as we have seen, their importations of scientific elements were neither few nor small. If the twelfth and thirteenth centuries were the age of the Crusades, the following two were not less the age of improvement growing out of the conflicts in Palestine. They were perpetuated as the popular watchword of chivalry and theme of romance, till Tasso embodied the thrilling annals in his immortal poem, which even in his age ceased not to glow in the common mind. Nor was the fourteenth century in the least a vacuum between the Crusades and the revival of literature and science; it was but slightly productive in original material, but its spirit was permeating, and formed a necessary link between cause and effect, be the connection however remote. Such is the golden thread which extends through all the web of passing events, leading on to the accomplishment of one grand design. In like manner, minstrels formed an integrant part of the Crusade retinue, by whose happy interposition a more than imaginary union was formed between martial exploits and poetical conceptions. Thenceforth the recollection of those enthusiastic adventures summoned up a train of highly romantic associations, by which the ideal world was greatly enlarged and peopled with new orders of captivating creatures, capable of an endless series of fruitful suggestions. Furthermore, the occupation of the Eastern empire was productive of much advantage to the mental culture of the West. Persecuted scholars sought refuge and employment beyond the Alps, where they repaid the hospitality they received with such wisdom as they possessed.

The Saracenic conquests in Spain brought in vast stores of oriental knowledge, and frequent intercourse with that land, and with Palestine, for devotional or commercial purposes, tended greatly to increase the treasure, and a taste for its enjoyment. But Arabian literature was a forced plant in Europe, and was as transient in its bloom as it was unnatural in its maturity. Some traces of a more substantial cultivation, however, were yet extant within the walls of Bagdad, and thence the crusaders secured whatever could be advantageously employed. But the fire of inventive genius, expressed in literary and scientific research, which once characterized the Arabians, had passed away; the seeds of preliminary culture had been sown, and their mission ended with the predestined work of their hands. The arts and sciences of the Arabians were as unique as their authors; too practical to be elegant, and too fanciful for ordinary use.

To their skill in medicine, and the exactness of arithmetic, they added the vagueness of the talisman and horoscope. Astronomy was lost in astrology, chemistry in alchemy, and medicine in empiricism. But amid the darkness of their errors dwelt gleams of scientific light superior to any the world had yet seen. The principal utility lay in the fact that these dim intimations prompted western Europe to break through habitual associations in matters of taste and knowledge, and rendered her the instrument of her own intellectual resuscitation, by exciting an ardor in mental pursuits hitherto unknown.

The crusades happily exhausted the military spirit of Europe, and prepared the way for advancement in the arts of peace. This done, the decline of the feudal system was hastened by the necessity of meeting the enormous expenses thereby incurred. Many baronial estates were consequently sold, and thus by degrees were abolished those impediments which had long been adverse to all the varied forms of culture by which the afflictions of man are mitigated, or his toils abridged. The great evil which then required to be abolished had given strength to a greater good than was to succeed; the commerce which was mainly created to carry supplies to the crusaders, was ready, on the decline of martial renown, to go still further in search of a new world, or to hold mercantile speculations with the remotest regions of the old. Consequent upon the facilities and refinements of navigation, followed all those arts of utility and convenience by which the productions of nature are applied or improved. The arts of weaving and dyeing, the perfection of paper and the press, as well as gunpowder and the compass, were the results of quickened industry and enlarged commerce. All great civilizing powers then attained a simultaneous and distinct culmination over a new field and under brighter auspices, when each department of progressive pursuit, the commercial, the literary, and the military, was furnished, at the fall of the feudal system, with its own peculiar instrument of invincible conquest.

Bearing in mind that Charles Martel, Peter the Hermit, Richard of the Lion Heart, and John Sobieski, with their mighty co-agents in the great preparatory work above described, all arose on the western edge of the field and age we are now exploring, let us proceed briefly to notice the still grander developments which followed thereupon.

The westward track on high was determined by the early astronomers of Egypt. Thales, the father of Greek astronomy, made great advances upon the speculations he derived from the Egyptians, and expounded them in his own country. A scholar of his was the first person who pointed out the obliquity of the circle in which the sun moves among the stars, and thus "opened the gate of nature." Certainly he who had a clear view of that path in the celestial sphere, made that first step which led to all the rest. But when Greek science fell with Ptolemy, there was apparently no further advance till the rise of Copernicus. During this interval of thirteen hundred and fifty years, as before stated, the principal cultivators of astronomical science were the Arabians, who won their attainments from the Greeks whom they conquered, and from whom the conquerors of western Europe again received back their treasure when the love of science and the capacity for its use had been sufficiently awakened in their minds. In mechanics, also, no marked advancement was made from Archimedes till the time of Galileo and Stevinus. The same was true of hydrostatics, the fundamental problems of which were solved by

the same great teacher, whose principles remained unpursued till the age of Leo X., began to give perfection to the true Archimedean form of science. As early as Euclid, mathematicians drew their conclusions respecting light and vision by the aid of geometry; as, for instance, the convergence of rays which fall on a concave speculum. But, down to a late period, the learned maintained that seeing is exercised by rays proceeding from the eye, not to it; so little was the real truth of optical science understood. In this respect, as in most others, it was attempted to explain the kind of causation in which scientific action originates, rather than to define the laws by which the process is controlled.

In the darkest period of human history, astronomy was the Ararat of human reason; but it became especially the support and rallying point of the scientific world, when intellect at large was astir to investigate the new wonders which rose to view with the effulgent noon of the middle age. Alphonso, king of Castile, in the year 1252, corrected the astronomical tables of Ptolemy; and Copernicus, of Thorn, revived the true solar system, about 1530. Tycho Brahe and Longomontanus brought forward opposing systems, which were soon rejected. Kepler, soon after, gave the first analysis of planetary motions, and discovered those laws on which rest the theory of universal gravitation. Galileo advocated the Copernican system; and by the aid of one of the first telescopes, discovered the satellites of Jupiter. Hygens discovered Saturn's ring, and fourth satellite; and four others were soon after noticed by Cassini. Thus was the great secret of the sidereal universe read, its movements comprehended, and the glories thereof proclaimed, while emancipated and sublimated thought, from the loftiest throne of observation, began forever to soar aloft.

As a ray of light became the conductor of mind upward into infinite space, so a bit of gray stone projected the invisible bridge which spans from continent to continent, and makes the path over trackless oceans plain as a broad highway. The properties of this wonderful mineral were not unknown to the ancients, who, Pliny says, gave the name "Magnet" to the rock near Magnesia, in Asia Minor; and the poet Hesiod also makes use of the term "magnet-stone." The compass was employed twelve hundred and fifty years before the time of Ptolemy, in the construction of the magnetic carriage of the Emperor Tsing-wang; but the Greeks and Romans were completely ignorant of the needle's pointing toward the north, and never used it for the purpose of navigation. Before the third crusade, the knowledge of the use of the compass for land purposes had been obtained from the East, and by the year 1269 it was common in Europe. But as the time approached when God would advance, by mightier strides than before, the work of civilization, he discovered the nations one to another, through the agency of a tiny instrument, then first made to vibrate on the broadest sublunary element, and the throne of grandest power. The discovery of the polarity of the magnet, and the birth of scientific navigation resulting therefrom, was as simple as it was providential. Some curious persons were amusing themselves by making smin in a basin of water a loadstone suspended on a piece of cork. When left at liberty, they observed it point to the north. The discovery of that fact soon changed the aspect of the whole world. This invention, which is claimed by the Neapolitans to have been made by one of their citizens about the year 1302, and by the Venetians as having been

introduced by them from the East, about 1260, led to the discovery of the New World by Columbus, in 1492. When the mariner's compass was needed, it was produced, and from the most western port of the Old World, mind shot outward forever! Like the relation between the earth's axis and the auspicious star which attracts the eye of the wanderer, and shows the North in the densest wilderness or on the widest waste, so from eternity the magnetic influence had reference to the business of navigation, and the true application of this arrived at the destined moment, when, in connection with correlative events, in like manner prepared, it would produce the greatest good. After eastern talent had proved the form of earth, western genius discovered the vastness of oceanic wealth. The Pillars of Hercules were passed by the great adventurers at sea in the fifteenth century, and trophies were won, richer by far than ever graced the triumphs of an Alexander on shore. The works of creation were doubled, and every kingdom forced its treasures upon man's intellect, along with the strongest inducements to improve recent sciences as well as ancient literature, for the wisest and most beneficent practical ends.

The style of working with Providence is, to attain some grand result, compatibly with ten thousand remote and subordinate interests. One yet higher and more comprehensive instrumentality was requisite to garner all the past, ennoble the present, and enrich the future, and at the fitting moment for its appearance and use, the press stood revealed.

Though the Chinese never carried the art of writing to its legitimate development in the creation of a perfect phonetic alphabet, they yet preceded all other nations in the discovery of a mode of rapidly multiplying writings by means of printing, which was first practiced by Fung-taou, as early as four centuries before its invention in Europe. Beyond that first step the old East never advanced; there each page of a book is still printed from an entire block cut for the occasion, having no idea of the new western system of movable types. What astrology was to astronomy, alchemy to chemistry, and the search for the universal panacea to the system of scientific medicine, the crude process of block printing was to the perfected press. Engraved wooden plates were re-invented by Coster, at Harlaem, as early as 1430; but the great invention of typography is accredited to Guttenberg, who was assisted by Schoeffer and Faust. This occurred in 1440; and stereotype printing, from cast metallic plates, is due to Vander-Mey, of Holland, who first matured it about 1690.

The time had come when men were required to comprehend the ancients, in order to go beyond them; and at the needful crisis, printing was given to disseminate all precious originals throughout the world, in copies innumerable. Had the gift been bestowed at an earlier period, it would have been disregarded or forgotten, from the want of materials on which to be employed; and had it been much longer postponed, it is probable that many works of the highest order, and most desirable to be multiplied, would have been totally lost. Coincident with this most conservative invention, was the destruction of the Roman empire in the East. In the year 1453 Constantinople was captured by the Turks, and the encouragement which had been shown to literature and science at Florence, induced many learned Greeks to seek shelter and employment in that city. Thus, the progressive races were favored with multiplied facilities for gathering and diffusing those floods of scientific illumination vouchsafed to deliver from the fantasies that had hitherto peopled the world—

from the prejudices that had held the human mind in thrall. When Gutenberg raised the first proof-sheet from movable types, the Mosaic record—"God said, let there be light, and light was"—flashed upon earth and heaven with unprecedented glory, and that light of intellect must shoot outward, upward, and abroad forever! It was not a lucky accident, but the golden fruit of omniscient design, an invention made with a perfect consciousness of its power and object, to congregate once isolated inquirers and teachers beneath one temple, wherein divine aspirations might unite and crown with success all the scattered and divided efforts for extending the empire of love and science over the whole civilized earth.

On the banks of the same river Rhine, where printing first attained a practical use in the hands of a soldier, the discovery of gunpowder was made by a priest. Its properties were obscurely known long before the crusades, but are said to have been first traced in their real nature by Berthold Schwartz, and were made known in 1336, ten years before cannon appeared in the field of Crecy. Small arms were unknown until nearly two centuries afterward, and were first used by the Spaniards, about the year 1521. Fortified with this new power, Cortez, with a handful of soldiers, was able to conquer the natives of Mexico, the most civilized and powerful of all the nations then on this western continent. From the hour when the blundering monk was blown up by his own experiment, gross physical strength was surrendered to expert military science; and gunpowder has increasingly exalted intellect in the conduct of war, not less than in the triumphs of peace.

The history of civilization is written in the triumphs which are won by scientific invention over the physical laws of nature, and over the mental infirmities of inferior human tribes. These multiply at points in space, and periods of time, most happily adapted to promote the progress and welfare of mankind. The manufacture of glass windows, chimneys, clocks, paper, the mariner's compass, fire-arms, watches, and saw-mills, with the process of printing with movable types, and the use of the telescope comprise nearly all the inventions of importance which were made during the lapse of twelve centuries; all the best of which appeared near the close of the mediæval period, and were not a little indebted to information obtained from Mohammedans through the crusades. In the gradual development of human destiny occur flourishing periods, when numerous men of genius are clustered together with mutual dependence, and in a narrow space. For instance, Tycho, the founder of the new measuring system of astronomy, Kepler, Galileo, and Lord Bacon of Verulam, were cotemporaries; and all of them, except the first, lived to see the works of Descartes and Fermat. The true celestial system was discovered by Copernicus in the same year in which Columbus died, fourteen years after the grandest mundane discovery was made. The sudden appearance and disappearance of three new stars, which occurred in 1572, 1600, and 1604, excited the wonder of vast assemblies of people, all over Europe, while humble artisans, in an obscure corner thereof, were constructing an instrument which should at once calm their fears and excite the most absorbing astonishment. The telescope was discovered in Holland, in 1608, and two years after the immortal Florentine astronomer began to shine prominently above all other leaders of sublime science. Galileo was the Huss of mediæval progress, if it be not better to call him the Columbus. The day of predestined freedom rose over his cradle, and

his life-struggle struck the hour. His hand kindled brighter lamps in the great temple of knowledge, and, sublime priest of true evangelism as he was, it was fitting that his place and mission were so central, when he held aloft supremest light. We love to read the history of his mighty spirit, and contemplate the serene old man, blinded by gazing at stars, bereaved of his pious daughter, dragged to the dungeon of the Inquisition, and there visited by the future secretary of the English Commonwealth. In his own great maxim, that "we cannot teach truth to another, we can only help him to find it," is contained the germ of all true wisdom, and the foundation of those future inductions which were to underlie a new age and revolutionize the world.

Sir Isaac Newton was born the same year Galileo died; and while we do not forget that Florence was the great center of science, as of literature and art during the age of Leo X., let us glance more particularly at this point to the results which so constantly tended toward the western extreme.

We have already alluded to many of the developments which illuminated the night of ignorance, broke the yoke of superstition, gave to doubt a salutary force, and redoubled the acute delights of scientific investigation. The wonders of remote hemispheres were simultaneously unfolded, when Columbus and Vasco de Gama, at one stroke, overthrew the old geological and geographical systems. Before the close of the sixteenth century few of the mysteries of nature were left unvailed, and all that remained for posterity was the work of enlarged classification, and the perfection of each separate science. The progress made was, in fact, immense. As the botanic gardens, at that time planted in the new Italian universities, were fragrant with a thousand exotics, unknown to antiquity, so the softest fabrics and most delicious fruits, recalled to memory the concurrent events of Providence, which for a long time made Venice and Genoa the emporia of mediæval traffic. Every luxury of the Old World, which commerce converted into a comfort for the New, is a memento of the discoveries which guided navigation in the remotest seas, and carried European adventurers so far as to make the treasures of the entire globe our own. The science of political economy was also the offspring of that increased commercial activity which has so much affected the character of nations as to render new combinations of philosophy necessary for their direction. We only need allude to the fact that the free cities of Italy were compelled to yield the leadership in commerce to freer Holland, and that the scepter of the seas was finally won by England; and that the first published theory of political economy was given to the world in Raleigh's essay, which Quesnoy long after attempted in vain to refute.

Agriculture was greatly improved in England under the early civilizers of the Anglo-Norman race. Immediately after the conquest, many thousand husbandmen, from the fertile plains of Flanders and Normandy, obtained farms, and employed the same methods of cultivation which had proved so successful in their native country. The ecclesiastics rivaled the secular ranks in this noble work. It was so much the custom of the monks to assist in open fields, especially at seed-time, the hay season, and harvest, that the famous à Becket, even after he was Archbishop of Canterbury, used to sally out with the inmates of the convents and take part with them in all rural occupations. It was decreed by the General Council of Lateran that "all presbyters, clerks, monks, converts, pilgrims, and

peasants, when they are engaged in the labors of husbandry, shall, together with the cattle in their plows, and the seed which they carry into the field, enjoy perfect security; and that all who molest and interrupt them, if they do not desist when they have been admonished, shall be excommunicated."

Nearly all the finest garden-lands in England were redeemed from the worst natural condition by the sagacious and industrious Benedictine religionists. The science they applied in cathedral building is wonderful to the wisest engineers of our own age, and their taste in landscape gardening has ever been the best in the world. Their ruined abbeys stand in the loveliest positions, and all their great churches and colleges, unlike the continental, are encompassed by trees and exquisitely decorated grounds. Ingulfus, abbot of Croyland, supplies an early and characteristic instance of this general disposition. Richard de Rules, director of Deeping, he tells us, being fond of agriculture, obtained permission to inclose a large portion of marsh, for the purpose of separate pasture, excluding the Weland by a strong dike, upon which he erected a town, and rendered those stagnant fens a Garden of Eden. Others followed his example, and divided the marshes among them; when some converting them to tillage, some reserving them for meadow, others leaving them in pasture, found a rich soil for every purpose.

Evelyn records how four kinds of grapes were early brought from Italy, with a choice species of white figs, and were naturalized in his vapory clime. The learned Linacre first brought the damask-rose from the South; and, at the same time, the royal fruit gardens were enriched with plums of three different kinds. Edward Grindal, afterward primate at Canterbury, returning from exile, translated thither the medicinal plant of the tamarisk. The first oranges were grown by the Carew family, in Surrey; and the cherry orchards of Kent were commenced about Sittingbourne. British commerce brought the currant-bush from the Island of Zante, and lettuce from Cos. Cherries came from Cerasuntis, in Pontus; the peach, from Persia; the chestnut, from Castagna, a town of Magnesia; and the damson plum, from Damascus. Lucullus, after the war with Mithridates, introduced cherries from Pontus into Italy, where they were rapidly propagated, and, twenty-six years afterward, Pliny relates, the cherry-tree passed over into Britain. Thus a victory gained by a Roman consul over a remote antagonist, with whom it would seem that the Western isle could not have the remotest interest, was the real cause of her being ultimately enriched.

Such is the law of providential dealing, and such are the means and the path it pursues. In 1609, Shakspeare planted his celebrated mulberry-tree, a production before almost unknown. Since that epoch, vast treasures of literature, art, and science have accumulated on that soil, but few new germs have originated there.

Nearly all the roots of England's maturest science run back into the deepest mediæval night. A worthy associate with Thomas Aquinas, Alfred the Great, and Michael Scot, was the celebrated Roger Bacon, a native of Somersetsshire, who flourished in the thirteenth century. This Franciscan monk seems to have been a "Phoenix of intellects" in the fundamental education of the English race, "an old and new library of all that was good in science." He greatly established and extended the natural sciences, by means of mathematics and the production of phenom-

ena in the way of experiments. To him especially credit is due, that the influence which he exercised upon the mode of treating natural studies, was more beneficial and of more lasting effect than the discoveries themselves which have been attributed to him. Says Humboldt, "He roused himself to independent thought, and strongly blamed the blind trust in the authority of the schools; yet he was so far from neglecting to search into Grecian antiquity, that he prizes the study of comparative philology, the application of mathematics, and the 'Scientia Experimentalis,' to which he devotes a particular section in his great work. One of the Popes, Clement IV., defended and patronized him; but two others, Nicholas II. and IV., accused him of magic, and cast him into prison, and thus he experienced the reverses of fortune which have been felt by great men of all times. He was acquainted with the Optics of Ptolemæus and the *Almagest*. As he always calls Hipparchus 'Abraxis,' like the Arabs, we may conclude that he only made use of a Latin translation of the Arabic work. Besides Bacon's chemical investigations respecting combustible and explosive mixtures, his theoretical optical works upon perspective, and the position of the focus in a concave mirror, are the most important."

It is interesting to contemplate this thoughtful recluse prosecuting lofty studies in his solitary cell at Oxford. Around him was rising that greatest of Western universities, scarcely one college of which, according to its historian, Dr. Ingram, can be considered a royal foundation. Great commoners, architects of their own fortunes—like the butcher's son, Wolsey, and the poor stone-mason, William of Wykeham—reared the amplest halls, and educated the mightiest minds. In the front rank of these great benefactors of science stood Roger Bacon, greatest of his own age, and projector of nearly all that followed. His writings contain many curious facts and judicious observations. From the following statement it would appear that he anticipated his brother monk on the continent in the discovery of gunpowder:—

"From saltpetre and other ingredients," he says, "we are able to form a fire which will burn to any distance." And again, alluding to its effects, "a small portion of matter, about the size of the thumb, properly disposed, will make a tremendous sound and coruscation, by which cities and armies might be destroyed."

One of his biographers ascribes to him a mechanical contrivance which prepared the way for the important invention of the air-pump. In his own words, we have the following anticipations of nearly all the grand inventions which have more recently changed the condition and aspect of the scientific world:—

"I will mention," he says, "things which may be done without the help of magic, such as indeed magic is unable and incapable of performing; for a vessel may be so constructed as to make more way with one man in her, than another vessel well manned. It is possible to make a chariot which, without any assistance of animals, shall move with the irresistible force which is ascribed to those scythed chariots in which the ancients fought. It is possible to make instruments for flying, so that a man sitting in the middle thereof, and steering with a kind of rudder, may manage what is contrived to answer the end of wings, so as to divide and pass through the air. It is no less possible to make a machine of a very small size, and yet capable of raising or sinking the greatest weights, which may be of infinite use on certain occasions, for by the help of such

an instrument not above three inches high, or less, a man may be able to deliver himself and his companions out of prison, and he and his companions may descend at pleasure. Yea, instruments may be fabricated by which one man shall draw a thousand men to him by force and against their will, as also machines which will enable men to walk without danger at the bottom of seas and rivers."

The above possibilities, as they were suggested in the thirteenth century, have already, in good part, been realized, justifying the prophecies of a man who was before his age, but on the course of its progress. He beheld the drifting of the great seas of humanity, and knew not how far they might roll, but he was conscious that forward they must go. He was the Savonarola of his land and age, the martyr of science, who possessed his soul in patience, uttered his word, and waited, knowing that his despised sentence would one day be esteemed as of the finest gold. Mr. Brande observes that one of his principal works "breathes sentiments which would do honor to the most refined periods of science, and in which many of the advantages likely to be derived from the mode of investigation insisted upon by his great successor (Chancellor Bacon) are anticipated."

This remark might have been still more prospective, for the celebrated French experimentalist, Homberg, availing himself of some hints of chemical combinations suggested by Roger Bacon, at a much later period, made some important discoveries in that science.

As soon as printing was perfected on the banks of the Rhine, it was brought to the banks of the Thames, and in 1474 the first press in England was erected by Caxton in Westminster Abbey. Thus the higher process supervenes upon the inferior which prepared the way, and supercedes the sources of its own origin and support. In the ancient *Scriptorium* of the Abbey, where all literature had been transcribed, and all science then extant found refuge till more auspicious times, was carried on an art which was the embodiment of anterior thought, and the guaranty of a future culture infinitely intensified and enlarged. As early as 1480 books were printed at St. Albans; and in 1525 there was a translation of Boethius printed in the monastery of Tavistock, by Thomas Richards, monk of the same monastery. That the intercourse of Caxton with the Abbot of Westminster was on a familiar footing, we learn from his own statement, in 1490: "My Lord Abbot of Westminster did show to me late certain evidences, written in old English, for to reduce it to our English now used."

To receive the contributions of the past and reduce them to more efficient use in the present and for the future, is the mission of every agent of Providence like Caxton, Roger Bacon, or that gifted son of St. Albans whose dust lies buried near the venerable abbey, where the second press of Old England was set at work within the church, while he thought and wrote without. Francis Bacon was the complement of Aristotle. Both were adapted to their respective ages, and were requisite to each other. Had not the great Greek speculated, the greater Englishman would never have made his demonstrations. The first developed the general form of all reasoning, and the second made a specific application of this to the phenomena of matter. But the deductive mode is only one of the phases of dialectics; and the Baconians of the present day are much in the same position, with regard to moral science, that the Aristotelians were in with

respect to matter science. A third method was necessitated by the superior worth of the second, and the nations at large await the man to come who shall exhaust the whole doctrine of method, and this will doubtless be consummated in the same direction which scientific excellence has hitherto pursued.

E. L. M.

Art. II.—FIRES IN CITIES—LONDON AND NEW YORK.

PECULIAR SERVICE AND PECULIAR DANGER OF FIRE TO ENLIGHTENED COMMUNITIES—ADVANTAGES OF GREAT COMMERCIAL CITIES ILLUSTRATED BY THEIR RAPID RECOVERY FROM THE EFFECTS OF CONFLAGRATIONS—STATISTICS OF FIRE IN NEW YORK AND LONDON—CAUSES OF THE DISPARITY—MANNER AND MATERIAL OF BUILDING—FIRE-PROOF SECURITIES—COMPARATIVE USE OF FIRE BY THEIR POPULATIONS—LIGHTS—OFFICIAL AND POPULAR CARELESSNESS—USE OF FIRE IN CELEBRATIONS—FIRES OF JULY—WATER ADVANTAGES OF THE TWO CITIES—FIRE DEPARTMENTS—PUBLIC DISCIPLINE—LIFE DESTRUCTION—PRESERVERS—THE CAUSE OF THE CAUSES.

The grand operative power of civilization is FIRE. It is the especial agent of all material and mental progress effected by man—the genial influence by which the seeds of thought, action, discovery, are germinated and brought to the maturity of their fruitage. It is true, the subtle element is an essential of every state of human existence. In the regions of everlasting ice and conservatism, it supplies the one *desideratum*, in the ever-pressing demand for which nearly every desire and ambition is absorbed. In the torrid zone, where an incessant fervor might be supposed to render the blackened natives enemies alike to combustion and progress, where icicles and effort are both fables too absurd for belief, fire is still a perpetual necessity. Without it, the torridian could not defend himself against the ferocious and powerful animal nature that riots in his fecundate clime; without it, too, the rites of his gossamer mysticism would lack that gorgeous beauty, which can alone arrest his calorific fancy.

But in the temperate clime—the region of conquering spirit and strong nerves—it is the great means by which the ambitious inhabitant achieves his noble aims, realizes his refined and lofty ideas of life. It is his all-capable servant—the parent of uncounted motivities—the prime minister of enterprise.

But while the service rendered by fire to man increases perpetually with his advance in civilization, the evils which it inflicts, and the dangers to which it exposes him, augment in like proportion. It can do but little harm to the savage; if it destroy his hut, the loss is easily replaced. A worse thing than that is, if it level the forest, the refuge of the animals upon which he subsists, or sweep the prairie, where they feed—even then, his only inconvenience is a change of residence. But the devouring fiend is one of the most formidable evils which the compact communities of civilized men have to encounter. It is the scourge of enlightened life—the peculiar plague of cities. The very triumphs which it has assisted man to achieve—the great results of art—the masses of wealth, the necessities, comforts, and ornaments which it has enabled man to pile together—afford a noble field for its ravages. It takes its turn as master, and with a speed far beyond that of its creative agency, riots in destruction. It banquets upon its own offspring.

A great city is indeed the most glorious field this prince of destroyers could wish for its ravages. Had the fire-fiend ambition, it must be satisfied with such a prey. And while the field is the best, so are the opportunities. Combustibles are gathered everywhere, and fire is everywhere placed beside them. The arrangement of buildings, with their high and contiguous walls, gives great advantage to the element, and neutralizes, in a great degree, the efforts of its opposers. The consumption of water by an immense urban population leaves that necessary so scarce as often to disarm the fireman.

Under such circumstances, a few hours, even minutes, suffice to effect a destruction which years, sometimes ages, cannot replace. Millions of value, the representative of the labor and product for years of thousands of disciplined hands and minds, are swept away in a night. Works that were ages in formation, and have stood the friction of other ages, pulverize within the ardent embrace, almost in an instant. Libraries, cabinets, temples, various repositories of the rare, the curious, the beautiful, vanish like dew. The ravage of an hour may be mourned by men who come thousands of years afterwards. Life, too, is the prey of fire in cities. How many thousands have been surprised by the merciless destroyer while pinioned in the arms of sleep! What uncounted multitudes have perished in the open battle with the terrible foe—blown up by unthought of explosions, buried beneath falling walls, sinking through burnt floors, struck down by loosened bricks or timber! What measureless miseries of the poor—of the great masses packed together into contracted tenements—are its sport! No wonder that hundreds should crave protection from the malign power, as the most earnest prayer of each night.

Nothing better illustrates the immense advantages, natural and artificial, enjoyed by the greater commercial and manufacturing emporiums, than their ability to withstand the effect of those vast conflagrations that occasionally visit them with such terrible desolation. We see often cities of very respectable energy and resource overtaken by such a calamity lying a long time in utter prostration, before they are able to make another movement forward. How often, indeed, is the blow too severe for their recuperative power, and a rapid progress reversed into a movement toward insignificance or total extinction. How many cities of the earth, cities which have achieved a name and position in history that will endure till the foundations of the world are rotten, have been utterly blotted out by fire—the very roots and soil of their existence so burnt out, that never was their ashes disturbed. Yet there are other cities whose progress the most fearful conflagrations seem not for a moment to retard. The ground that was cleared by the flames of yesterday, is built upon to-day in a style superior to the former. Almost ere the alarm-bell has ceased the lugubrious warning, the new edifice smiles in a freshness of sudden beauty that seems like the work of the architects of the Arabian Nights' Tales. You see the perpetual cloud and illumination, but you perceive never the odor of charred timber behind.

Of cities in the latter class, New York is (excepting San Francisco alone) the most remarkable example. It is forever burning, and while half of its population should seem to be roasted, they carry not the smell of smoke in their garments. But although nothing seems to burn *down*, this perpetual operation of burning is yet a very unpleasant one. The devourer sports rather *too* freely with the capacities of our commercial metropolis,

gigantic as they are, and though some repressive effort has of late been essayed, with an encouraging degree of success, the demand is urgent for more effective action.

We purpose to illustrate the matter by some particular reference to the conflagratory tendencies of New York, as compared with those of another, greater city.

In an English paper upon our table, we find a statement of the number of fires in the city of London during the year 1851, which, though not so late as we would wish, will answer well enough the purpose of comparison. The number of fires was 928; of alarms, false or from burning chimneys, 231; total alarms, 1,159. For the same year, we find that the number of fires in New York was 342; false alarms, 215; total, 557. The number of fires in New York was thus something above one-third, and the number of alarms about one-half as many as in London. For the last year (1855) the number of fires in New York was 337—which, considering the growth of the city in a quinquenniad, is evidence that the fire evil with us is not incurable, and that a continuation and extension of the preventive measures which have produced this comparative decline, is capable of effecting yet better results.

The number of buildings of all kinds in London, at the time specified, was about 300,000. The number in New York, not far from 50,000. The proportion of fires to buildings was therefore, in each city, as follows:—

In London, 1 fire to every	323 buildings.
New York	146 "
London, 1 alarm to every	258 "
New York	90 "
London, 3 fires and 4 other alarms to	1,000 "
New York, 7 fires and 11 other alarms to.....	1,000 "

So that there were above twice as many fires in New York as in London among any given number of buildings—or, in other words, every building in New York had three times the probability of being destroyed or injured by fire that a building in London had. But the aspect is yet more against New York. Of the number reported as real fires in London, it appears there were—

Extinguished by the inmates of the premises without external aid..	270
“ by the inmates, assisted by casual voluntary aid.....	398
“ by others than firemen.....	668
“ by the firemen, only.....	260
Total.....	928

Of the number of reported fires in London it appears, therefore, that only about 28 per cent were such as to require the services of the Fire Department; while of the reported fires in New York, the engines were undoubtedly on the ground in every instance, and in nearly or quite every one of them, were employed. The case, then, stands thus:—

Fires demanding service of Fire Department in London	260
“ “ “ “ “ New York.....	342
Giving, in London, 1 fire to buildings	1,538
“ New York, 1 fire to buildings	146
Fires in London in 10,000 buildings	6½
“ New York in 10,000 buildings.....	60

Besides this great disparity in point of number, it must be borne in mind that the fires in New York are generally far more destructive than those in London. Several buildings, and even a whole block, frequently fall before a conflagration in the former city, while such an extent of destruction is very rare in the latter. The greater portion of the cases put down in the London report, would have received no notice whatever in New York, viz., the whole body of instances in which the aid of the Department was not called for.

The causes which make fire so much more active an agent of destruction in New York than in London are, in some degree, unavoidable—peculiarities, mainly, of the material organization of the city, which, if they might once have been avoided, it is too late to remedy now. But these causes are the lesser number. The great majority do admit of remedy, and demand increased effort to effect that end.

In the first place, New York is generally far more compactly built than London. In the business sections of the city the value of ground is so high that every available square inch is made use of for building purposes. The *sides* of the squares being all occupied, the work is continued in the centers, as yards are superfluities that cannot be tolerated where land can be put to so much more profitable use. The cheapness of locomotion within the city, by railway and omnibus, seems not in the least to limit this disposition for hiding the earth and shutting out the light. So rigid is this economy of land, that buildings are despoiled of proportion, convenience, and strength, in order that odd corners may not escape the highest possible rent production. Looking over one of the most crowded of these squares from the top of one of its tallest buildings, it is amusing to notice the complexity of shapes. There are houses triangular and quinquangular—houses sexagonal, septagonal, and octagonal—and piles, of shapes indescribable, if shapes they may "be called, that shape have none." There are angles so very acute, that a dirk-blade would appear to have furnished the ground-plan of the buildings. A shingling hatchet might have answered the same purpose for others. You would think the inner houses built without, and forced in from above by enormous spiledrivers. The dark, narrow entrances to these inner buildings seem like holes burrowed through the brick walls by the imprisoned occupants, in the attempt to escape.

For the same reason that the buildings are so densely packed, they are also, in the business sections, built very high, and, where possible, very deep. Story is placed upon story, as if the purpose were to put the utmost tax upon the supporting power of the earth, and to make money out of the strength of her ribs. Buildings of six, seven, and eight stories are frequent, and there are some of nine and ten stories height. In many parts of the city, a structure of three or four stories has an exceedingly shanty-like aspect. Where there *is* a little court-room left, it is often devoted to a multariety of stairways and platforms, intended to accommodate individual access to second and third stories and to subterranean extensions, but obstructing, of course, the action of bodies of men, and the use of fire apparatus.

Another disadvantage arises from the irregularity of height in buildings. Uniformity is held in the most sovereign contempt. In all regarding the height of houses, New York is a city of inequalities. It seems to have been the object of every man to have his house of a different altitude

from his neighbors'. To raise a building of the same number of stories and same length of stud with a house adjoining, seems to be regarded as proof of the absence of all originality of idea. The firemen have not the advantage, therefore, of moving from roof to roof, or of entering one house via the adjoining house-top. When the wall of the taller house falls, the box crouching under its side, although it may have escaped direct injury by the flames, is very likely also to be metamorphosed into a cocked-up hat.

Compared with the plan of New York, the style of London is open and airy. The houses generally sit back from the street, leaving a tasty court in front, while the interior of the squares is devoted to spacy and convenient gardens or yards. The rear distance from house to house is always respectable. Access to the gardens is easy, and, to facilitate any necessary objects, a lane, parallel with the side streets, runs through the center of the square, separating the double line of yards, which, in New York, wherever there is yard room, always *meet*. The houses in London are also of a moderate and uniform height, the Cockneys having less of the ambition characterizing the New Yorkers, of "commercing with the skies."

Another most important difference in the building habits of the two cities, is in the material used, and in the mode of construction. In London, brick and stone are used entirely for walls; while in New York wood is still largely in use. In the former, there is a much less amount of wood used also in the interior finishing; scarcely anything is made of wood where less destructible material can be as well employed. Even the yard walls are all of brick. In New York, the high board fences of the back yards, where back yards exist, not only serve to obstruct the operations of the firemen, but furnish a vast amount of food to a conflagration, and help its extension from house to house.

The walls of houses in London are built with especial regard to safety against fire, as is not the case in New York. The chief walls are of a certain, nearly uniform thickness, according with the rigid requirements of law. The partition walls between different houses make a complete separation, and are so thick and substantial, that if one house is burnt entirely out, the adjoining one on either side is seldom injured. It is very rare that above one tenement is destroyed at a time. There are official inspectors, whose business it is to go about the city examining all the new walls in progress of erection, and keeping an eye on the condition also of all the old buildings. Any new wall found in the slightest degree wanting in the requisite thickness and stability, though the house be entirely finished, and whatever the expense involved, must be torn down. Any building, too, that has by injury or age become unsafe, they order repaired, or if not deemed capable of repair, to be taken down. They see also that the floors are sufficiently firm to support any weight they may be required to bear.

In New York, hitherto all these matters have been beyond the regulation of law, or whatever law existed has not been administered. Politicians have had too much to do in attending to party clique and individual concerns, to attend to matters of public interest. House walls are put up according to private ideas of economy, both as to money and space, (of both which the builder has often great deficiency and as often a needless stingency,) and the hurry for use or rent. The evil of thin walls is made

greater by the great height and width often given to them. Inferior materials and bad work too frequently add to the dangers of this style of building. The contractor, sub-contractors, and all the petty jobbers employed, are actuated by the same conscienceless greed of saving and gain as the owner. How often is the crime of such building exposed by the falling of unfinished or newly erected houses, or a collapse at barely the touch of fire, after standing long enough to raise an undeserved confidence in their stability!

Walls like those described, warp with a moderate heat; or the floors burning through, they are unable to uphold themselves on losing the support of the floor timbers; or they are wrecked by the jar of a falling safe, a printing press, or other heavy weight. The evil is aggravated by the use of iron pillars, so common in store fronts, which are so easily expanded and warped by the heat. Thus is complete ruin effected, where, often, a properly constructed building would receive a very limited damage. The thinness of the partition walls, even if those do not fall also, enables the fire to penetrate from house to house, and thus are often kindled extensive conflagrations, where no more than one building, at most, should have been destroyed. The Legislature of New York State, in the session lately closed, is deserving of gratitude for the attempt it made to guard against these abuses in building hereafter in this city; and if the statute directed to that end shall in any considerable degree effect its object, that much berated body will not leave behind an altogether inglorious memory.

A good deal of care has of late years been exercised in the provision of *fire-proof* security in public buildings, bank edifices, various sorts of offices, and in some of the more considerable stores. But so far is this precaution from becoming general, that no people on earth are so negligent on this point, generally, as the New Yorkers. Among the fire-raising evils freely tolerated, are, the improper construction and arrangement of furnaces, &c., in manufacturing establishments—the use of miserably contrived apparatus for conveying heated air, very general in the more fashionable class of houses—and an almost contemptuous disregard of common prudence in the condition and contiguities of stoves, grates, flues, &c., in the more ordinary dwellings. The dangers of the hot air practice, as it exists, are most palpable. Heat is conveyed in *tin* conductors, introduced generally within lath-and-plaster walls, and wood-work is often allowed in immediate propinquity to the heaters, flues and registers. Twenty-three fires during the year 1855, involving a loss of \$268,310, are attributed, in the Fire Marshal's report, to defects of flues and pipes. Of the 111 cases under the head of "accidental," and "supposed accidental," it is more than probable that a large proportion are due to the same origin.

While the people of New York have so much poorer safeguards in their fire-apparatus than the inhabitants of London, where all these things are, like the mode of building, under the direct inspection of government officials, they make a vastly greater use of the dangerous element. The climate of London is more equable, and the use of fire for warmth, is at all times much less needed than here. The poorer classes of New York universally indulge in the fire-comfort. It is, in fact, one of the few indispensable solaces of which their condition does not deprive them, nor limit to the mere use as a necessity. In some of the denser localities of New York, which are much more crowded than any portion of London, there

are often twenty to forty, and in some cases even above *one hundred* families squeezed into a single house—and each of these families usually has its own fire for culinary uses and for comfort, almost as perpetual as the sacred flame of the Ghebers. What an aggregate mass of fire is kept burning in these hives! A very large proportion of these people, too, are as free in the use of *rum* as they are of fire, and having little of their own to lose, and an aversion, generally, to care and system, would not be supposed likely to exercise any peculiar supervision over their narrow hearths, defective stoves and ash receptacles, the latter often being barrels, or other articles of wood.

To the corresponding classes of London, fire, as a luxury, is almost unknown. In the houses of many even of the better circumstanced, fire is seldom or never kindled, except in the cold season. Most people in London go regularly to the eating-houses for coffee, tea, soup, bread, &c., or if they prefer making up their own edibles at home, have them, still, cooked at the baker's. Thus the whole of the warm season may pass without fire being used in the dwelling. When fires are needed, coal is the only fuel used, and is consumed in a small grate, with a regard of economy that would quite astonish our people. Stoves are unknown, and there are no defective flues and pipes resting against wood-work. The coal is of a bituminous nature, and badly fouls the chimney, which is therefore quite likely to take fire; but the chimney being sound, and its connections guarded, very little damage results from this cause. What would be the effect of a general use of *bituminous coal* in New York?

Lights are also a luxury in which everybody in New York freely indulges, while to half the population of London they are almost a thing forbidden. The mode of construction, before described, necessitates, in many of the stores and dwellings of New York, the use of artificial lights during a considerable portion of the *day*. There are many occupied rooms where never a cheerful ray of morning, and scarcely a glimmer of the strong glare of noon-day penetrates. Among the materials freely used for the purpose of illumination, in New York, modern invention has supplied some highly inflammable and explosive substances, which are exceedingly dangerous in the most careful hands. Camphene should be utterly banished by law. Even gas, which, with good pipes and a very moderate care, would be the safest of all means of artificial light, is, by neglect in these respects, made a very considerable source of danger. The Marshal mentions gas-leakage among the prominent causes of fire, and his reports for 1855 show the occurrence of thirteen fires (though involving no very heavy loss) occasioned by gas-lights in show-windows.

The forms of that *carelessness* so abundantly indicated in the foregoing remarks, to which the great fire-suffering is in such vast proportion due, are legion. The want of judicious care is with us a positive disease. The air that envelops the city is scarcely more diffused than this pestiferous habit. Nor is this negligence, as might be thought, most rank among the unpropertied portion of the population. To do them justice they are the most careful. After all the provocatives of combustion among the residences of the great class of the *compressed*, the proportion of fires with them is smaller than with those who are considered to have stronger motives to prudence, and a better preventive condition. If the poor were as careless as others, it would seem that the city must be utterly destroyed. Outside of their honey-comb of a hundred thousand fire-holes and the

hundred thousand adjuncts of light, heedlessness is an all-comprehending spirit. It pervades alike the people and their government. Everybody has for years made the remark to everybody, when speaking of our government, that the miasma of neglect has settled like a dense fog upon every branch of the municipal establishment—not merely obstructing from the eyes of benevolent officials the view of public interests, but diffusing from the Park (intermixed with the odor of sycamore, buttonwood and pine) an influence compared with which the malaria engendered in the festering cribs of vice, is invigorating and wholesome. But the egg of this great distemper was not laid by officialism. Though the vulture leads forth the brood, it was maternized by the eagle. The great self-complacent public—the primary institutors and conservators of habits—the grand reservoir of sovereignty—is the parent and patron of the ill-favored monster—Neglect. The hideous child is its pet and plaything, and if it go up and sit upon the table where the business of the city lies in council, who shall expect the people's delegates to expel the people's favorite. Representative government must be the reflection of the paramount administration. Let an inattentive populace change its statutory forms and its representatives as often as it will, each new organism will be a faithful daguerreotype of its own negligence.

The business public—the refined and the every-day public—the reading and active public—the public which is conscious of its own publicity, as distinguished from the inaccessible public, or rabble—is the great party of responsibilities. Upon its shoulders rests the culpability of all the abuses we have described. It builds and allows the building of houses in the egg-shell style—it neglects the means of proper access to the interior of the squares—it uses and permits the use of defective fire-apparatus—after bringing water to the houses it leaves it outside of them—it tolerates and encourages rowdiness—it institutes and supports a sham police—it upholds a government the reduced pattern of its own incaution and inefficiency—it leaves itself so unguarded that it may at will become the incendiary of its own property. The series of negligences perpetrated by this great Unconcerned is illimitable. Let us refer only to a few of the minor forms in which its carelessness regarding fire is exhibited.

Fire-works are allowed to be stored in crowded neighborhoods, as is not the case in London. There is a system prevailing in our warehouses and stores, that seems imitated from the inferior population districts, where all heterogeneities of people are bundled in steaming proximity. Mercandises are thus compacted, without regard to the chemical properties and mutual action of the objects mixed, and moreover, without better provision for accessibility in case of contingency, than is furnished to the inward parts of the squares. The result in both cases is often the same—*spontaneous combustion*. It is certain that many of the fires as well as the excitements of New York, are due to this cause, albeit credited for convenience sake with many other fires of which it is utterly innocent.

The conscious public smokes; the insensible public smokes a great deal more. But the insensible public puts its pipes in safe places, and keeps the fire in the bowl; the conscious public finds a crowded cotton warehouse the best place to light its Principe, and in a very business-like way knocks the ashes about among the bales. The conscious public would chat, and lays its cigar upon a pile of papers, and presently is astounded by a near alarm of fire. The conscious public throws its stump into a heap of

shavings, and wonders how the shop burns down. The conscious public shuts up its stores on winter nights, leaving *within* a "roaring fire" in the stove, while it has double locks to keep *out* thieves, an enemy of much less account. If the stock and store are reduced to cinders before morning, the catastrophe cannot, in the mind of the conscious public, be accounted for. Many other forms of carelessness might be named, in which, however, the insensate public has its share, but some of these are too obvious to need particular notice. and for the details of them generally, see chapter of accidents in the morning newspaper.

We have alluded to the common forms of negligence. There are cases of especial and extraordinary unconcern, or rather periods when the government and people of New York take positive action to afford uncommon license to fire for operation against their property and lives. Numerous anniversaries and other days of public rejoicing, are celebrated under the presiding agency of fire. Torch-light processions are a sort of weakness with us. We can never exult but through the loud throats of cannon. Political victories achieved and political victories hoped, events abroad and events at home, matters universal, national or local in their interest, all demand the magnificent play of fire. On the glorious anniversary of Independence, especially, the element is allowed that uncontrolled *liberty* which every just idea of the day suggests. Many days preceding the grand Jubilee are, indeed, devoted to fiery annunciation of its approach, almost as fervid as its immediate welcome. Puling patriotism is stimulated by all possible forms of juvenile pyrotechnics. Weak mothers and nervous aunts are kept in a perpetual fright, and strapping domestics in a continual scold. Children of man-stature are also at this time plethoric of powder and patriotism. The city fathers partake of the general spirit actuating their happy family, and exhibit their paternal regard by giving displays of fire-works paid for very roundly out of the pockets of their delighted children. Judging from the mode of commemorating its birth-day, the nation might be supposed a salamander. Not so much powder, probably, is consumed in London in a whole year as in New York during Independence-week. Look at the result. There are usually more fires in New York, by one-third, in July, than in any other month of the year! About double the number, generally, that there are in either June or August. Ordinarily, there should be less fires in July than in any other month. In London, in 1851, there were more fires in seven of the other eleven months than in July.

If it were possible to exhibit a full statement of the real *causes* of all the inflammable distress of New York, the multitudinous forms and varying ingenuity of annihilative negligence would excite unbounded astonishment. The range of actual incendiarism is comparatively limited; but inattention brings to the work of demolition a range of device far exceeding all the boasted efficiencies evolved from the preservative agencies of order and system. The brilliant resources at the command of heedlessness must confound the dull plodders who follow the laborious routines of method. While discipline has but a few stiff turns, disorder throws out her fruits with a vicissitudinary energy forever tireless.

In regard to that portion of the fires which are of malicious origin, the work of people denominated *incendiaries*, New York has, unquestionably, a much larger share than the British metropolis. No other city of the earth has ever been afflicted to any corresponding extent with that strange sort of villainy, *proprietary incendiarism*. The reason is, not that the morals

of men owning or leasing property, or engaged in business, are lower than in other great cities, but because nowhere else are the opportunities for fraud upon insuring parties, and for committing, and covering in ashes the ruins of, a robbery of creditors, so convenient. The sharp-eyed firemen, heretofore about the only investigators, can, in most cases, judge exceedingly well of the origin of the call upon their services, but hitherto the chances of the proprietary scoundrel have been so favorable, that more than a moral conviction has been seldom attainable. The rigid inquisition of the newly created Fire Marshal has evidently had some effect in keeping rogues of this sort latterly in check, but the utmost vigilance and acuteness of this officer and his aids, can afford only a very partial remedy to the evil. It needs that insurance companies should manage their business with more prudence, and that a better system in business generally should prevail, before the abuse can be wholly arrested. With one or two of these gentlemen, it will be remembered there has of late been connected sufficient legal evidence to send them to a certain fire-proof building where their love of combustion is held in wholesome restraint. If the State Prison had its full due of this class, how many of its cells New York city would provide with tenants!

The element of non-proprietary incendiarism is, of course, larger in New York than elsewhere. A far larger proportion of its population than of that of any other great city, is made up of the desperadoes of all nations; and this great mass of vice being accommodated by the worst police system (not ignoring late reforms) of all Christendom, the festering amalgam has ample opportunity for developing its peculiar characteristics. Among the many established divisions of ruffianism, there is a class of professed house-burners, whose daring occupation is well shielded against discovery. Amateur incendiaries are also plentiful, who resort to burning to answer some occasional object, or simply to diversify their range of criminal exercises. The abundance of dark ways and alleys, where no other but natural gas ever penetrates, and oil, if it burns at all, serves only to render the darkness visible, afford fine opportunities to these adventurous people for lighting the streets after their own manner. The presence of honest *light* in these places—of corporation light—of that public luminosity which should pervade all the by-places and inundate all the retreats where dark thoughts cover themselves in the mantle of a genial atmosphere, would dim the torch of the noctivigant. In London, the brilliant jets of gas which illuminate every street, alley and by-way, make the man who *would* be an incendiary hide in fear; and the vigilant, the oath-regarding, the *real* police, (for such London has) keep such surveillance over the acts of all doubtful individuals, that they can scarcely turn without meeting the look of some lynx-eyed agent of the law.

The number of fires in New York, in 1855, attributed by the Marshal to incendiarism, was 46, and those supposed due to the same cause, 37—a total of 83, involving a loss of property to the amount of \$238,548. For the year ending May 31, 1855, the number of incendiary fires was 159. The decrease is due partly to the adoption of a proper investigating system, but more to the increased efficiency effected by the recent reorganization of the police. But there is yet far from the proper vigilance exercised for the detection of incendiaries. A very small proportion, only, of arrests are made, and most of these, through some defect of the judicial process in their case, escape. Out of 24 probable incendiaries, arrested for the

year ending May 31, 1855, all but three were discharged. The Marshal thinks a greater number both of arrests and convictions would be made if he were invested with magisterial powers.

Beside what is effected by earnest incendiarism, much is accomplished in half-sport, as the peculiar form of joke of that singular development within the Young New York, denominated Rowdyism—a mannerism of life almost unknown in London, or which, if in some degree existing, has not there been able to emancipate itself from rusty legal restrictions, and the fear of those devices of “old-fogy” ingenuity, parti-colored garments, granite bed-chambers and hempen nooses, against which *our* metropolitan fast young-manhood has so far established its independence. Let us *not*, in regard of any latent political aspirations we may entertain, be understood to accuse the hope of the city, its future rulers, its embryo aldermen and councilmen, commissioners and inspectors, its chiefs and clerks of departments, of any essential depravity. By no means. We roar as gently as a sucking dove against the faults of these. Their delinquencies are the offspring of no vicious animus, but are simply the incident of their exceeding celerity of movement. Every one here, surely, must be informed of that which the rude man of North America, unenlightened by a single daily penny paper, so well understood—that the high friction caused by rapidity of evolution, is a powerful incentive to flame.

The people of New York have one very excellent safeguard in the Croton water, running through all their streets, with numerous fire-plugs, with hydrants for nearly all the houses, and pipes leading within a portion of them. Yet, highly as they appreciate this advantage, they are in water-provision far behind London; for there, beside a greater number of plugs on the streets, the pipes are carried by the city authorities into *every house*, and into every *part* of a house devoted to a family. Water is thus at hand for every emergency; and for the extinguishment of fires in their inception, the facility is immensely superior to that afforded by descending five or six flights of stairs for water, as a great part of the families in New York are obliged to do. This is, undoubtedly, after all, the most important difference in respect of fire-protection between the two cities. The result, as regards London, is seen in the fact stated in the report, that 270 fires, or *above one-fourth of all the known burnings, were extinguished by the inmates of the premises, without external aid*; that 398 more were extinguished *by the inmates, assisted by casual voluntary aid*—two-thirds of the known fires being thus extinguished without assistance of the Fire Department. Then there are the *unknown* fires, (not thought of in New York, as even all the *known* ones are not considered noticeable,) supposed to exceed the known, all of which are, of course, to be considered extinguished by the inmates. So that, assuming the whole number of fires, of all sorts, at 2,000, for the year, 1,700 of them were subdued without alarm.

The success of the people of London in extinguishing so great a proportion of their fires before they have made much headway, although due, in great measure, to the facility of obtaining water, seems also partly attributable to another cause, worth some attention. There would seem to be a discipline of the whole London population scarcely existing here in the slightest degree. How else should the inmates, with casual help, extinguish four-fifths, or even a larger proportion, of all the fires originating within that city? In New York, if a very small fire is discovered in a

densely occupied house, instead of making use of the abundant force present, a general panic at once ensues. Those within whose immediate premises the fire occurs, may take care of it if they choose; all others seek only, by a general stampede, to effect the safety of themselves and the security of their property, and to raise a general alarm. Whole blocks are thus made the prey of a fire which, when first seen, might have been easily subdued. Are the cockneys really completely educated in a matter of which people here have not acquired even the rudiments? Or must we take a more humiliating view still, in conceding to the former a vast superiority in natural coolness, circumspection, and the instinctive perception of the means of safety in circumstances of danger?

The people of New York pride themselves on having an excellent Fire Department. So, in a certain way they have, or the city would not be yet standing. They have superb engines—the best, undoubtedly, in the world—manned by associations of men not merely active and able, but possessed of a most extraordinary zeal in their occupation, or rather their recreation, as they make a severe task. Still London has, at least for her circumstances, a *better* Department. She has very poor engines, of an ancient pattern, and humble in regard to decorations, with but few men to make up their companies. Yet the system is thoroughly *efficient*. The men employed have nothing of that rowdiness which characterizes a large part of the New York firemen. Such persons would not be tolerated. Horses are always kept harnessed in readiness for an alarm; and as soon as one is received, both men and engine are promptly on the ground. No such vast, gaping crowds are collected, as on the slightest occasion bundle together in New York. People rather walk from, than toward the burning building. The firemen have thus *clear streets*. The work is well done; the buildings are not needlessly deluged,—goods and furniture are taken the best care of. The firemen, it is true, are paid for their services, but the effect of this upon their efficiency would be supposed more than offset by the lack of that great stimulus which the New York fireman finds in the ambition of public approbation.

The destruction of life by fires in New York is, certainly, in the average, greater than in London. Twenty-eight lives were lost from this cause, in the latter city, in 1851, and that was an unusually large number. Half as many lives as this were lost, a year or two since, at a single fire in Broadway. There is an Association in London called the Royal Society for the Protection of Life from Fire, which is provided with convenient apparatus for effecting the escape of persons from the windows of burning houses. During the year 1851 this Society attended 249 fires, and effected the saving of twenty-four lives. The numbers and gallantry of our firemen, and the abundance of long ladders carried by the hook and ladder companies, supply in some degree the use of such a society, but do not at all supersede it. Women cannot be expected to descend high ladders with safety, setting aside the question of delicacy in time of necessity, and either they or children of any considerable size can be *carried* down only with extreme difficulty. The case is worse still with sick men. In the agitation occasioned by danger, even strong men may be unable to get down without falling. Life-protectors, therefore, by which a person, however weighty or helpless, may be safely brought down from a window of any height, with a company of active fellows to use them, are wanted in the city of New York. Why is it that the provision is not

made, but that everybody is too careless? The destruction of life among the *firemen* cannot be obviated so long as a vicious system of building is tolerated.

We have enumerated sundry effective causes for the greater fire-destruction of New York, and the less extent of the evil in London. What is the *causa-causans*? How did the *causes themselves originate*? We have an excuse for at least a portion of the disparity against us. There is between the two emporiums a difference of natural circumstances. London is the metropolis of an ancient, conservative empire, adhering with all the tenacity of the old to the fixed systems and things of the past. New York is the chief city of a fresh, radical, progressive republic, whose whole contemplation is of the glowing and unformed future. The one has exhausted its productive power, and must seek rather to preserve what it has attained, than to gain anything new. Whatever is to be done, must be done in a careful and substantial manner; for if injury is occasioned by doing otherwise, the loss will be slowly repaired, just as a sprain or sore is a more serious thing to an old than to a young man.

With the other, its *undeveloped* is its greatest resource. What has been done is nothing, except as the step toward effecting more. Our genius is purely creative, and while our energies are perpetually employed in fresh production, what has *been produced* must of necessity be left, in some degree, to take care of itself. With every man, the great question is how he *shall make* a fortune, and it is ever a very secondary one how he *shall keep* it. A fortune made, the great idea still is, how he *shall get more*. Time and labor are regarded too valuable to be sacrificed in so unprofitable a business as that of mere *saving*.

So we go on with our fast building and fast production, and in the universal haste, if fire takes hold of our works, it finds no impediment to rapid operation on *its* part also. But, then, what are these slight drawbacks to *us*? If half the business portion of New York is destroyed to-day, this day twelve-month may see it mostly replaced in a better style than before, and the city pushing ahead as if nothing of moment had occurred. If a like calamity overtakes London, although not deficient in bottom, it may not be repaired in a quarter-century, if ever. Rapidity of progress and nice conservatism are incompatible; only one can prevail at a time. Those who can produce swiftly will, in a proportionate degree, be negligent in the protection of the cheap fruit of their labor. Do not understand us to say that all the negligence induced by such advantages, is either justifiable or not to be avoided. There is an abuse of the condition, seriously injurious to its occupants, and New York, as we said in the start, has fallen into a most pernicious extent of this abuse. The evil has become too great. We must not foolishly imagine that the springs of our prosperity will retain their elasticity under an indefinite amount of pressure. We may make amendatory provision without stopping the wheels of progress, or devoting the time and expense which in old cities and countries are indispensable for precautionary effort and the improvement of their safety-systems.

Art. III.—TRIAL BY JURY IN COMMERCIAL CASES.

The first two paragraphs in the Constitution of this State, as amended in 1846, relate to the trial by our peers, and by jury. They read as follows:—

“SEC. 1. No person of this State shall be disfranchised, or deprived of any of the privileges secured to any citizen thereof, unless by the law of the land or the judgment of his peers.

“SEC. 2. The trial by jury in all cases in which it has been heretofore used, shall remain inviolate forever. But a trial by jury may be waived by the parties in all civil cases, in the manner to be prescribed by law.”

The early position, in our organic law, thus given to these two rights, is very significant of the estimation in which they are held, and the vigilance by which it is intended to guard them and make them perpetual. There can be no doubt as to their full force and meaning. And, apart from their intrinsic value, these declarations of right are invested with a peculiar interest on account of their ancient and respectable origin.

When Henry I., son of William the Conqueror, took upon himself the duties of an English sovereign, there were circumstances touching his right of succession which made it very politic for him to conciliate the favor of his Saxon subjects. This he did by showing a decided predilection for their old customs and laws. He accordingly granted them a charter, in which he expressly confirmed such laws of Edward the Confessor as had been approved by his father. “Besides this charter,” says Mr. Crabb, in his History of English law, “there is a code of laws which bears the name of this king, and was probably compiled under his instruction.” By one law in this code, it is declared that “every man shall be tried by his peers of the vicinage; and we wholly reject all foreign forms of trial.” By another law, the defendant had the liberty of challenging the jury. “By another law of this monarch,” (says Crabb, on the authority of Sir Matthew Hale and the author of *Fleta*), “which prevailed some time, judgment was given according to the decision of the *major part of the jurors*.” As these laws were, in most respects, confirmatory of Saxon laws and customs, we may look upon these two leading clauses in our Constitution not only as talismans for freemen to wear upon their hearts, but as the rarest and most precious memorials of Saxon liberty and wisdom.

Whatever preference there may now or hereafter be, on the part of individuals, for those modes of trial employed in equity cases,—where the evidence, as well as the law, is submitted to the judge,—such preference will be vain, unless concurred in by the opposing party. The law is organic; and no means short of another convention could be made efficient to change it. Nor is it presumed, that anything short of a radical and thorough revolution in public sentiment, could ever induce this, or any other State in the Union, to part with so interesting an inheritance, or one so intrinsically precious. It has taken root in our hearts. It commends itself to our best judgment. It constitutes a pillar of doric strength in our political fabric; and there, in all human probability, it will stand, till, for some inscrutable purpose of God, the great and beautiful edifice itself shall become a heap of ruins.

If,—and before the ink is fairly dry with which the preceding sentence

was written,—we submit an inquiry which shall look, at the first glance, indecorous, we hope the reader will pardon us: at least, that he will suspend his disapproval till we have had time to explain. The questions we submit are these: *First*, Is the trial by jury in commercial cases, and as at present conducted, right in principle, or useful in practice? *Second*, Is there any constitutional objection to removing the evils found connected with the system?

Whoever has had occasion to visit our courts of justice, or to look over the publication of their proceedings in the newspapers, must have noted how frequently it occurs that jurors cannot agree on a verdict. This cannot be a matter of surprise to any one who considers the diversity in the character of the minds of different men. But it is often a matter not only of regret, but of serious loss, to those who have the misfortune to be parties to the action. After a year, or more, perhaps, of harrassing care and anxiety in and about the suit,—attending court term after term,—hunting up, and keeping together witnesses, who are beginning to be fractious, and oblivious to facts for which they are summoned to testify,—after surviving all this, and praying to be soon rid of their troubles, be it for better or worse, their rights are finally submitted to the jury, whose foreman announces that they “cannot agree.” It is a sad and painful conclusion. It is sad and painful, for it is an instance of exhausted and fruitless effort to do justice between man and man. The whole machinery of a court of justice has been dedicated to this one object. Every branch of that machinery has worked in good faith. The witnesses have testified; the counsel have performed their duty to their clients; the court has listened to evidence, and instructed the jury upon the points of law. The jurors have done their duty to the full measure of their abilities, and have severally and honestly come to their conclusions. But this time expended, this labor performed, this attention bestowed, is all for naught. The labor and the time is lost, and justice, the sole object that was sought, is unattained. And why is this? What is this impediment that obstructs thus the smooth flow of justice in her accustomed and favorite channels? It is simply this: the inability of twelve men, who are differently endowed with perceptions of truth, and of facts from which truth is evolved, and who are differently provided with those faculties which man employs to work out conclusions from given data, to come to the same identical way of thinking, upon matters about which suitors and lawyers have been disputing for a twelvemonth.

Let us look for a moment at the practical working of this system, as now employed in commercial cases.

Plaintiff sues defendant to recover a debt. The evidence of the indebtedness is the defendant's note for the amount alleged to be due. Now, as the plaintiff's recovery depends on the genuineness of the instrument, he must prove it to the satisfaction of the jury. Suppose *one* of the twelve jurors thinks the defendant's signature not sufficiently established: what is the result? The plaintiff has lost his time and his pains. And this, because *only eleven* of the jury think, upon the evidence submitted, he ought to recover.

Take another case. A merchant has consigned his ship to a foreign port, and insured her for the voyage against perils of the sea. The vessel is lost, by one of the perils specified in the policy, and he looks to the underwriter for his indemnity. He goes to law; and his case is final-

ly submitted to a jury. There is *one* among the jury who thinks, from the evidence, that the ship made a *departure* from her due course, and that according to the law laid down by the court touching "*departures*," the underwriters are discharged. *Eleven* of them, however, thought differently, and that the merchant should recover for his loss. The consequence is, no verdict can be given, and the parties stand as they were.

There is no need of multiplying supposed cases to exhibit the frequent insufficiency of the system, as it is now practically working in mercantile cases. Merchants, and others, who have been brought in contact with its machinery, must, it is presumed, have had their own thoughts touching its utility; and, in the silence of their own reflections, asked themselves, "What is all this worth?"

A formal consolation may be offered to those who look dubiously for the promised fruit. It may be said that, as the rights of the parties are not affected by the non-concurrence of the jury, the case may be tried again. True, it may be so tried. This may be suggested as a remedy; but where is the security that it will be efficient? If, upon a new trial, with fresh and accumulated evidence, the jury act in perfect good faith to the parties, and to the public; and if they deliberate, irrespective of the fact that a former jury *could not agree*, then, we ask, upon *what grounds* can we presume on a greater certainty of their agreeing than their predecessors? This presumption, if it exist, must have some foundation. It will not be urged, we conclude, that the chances of a verdict will increase, in proportion as the jurymen of the country become wearied of the controversy. It would not be intimated that a panel of jurors could be shamed, or anywise coerced by public opinion, into an agreement upon a verdict. Again, it may be said that the parties will be better prepared with evidence. Which party? If both parties,—who, by the way, have fought so well that the bird of victory could not light on either of them,—go forth to repair their armor, and sharpen their lances for another contest, we can see no special advantage to one which the other does not possess. We fancy there can be no reason for presuming more on the second trial for a verdict, than on the first; none, at all events, that would be respectful to jurors.

The frequent inability of jurors to agree, in cases like those above mentioned, is a matter to be regretted, if for no other reason than that it is an obstruction to justice. To parties themselves, it must in many cases be seriously oppressive. The ways of the law are slow and onerous enough, even in its smoothest and least obstructed paths; but, with such an impediment in its course,—an impediment not absolutely certain, it is true, but one that is in any case very possible,—who can say, in a given instance, that justice may not be practically denied? We think there is great reason to suspect, that in this system there has crept some foreign element, which thrives only upon the virtues it destroys, and is destructive of the very ends for which the system was designed. We have had some lessons that we should not lose sight of; some that admonish us not to be too confident that justice will, even in criminal trials, be always attained. The ability of the present system to protect society from ruffianism, is not a proposition so well established as to make us altogether blind to its defects. But we wish to confine our views to commercial disputes alone; leaving it to others more skilled in public policy than we are to point out the evils, and suggest the remedies in our criminal jurisprudence.

The pre-requisite of *unanimity* for a verdict, being in so many cases a serious impediment in the road to justice, it may be very proper to ask how far it may lay claim to our regard, or to any protection under the Constitution.

Apart from any question for the present purpose, whether a total unanimity is an essential part of the English common law, and whether as such it was incorporated into our own civil jurisprudence, let us view it as a question of present policy in the trial of mercantile disputes. Many of those cases fairly bristle, as one may say, with contested points. It is not, in most cases, a single question that the jury have to try, but many questions. It is not sufficient for them to agree on one disputed fact, but they must concur in all. There is, doubtless, a desire on the part of every juror that they should be unanimous in a verdict;—and when the conviction of right is, (as it should be,) clear and distinct, the wish is that the eleven should concur with himself. If it be so, it is well for both the parties and the public. But, viewing this probability abstractly, from the consideration that these eleven remaining jurors are acting *as* jurors, the chances would seem to be rather against, than for a concurrence. It is not always an easy matter for a man to come to a conclusion in his own mind upon disputed points submitted to him for decision; and particularly when a mass of evidence of opposite tendencies has been pressed upon him. Is it strange, then, that *twelve* men so circumstanced, who are called upon to decide upon perhaps a half-dozen contested facts, should fail to concur on each and every one of them? But there is a way, it seems, to meet this difficulty. For when governments require a thing to be done, they always provide the means to do it:—and therefore, says Blackstone, if the jury do not readily agree, “*they are to be kept without meat, drink, fire, or candle, unless by permission of the judge, till they have unanimously agreed.*” To whatever degrees different judges may relax this rule, it is nevertheless satisfactory to arrive at the true theory of the law: and that theory unquestionably is, that however difficult it may be for men to agree in ordinary matters, a jury of twelve men *shall agree* upon the matters in dispute. Government is a shrewd calculator of the chances of a compliance with its laws. It has in this instance won peculiar distinction in adopting the maxim that, though jurors may differ at first in their views, they yet may be starved into harmony; and, though sworn to give their verdict according to evidence, they will become so exhausted by discomfort and restraint, that the stoutest conscience will at last come up, or come down to the mark. Verily, the means are adapted to the end; and it is but justice to the memory of those who are entitled to the honors of this invention of requiring unanimity, that its history should be known.

From *Crabb's History of English Law*, page 31, (leaving out the authorities referred to in the margin,) we quote:—

“Whether the trial by jury existed among the Saxons has, like many other matters connected with those remote periods, been a subject of controversy. From all the records that have been preserved from those times, it is clear that there was no such thing as a jury of twelve men sworn to give their verdict on the evidence offered to them; but it is also equally clear, that the decision of at least important points, was not left to a single judge. An example of a suit, as it was conducted by the Saxons, may serve to illustrate the matter better than any course of reasoning.

“At a county court held at Agelnothestane, at which presided Athelstan the bishop, and Ranigus the alderman, were present, Edwin, the son of the alderman;

Thurcilus, surnamed *Albus*; Turfigus, surnamed *Comptus*; and all the freemen of the county. The cause was between Edwin and his mother, Enneawne, concerning a parcel of land. When the case was stated, the bishop desired to know whether any one was present to answer for the mother of Edwin; upon which Thurcilus stepped forward, and declared that he would answer when he was informed of the matter in controversy; then three of the thanes, Leofwin, Ægel-sigus, and Thursigus, who were of the same village as that where the mother of Edwin lived, were commissioned by the court to wait upon her, and learn from her own mouth what right she had to the lands that were claimed by her son. Upon their applying to her she replied, with many expressions of anger towards her son, that he had no right whatever to the lands which he claimed; and added, that it was her intention to leave, at her death, all her lands, gold, garments, and whatever she had, to her kinswoman who was sitting by her side, Leofeda, the wife of Thurcilus, and to disinherit her son. At the same time she begged them to carry back this message to the court, and to beg all the thanes there present to be witnesses of this, her donation. On their return to the court the thanes communicated the result of their inquiries, when Thurcilus arose, and prayed the court to adjudge these lands to his wife Leofeda, according to the intention of Enneawne, the donor. All who were present did as Thurcilus desired; upon which he mounted his horse, and, riding to the monastery of St. Æthelbert, he caused the judgment to be enrolled in the Book of the Gospels."

This seems to be a sort of judgment record of a suit tried in a county court some time during the tenth century. It has not, certainly, much resemblance to the modern trial by jury. It would be difficult to give it any name, unless it come under the head of trial by peers. The litigants were freeholders; and it seems all the freeholders of the county had a hand in the matter. One of them, Thurcilus, acted, it seems, in a four-fold capacity, viz.: as witness, as juror, as counsel, and as party in interest. As we do not get much light in this age, let us proceed to a subsequent one, that of William the Conqueror. Says Crabb, (page 50,) referring to authorities in the margin of his history:—

"We read, in this reign, for the first time, of twelve men sworn to speak the truth on a particular matter. In a cause between Gundulph, bishop of Rochester, and Pichot, the sheriff, respecting lands retained by the latter which belonged to that see, when the suitors or freemen of the county court, awed by the influence of the sheriff, gave their verdict in his favor; the bishop of Baieux, who presided, suspecting their veracity, and the motive of their decision, commanded them to choose from among their number *twelve*, who should confirm it upon their oath."

In the reports of these two trials, we discover but little resemblance to our trial by jury; yet they do disclose one essential element in the modern system; that we shall not be judged in matters of fact, by bishops or judges, but by our equals or peers. In the first of these cases, *all* the freeholders of the court appear to have given their approval to the verdict. But there is no sort of intimation that this was essential. In the second case, twelve men were *elected* to confirm the alleged verdict. Whether that verdict was unanimous, or if so, whether it was accidental or essential, there appears to be nothing from which we can draw any inference. Rude as these efforts of our Saxon progenitors may seem, in protecting their natural rights, we may well regard them as the dawn of that liberty which we are now enjoying. In this early light, we discover no traces of the evil we now complain of, but on the contrary, we find the strongest evidence that the Saxon law never required, as a requisite to a judgment, that the jurors or freeholders should *unanimously* concur. We refer to the laws of Henry I., son of the Conqueror, wherein, (as we have before men-

tioned) it is declared that *judgment was to be given according to the decision of a major part of the jurors*. Here is the first positive evidence we have been able to find, touching the matter in question; either among the Saxons or Normans in England. And this evidence goes to show, that unanimity had not, up to that time, been deemed necessary, either in the Norman reign, or among the Saxons in earlier times. It was not till the reign of Edward I., says Crabb, that unanimity was made essential, or that any measures were taken to enforce it. To do this, "the Sheriff was directed to keep the jurors without meat or drink, until they agreed on their verdict." Here we have it. The declaration of a royal dominion over man's reason and conscience is here distinctly made. It was a good deal of a stride from these laws which left God's great gift free, as it was given. It was a bold step; but Edward was a bold and daring prince. But the high distinction of showing succeeding ages how the thing could be done up effectually, was reserved to Edward III. It was in this reign, says Crabb, that "more vigorous means were resorted to, to *compel* unanimity; for the jurors who dissented from the rest were committed to prison and deprived of meat and drink. In like manner the verdict of the greater part was *no longer* allowed, for it was held that the verdict of eleven was no verdict.

The only *color* of authority which we can discover for this innovation, is, in the institution of the grand assize in the time of Henry II. "This," says Glanville, his Chief Justice, "was a royal favor granted to the people by the clemency of the king." It was in fact no other than an application of the trial by jury to such questions as had theretofore been decided by battle. It consisted of sixteen men; and the vote of twelve or a majority of three-fourths was requisite to a verdict. "Hence," says Justice Christian in a note to Blackstone's Commentaries, "this may be suggested as a conjecture: that, as less than twelve, if twelve or more were present, could pronounce no effective verdict, when twelve *only* were sworn, their unanimity became indispensable." We may therefore infer that the practice of employing twelve jurors only, in the trial of a cause, commenced in the reign of Edward I., and as the necessity of twelve votes was still recognized, unanimity followed as a necessary consequence. This was settling the *practice*. And practice it surely is, and nothing more; for it relates to the mode of carrying out the principle of jury trial, rather than to the principle itself.

Such is the substantial history, so far as we can discover from approved authorities, of jury trials, and the modern English requisite of unanimity. From it we derive two pieces of information. 1st. That in the Anglo Saxon times, the only essential feature of the system was, that men should be tried by their peers; or if freeholders, by the freeholders of the county. 2nd. That unanimity was never made essential till the time of Edward I., but that on the contrary, one hundred and fifty years before his reign it was the declared law of the realm, that a *majority* of the jurors were sufficient to pronounce a verdict.

It is a consoling reflection that the theory of compelling the concurrence of jurors by imprisonment or restraint, or making unanimity a condition to a verdict, never sprang from the breasts of our Saxon progenitors; but that it is wholly and clearly traceable to the mandates of two arbitrary princes of Norman extraction. Both of them possessed of high talents for government, and both of them peculiarly distinguished for the severity

with which they caused justice to be administered. The latter of these sovereigns is frequently styled the English Justinian; and from his reign, according to Sir Matthew Hale, "the whole scheme of the English law, such as it now is, may date its existence." Not forgetting, of course, the important doctrine, that jurors may be restrained and starved into concurrence, and that the verdict of eleven jurors is no verdict.

Such appears to be the present law of England, and—must we admit it!—such, the law as recognized in this State. But as this doctrine lacks the chief requisite to that common law which we have incorporated into our system, viz: immemorial usage, we cannot perceive that it has any binding force, except such as may be expressly imposed by the Legislature. Our amended constitution says: "The trial by jury in all cases in which it has been heretofore used, shall remain inviolate for ever." *In all cases in which it has been heretofore used.* It does not say, in the manner heretofore administered. We cannot well see any objection to the following reading, viz: In all cases in which trial by jury has been heretofore used, it shall remain inviolate, *in respect to any essential common law feature in the system.* If this view of the constitution is correct, it would appear to be an open question of policy for the Legislature to consider how far a change in the present requirement of total concurrence might square with the ends of justice, and how far it might better comport with the true theory of our government.

Looking at the law as it now stands in respect to our subject matter, we are but little (if any) advanced beyond the period of Edward I. The jurors, after the case is submitted to them, are still in the custody of an officer. Their liberty is still restrained. Their personal comforts during deliberation are still wholly dependent on the mercy of the court. And for what? For the same purpose Edward III. would have declared for putting a dissenting juror in prison, viz: to bring about a verdict. This is the theory of the system; and as a theory it has undergone no change. Viewing it in its naked features and in its actual shape, what kind of feelings is it calculated to excite? It is only by separating the doctrine from the usual practice, and losing sight of the former in our familiarity with the latter, that our senses are not shocked by the monstrous principle which the system involves. What, *compel* a freeman to acquiesce in the opinion of another! First fasten an oath upon his conscience, and then lead him to the rack for the confession of his faith! According to the light in which we view this matter, we find no unction in such words as, "Oh, this theory is not put in practice." It is a sufficient answer that, whether practiced or not, the law is predicated on a supposed *power in the State to compel twelve men to agree upon a verdict.*

Whoever claims to have Anglo-Saxon blood in his veins, or values the protection of laws derived in many respects from them, will look with pride and veneration on the institution of trial by jury. And well may he do so. It is in itself a fortress of strength; the chief citadel, as we may say, in which civil liberty may intrench itself with safety. We love it for its genuine worth. We admire it for its venerable antiquity. Looming up in the dim distance of those grim old times, when moats, and towers, and battlements were built for use and not for ornament,—coming down to us through turbulence, conquests and revolutions. Encroached upon sometimes, but never destroyed; well may we conclude that it was founded in reason, and that it possesses virtues too precious to be lost. But there

is no danger of this. It is guarded well. The constitution and the hearts of the people will shield it from harm. Public sentiment is all right. And it is not impossible but the same public may, sooner or later, utter its *protest* against what it may deem a *perversion* of so beautiful a system; that it may draw a distinction between that which is essential and that which is not; that it may regard it as a duty, in its care for the tree, to cut away this cancerous excrescence that is preying on its vitals, one that not only disfigures its proportions, but poisons its fruit.

Art. IV.—SOUTHERN RIGHTS AND UNION CONGRESS.

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

As the time has arrived within the United States when the fanaticism of one section of the country has ostracised another portion for simply exercising the same privileges that were exercised in the days of Washington and Jefferson, under the constitution, when its meaning and intention were fresh in the minds of its framers, it behooves that portion of the citizens of this republic who are thus singled out for persecution and proscription, on account of the peculiar institution of their geographical division of our country, to rouse themselves and use their rights as American citizens, although a minority, against the tyrannical, oppressive, and domineering policy pursued towards them by a certain intemperate, inter-meddling, and fanatical faction at the North.

That this state of things does exist, and that the freemen of the South are thus debarred of their constitutional immunities, there can be no disguise. It is proclaimed by the polyglot voices of the sectional Northern press; it is pronounced by demagogues from the stands of political platforms, in inflammatory diatribes leveled with vindictive malice against the unoffending South; it falls thick as rain-drops into the ballot-boxes, induced by representations as unfair as they are false; it pours from the press, not only in the daily and weekly issues of public journals, but in essays, pamphlets, and novels, calculated to inflame the over-heated minds of the fanatical, and create unjust and bitter prejudices in the judgment of the more calm and temperate; it has created disgraceful disturbances even in the sacred temple of our legislation, by goading on the less guarded of our Southern citizens to acts of retaliation, out of which deceitful knavery and unmanly cowardice manufacture political capital, by crying out for freedom of speech, when their vituperation has exhausted the vocabulary of offensive phrases, and the shower of Billingsgate terms has been borne until forbearance has ceased to be a virtue.

So far has this political, traitorous heresy to our constitution and the Union been carried, that not alone have the press, politicians, and sundry societies engaged in this unnatural and fratricidal crusade against the South, but from the sacred altars of the sanctuary of God pseudo-priests of the Prince of Peace stand in their pulpits and launch *anathema maranatha* upon our whole Southern territory, and incite the outright murder of one part of our citizens by the other, with a frantic violence

that would be disgraceful in the leaders of a common mob, far less in the teachers and exponents of Christianity.

Therefore, as this state of facts exists, it becomes the incumbent duty of the South to take measures to correct this great wrong, and in so doing she will receive the good-will of all Union-loving men of the North, who do not desire to see one section of our territory imposed upon or trodden in the dust, simply because the inhabitants thereof do not conform to a school of politico-economical ethics insisted upon by a subdivided fraction of the people of the North.

These things force the Southern men to adopt a self-protecting policy; and they will secure to themselves and their friends at the North a social and commercial intercourse, to the exclusion of all sectional, fanatical disturbers of the peace and harmony of the Union.

From the foundation of our government, the full share of all the burdens of war and taxation have been borne by the South; but for her patriotism she claims no more than a fair share of a free government, which she has fought to establish and perpetuate; and, therefore, when a party seeks to disfranchise her of those time-honored rights, and place her under the control of local factions whose interests are in direct opposition to her own, the rights of self-interest and self-preservation cry out trumpet-tongued to the South to guard herself against aggression, not by meeting these hot-headed enemies of our common country with recrimination or a vindictive return of their continuous assaults, but by a high-toned, dignified, and constitutional rebuke, such as may be consistent with the nature of national laws and the elevated character of the true American citizen.

Rash and violent measures upon the part of the South would reduce her to a level with her restless, fanatical countrymen at the North; but the mass of Northern citizens ignore the action of these men whose ultra-radical notions conflict not only with common sense, but contradict the constitution. It is not the business nor the duty of the South to seek new interpretations of that ancient instrument, nor do they consider the peculiar institution of slavery a particle more dangerous or retarding to our political system now than it has been hitherto, when, as the world has seen, we have risen with it to the first rank of nations, and hold a position for maritime, military, and commercial power scarcely second to any country upon the face of the globe. Therefore it is that this assumed reformation of the South by Northern philosophers of a new and dangerous school the South does not choose to acquiesce in, and in maintaining her position she will be supported by the sound national men of the whole country, who are willing to permit the Union to progress in the same peerless march of prosperity which has characterized it since the days of Washington, Jefferson, and the patriots whom it may be supposed understood the constitution and laws of our country when they originally framed and enacted them.

The co-operation, therefore, of all men who are more devoted to our common country than to the dogma of pseudo-political economists, is cordially solicited; in our national family they belong to no geographical division, and while it is with honor and sincerity, yet it is with deep regret, that it has become necessary from this time forth that concert of action must characterize Southern men in their commercial relations with the North, as the only efficient means of counteracting the steady perse-

ention of the South that has taken place year after year, until it has become unbearable. Therefore must this peaceful but effective policy be pursued, by confining commercial intercourse to Union men, and Union men alone—whether they come from the North or the South—and to steadily avoid all commercial relations with such factionists as seek to disturb the harmony and happiness of our country. This operation will be silent but effectual; its course will not be marked by intemperate bluster, but as the quiet, wise policy of “men who know their rights, and, knowing, dare maintain,”—a course far superior to that of descending to bandy terms of reproach with our fellow-countrymen, but with a lofty dignity to single out our sincere friends, and silently administer a rebuke to our sectional enemies.

To this end, therefore, must action be taken in our great national commercial metropolis, that the contrast may be rendered distinct between the calm and dignified defense of the South by citizens of all parts of the Union, and the course that their assailants have hitherto and still pursue.

To this action, to which the South has been impelled, the cordial co-operation of our citizens of the North is earnestly solicited, and it is firmly believed that the result of such a decided but necessary policy will do more in a single year to adjust political disturbances than all the political platforms could in five years accomplish. The Union men have thus a remedy for these evils; their self-defense and self-protection can be silently and constitutionally exercised, and while they will assert and maintain the rights of the South, they will know but one United States, one Union—and upon the field of her flag write, in letters of light, *Esto perpetua*.

Subjoined can be found the Constitution and By-Laws of the Southern Rights and Union Congress, which are sufficiently explicit in themselves:—

THE CONSTITUTION AND RULES OF ORDER OF SOUTHERN RIGHTS AND UNION
CONGRESS.

To Southerners and Union-loving Citizens:—

After many months of counseling and consultation with, and securing the approbation of the conservative men of the North, and the undivided co-operation of the citizens of the South, composing eminent men and citizens of all sections that pursue the various avocations of life, from the humblest to the highest—

We are persuaded to lay before the country and the people the following suggestions relative to the formation of an institution not altogether sectional, but whose objects, motives, and aims are explained below.

The organizing directors deem it inexpedient to enter into elaborate details of the present situation, feelings, and popular sentiments, as they exist between the North and the South, because the unhappy condition of public affairs is too well known.

To ameliorate and interpose, we propose to establish a Southern Rights and Union Congress. That, as far as practicable, to benefit the Union men of both extremes in upholding and maintaining the laws and the interests of our common country.

Your attention is respectfully called to article 1st, section 2 and section 5, in the Constitution.

The objects of this Congress are: first, a business exchange, that those Southerners engaged in the coasting trade, the inland trade, dealers in cotton, sugar, rice, hemp, tobacco, beef, pork, whisky, fruits, merchandise, &c., with the

North, may have a place and opportunity to assemble after business hours, and advise and concert for future operations.

Such an association, then, will naturally force the "exchange" to be an "intelligence office," in drawing together the professions embracing all respectable classes visiting the city, afford unlimited facilities for general information, and with this collection assembled nightly in social and commercial intercourse, the trade between the South and the North must and will eventually be concentrated, and by degrees be confined, within the keeping and disposition of Union men and merchants.

It is an established and well-known fact, that the prominent characteristics of Southerners is to be social and communicative. That they may enjoy this national and domestic privilege here, we associate as brethren of one and the same family.

To guard against any impositions that may be practiced towards us as Southerners, we hold as our motto—"In union there is strength; honor and truth our cause; friendship and peace our standard and our shield."

Such, then, and such only, are the motives that actuate us in organizing and supporting this benevolent enterprise.

We will continue to practice and carry out the objects to be attained, with the full hope that our actions and honest purposes will meet with the approbation of all true patriots, States rights, and Union-loving citizens.

We, then, commend the following Declaration of Principles, Constitution, and By-Laws, to your serious consideration and individual support.

Respectfully yours,

THE ORGANIZING COMMITTEE.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.—NAME AND OBJECTS.

SECTION 1. This organization shall be known and styled "The Southern Rights and Union Congress."

SEC. 2. The object of the Congress shall be the maintenance of our Southern rights, and propagation of national principles, and a love of the constitution, laws, and union of the United States of America.

SEC. 3. In all proceedings the most profound respect is observed. We meet in friendship, transact our business with harmony, and depart in peace.

SEC. 4. The dispensation of this Congress shall be to relieve the distresses of our members, without distinction. From whatever region a Southerner may come, he can find friends and be protected.

SEC. 5. This Congress shall be open as a business exchange, an intelligence office, a resort for the professions, the mechanic, the merchant, the pleasure-seeker, and, above all, to equalize the commercial relations between the South and the North.

ARTICLE II.—MEMBERS.

SEC. 1. Any citizen of the United States may become a member of this Congress, after being proposed in writing, and vouched for by two or more members.

SEC. 2. Any person, regularly accepted, shall become a member of the Congress on signing the Declaration of Principles and the Constitution and By-Laws, and paying to the Treasurer the initiation fee of \$5.

ARTICLE III.—OFFICERS.

SEC. 1. The officers of this Congress shall consist of a President, (a native of the South,) to reside in New York city; one Vice-President from each of the Southern States; two Recording Secretaries, a Corresponding Secretary, a Financial Secretary, a Treasurer, and Sergeant-at-arms.

SEC. 2. The officers of this Congress shall be elected annually by ballot.

ARTICLE IV.—DUTY OF OFFICERS.

SEC. 1. It shall be the duty of the President, or in his absence one of the Vice-Presidents, to preside at every meeting of the Congress, in conformity with parliamentary usages. The President shall sign all bills and orders on the Treasurer for money.

SEC. 2. The Recording Secretaries shall keep a minute of the business transactions of the Congress, a register of the names of the members, as signed to the Declaration of Principles, a register of the visitors from the South in the city, their location and designation, and call special meetings of the Congress.

SEC. 3. The Corresponding Secretary shall, under direction of the Congress, be their organ in all communications, and shall file all communications received or sent by him, relating to the affairs of the Congress.

SEC. 4. The Financial Secretary shall receive all moneys, pay the same to the Treasurer, and take his receipt therefor; he shall keep an account of all moneys received, disbursed, or due to the Congress, and countersign all orders drawn on the Treasurer for money.

SEC. 5. The Treasurer shall receive all moneys collected for, or paid to the Congress; pay all bills or orders passed for payment by the Congress, signed by the President and countersigned by the Financial Secretary. He shall also, before entering upon the discharge of his duties, give bond, with two sureties, in \$1,000 each, to be approved by the President, for the faithful performance of his duties.

BY-LAWS OF THE SOUTHERN RIGHTS AND UNION CONGRESS.

ARTICLE 1. A quorum for the transaction of business shall consist of a member from each Southern State, or fifteen Southern members.

ART. 2. The regular meetings of the Congress to be regulated by a committee, appointed for the purpose.

ART. 3. All committees, except standing committees, shall be appointed by the President, unless a vote of the Congress otherwise order.

ART. 4. The standing committee shall be an executive committee, a financial committee, a library committee, and a commercial committee.

ART. 5. The executive committee shall consist of fifteen members from separate States, elected by ballot.

ART. 6. The financial committee shall consist of fifteen or more members, elected by ballot, representing separate States, whose duty shall be to collect money and procure funds to promote the object of the Congress.

ART. 7. The library committee shall consist of nine or more members, elected by ballot, whose duty shall be to devise such plan and take such measures as may be required to obtain the necessary funds to purchase a library and establish a reading-room for the use of the Congress, and also procure a convenient and proper place to locate and hold the Congress. The said committee shall have the general supervision and care of the building and all its compartments, with power to place the Sergeant-at-arms in charge, when the same shall be established.

ART. 8. The commercial committee shall consist of twenty-five or more members, elected by the Congress, residing in various States, whose duty shall be to regulate, advise, and influence the trade of the South, so as to confine the commerce between the South and the North within the keeping of Union-safety merchants and men. Said committee are invested with a power within themselves that these actions and proceedings may be recorded, subject to the use of the officers of the Congress only.

ART. 9. All members of the Congress of the United States assembled at Washington, and the Governors of all the States, are accepted members, with full privileges of membership, to the Southern Rights and Union-Safety Congress of New York.

ART. 10. Any member may be expelled by a vote of two-thirds of the members present, for violation of the rules or for any improper or ungentlemanly conduct, either in or without the Congress.

PROCEEDING.

By order of the Directors, persons remitting \$5 to the Corresponding and Financial Secretary will entitle the subscriber to membership, and a yearly subscription to the weekly organ of the Congress, containing official proceedings. Address

COL. WILLIAM S. RAND,
[of Kentucky]
NEW YORK CITY,

The Financial and Corresponding Secretary of the Southern }
Rights and Union Congress of New York. }

W. S. R.

Art. V.—THE LUMBER BUSINESS IN THE STATE OF MAINE.

BEING AN ACCOUNT OF THE MODE OF PROCURING TIMBER AND BOARDS, COMMONLY CALLED LUMBERING OR LOGGING, IN THE PRINCIPAL TIMBER REGIONS OF MAINE.

The Hon. JOHN C. GRAY, of Boston, submitted to the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture an interesting communication on the subject of FOREST TREES, which Mr. Flint, the Secretary of the Board, has appended to his Second Annual Report, laid before the Legislature in January, 1855. The most practical part of Mr. Gray's paper, or the part best suited to the pages of the *Merchants' Magazine*, is embodied in the following account of the mode in which the lumber business is carried on in the timber regions of Maine. This account was furnished by an intelligent friend of Mr. Gray's, residing in Bangor. It will be interesting to many of our readers, describing as it does the *modus operandi* of an important branch of the commercial industry of the country:—

“When a lumberer has concluded to log on a particular tract, the first step is, to go with a part of his hands and select suitable situations for building his camps. In making this selection, his object is to be as near as possible to the best clumps of timber he intends to haul, and to the streams into which he intends to haul it. He then proceeds to build his camps and to cut out and clear out his principal roads. The camps are built of logs, being a kind of log houses. They are made about three feet high on one side, and eight or nine on the other, with a roof slanting one way. The roof is made of shingles split out of green wood and laid upon rafters. The door is made of such boards as can be manufactured out of a log with an axe. Against the tallest side of the camp is built the chimney—the back being formed by the wall of the camp, and the sides made by green logs, piled up for jams, about eight feet apart. The chimney seldom rises above the roof of the camp; though some who are nice in their architectural notions sometimes carry it up two or three feet higher. It is obvious from the construction that nothing but the greenness of the timber prevents the camp from being burned up immediately; yet the great fires that are kept up make but little impression, in the course of the winter, upon the back or sides of the chimney. A case, however, happened within a year or two, where a camp took fire in the night and was consumed, and the lumberers in it were burned to death. Probably the shingle roof had become dry; in which case a spark would kindle it, and the flames would spread over it in a moment.

“ Parallel to the lower side of the building, and about six feet from it, a stick of timber runs on the ground across the camp. The space between this and the lower wall is appropriated to the bedding, the stick of timber serving to confine it in its place. The bedding consists of a layer of hemlock boughs spread upon the ground, and covered with such old quilts and blankets as the tenants can bring away from their homes. The men camp down together, with their heads to the wall, and their feet to the fire. Before going to bed they replenish the fire—some two or more of them being employed in putting on such logs as with their handspikes they can manage to pile into the chimney. As the walls of the building are not very tight, the cool air plays freely around the head of the sleeper, making a difference of temperature between the head and the feet not altogether agreeable to one unused to sleep in camps. A rough bench and table complete the furniture of the establishment. A camp very similar, though not so large in dimensions, is built near for the oxen; on the top of this the hay is piled up, giving it some warmth, while it is convenient for feeding.

“ A large logging concern will require a number of camps, which will be distributed over the tracts so as best to accommodate the timber. One camp serves generally for one or two teams. A team, in ordinary logging parlance, expresses not only the set of four or six oxen that draw the logs, but likewise a gang of men employed to tend them. It takes from three or four to seven or eight men to keep one team employed—one man being employed in driving the cattle, and the others in cutting down the trees, shaping them into logs, barking them, and cutting and clearing the way to each tree. The number of hands required is inversely to the distance the logs are to be hauled; that is, most hands are required when the distance is shortest, because the oxen, returning more frequently, require their loads to be prepared more expeditiously.

“ Having built their camps, or while building them, the main roads are to be cut out. These run from the camps to the landing-places, or some stream of sufficient size to float down the logs on the spring freshet. Other roads are cut to other clumps of timber. They are made by cutting and clearing away the underbrush, and such trees and old logs as may be in the way, to a sufficient width for the team of oxen, with the bob sled and timber on it, to pass conveniently. The bob sled is made to carry one end of the timber only; the other drags upon the ground; and the bark is chipped off, that the log may slip along more easily.

“ The teams proceed to the woods, when the first snows come, with the hands who are not already there, and the supplies. The supplies consist principally of pork and flour for the men, and Indian meal for the oxen; some beans, tea, and molasses are added. Formerly hogsheds of rum were considered indispensable; and I have before me a bill of supplies for a logging concern of three teams in 1827-28, in which I find one hundred and eighty gallons of rum charged; but of late very few respectable lumberers take any spirits with them, and the logging business is consequently carried on with much more method, economy and profit. The pork and flour must be of the best quality. Lumberers are seldom content to take any of an inferior sort; and even now, when flour is twelve dollars a barrel, they are not to be satisfied with the coarser breadstuffs.

“ Hay is procured as near to the camps as possible; but as most of the timber lands are remote from settlements, it is generally necessary to haul it a considerable distance; and as it must be purchased of the nearest settlers, they are enabled to obtain very high prices. From twelve to twenty dollars per ton is usually paid. When the expense of hauling it to the camp is added, the whole cost is frequently as high as thirty dollars a ton, and sometimes much higher. Owners of timber lands at a distance from settlements may make a great saving by clearing up a piece of their land and raising their own hay.

“ Some one of the hands, who has not so much efficiency in getting timber as skill in kneading bread and frying pork, is appointed to the office of cook. Salt pork, flour, bread, and tea constitute the regular routine of the meals, varied sometimes with salt fish or salt beef. Potatoes are used when they can be obtained. Now and then, perhaps, when the snow is deep, they catch a deer, and live on venison.

"The men are employed through the day in cutting the timber and driving the teams. In the evening some take care of the oxen; some cut wood for the fire; then they amuse themselves with stories and singing, or in other ways, until they feel inclined to turn in upon the universal bed. On Sundays the employer claims no control over their time beyond the taking care of the cattle, the fire and the cooking. On this day they do their washing and mending; some employ themselves besides in seeking timber, and some in hunting partridges, while some remain in the camp and read the Bible.

"They remain in the woods from the commencement of sledding, some time in December, until some time in March, in the course of which month their labors are usually brought to a close by the snow, it becoming too shallow or too deep. If there are heavy thaws the snow runs off, not leaving enough to make good hauling. If, on the other hand, it gets to be four or five feet deep, the oxen cannot break through it to make the path which it is necessary to form in order to get at each individual tree. The men and teams then leave the woods. Sometimes one or two remain, to be at hand when the streams open. I know one who last winter stayed by himself in the woods fifteen or twenty miles from the nearest habitation for the space of twenty-eight days, during which time he earned \$203 by getting in timber with his axe alone, being allowed for it at the same rate per thousand that the lumberers were in getting it in with their teams. He found some berths in the banks of the stream, where all that was necessary was, to fell the tree so that it should fall directly upon the water, and there cut it into logs to be ready for running.

"When the streams are opened, and there is sufficient freshet to float the timber, another gang, called 'river drivers,' takes charge of it. It is their business to start it from the banks and follow it down the river, clearing off what lodges against rocks, pursuing and bringing back the sticks that run wild among the bushes and trees that cover the low lands adjoining the river, and breaking up jams that form in narrow or shallow places. A *jam* is caused by obstacles in the river catching some of the sticks, which in their turn catch others coming down; and so the mass increases until a solid dam is formed, which entirely stops up the river and prevents the further passage of any logs. These dams are most frequently formed at the top of some fall; and it is often a service that requires much skill and boldness, and is attended with much danger, to break them up. The persons who undertake it must go on to the mass of logs, work some out with their pick poles, cut some to pieces, attach ropes to others to be hauled out by the hands on shore, and they must be on the alert to watch the moment of the starting of the timber, and exercise all their activity to get clear of it before they are carried off in its tumultuous rush.

"Some weeks, more or less, according to the distance, spent in this way, bring the timber to the neighborhood of the saw-mills. A short distance from Oldtown, on the Penobscot, there is a boom established, extending across the river, for the purpose of stopping all the logs that come down. It is made by a floating chain of logs, connected by iron links, and supported at suitable distances by solid piers built in the river; without this it would be impossible to stop a large part of the logs, and they would be carried on the freshet down the river and out to sea. The boom is owned by an individual, who derives a large profit from the boomage, which is thirty-five cents per thousand on all logs coming into it. The boom cost the present owner about \$40,000. He has offered it for sale for \$45,000. It is said the net income from it last year was \$15,000.

"Here all the logs that come down the Penobscot are collected in one immense mass, covering many acres, where is intermingled the property of all the owners of timber lands in all the broad region that is watered by the Penobscot and its branches, from the east line of Canada, above Moosehead Lake, on the one side, to the west line of New Brunswick on the other. Here the timber remains till the logs can be sorted out for each owner and rafted together to be floated to the mills or any other places below. *Rafting* is the connecting the logs together by cordage, which is secured by pins driven into each log, forming them into bands like the ranks of a regiment. This operation is performed by the owner of the

boom. The ownership of the timber is ascertained by the marks which have been chopped into each log before it left the woods, each owner having a mark, or combination of marks, of his own. When the boom is full only the logs lowest down can be got at; and the proprietors of other logs must wait weeks, sometimes months, before they can get them out, to their great inconvenience and damage.

"After the logs are rafted and out of the boom, a great part of them are lodged for convenience in a place called Pen Cove, which is a large and secure basin in the river, about two miles below the boom. From this cove they can be taken out as they are wanted for the mills below. While in the boom and at other places on the river they are liable to great loss from plunderers. The owners or drivers of logs will frequently smuggle all that come in their way without regard to marks. The owners or conductors of some of the mills on the river are said to be not above encouraging and practising this species of piracy. Indeed, timber in all its stages seems to be considered a fair object for plunderers, from the petty pilferer who steals into the woods, fells a tree, cuts it into shingles, and carries it out on his back, to the comparatively rich owner of thousands of dollars.

"When the logs have been sawed at the mills there is another rafting of the boards, which are floated down the river to Bangor, to be embarked on board the coasters for Boston. In this process they are subject to much injury: first, by the mode of catching them as they come from the mill sluices, the rafters making use of a picaroon, or pole, with a spike in the end of it, which is repeatedly and unmercifully driven into the boards, taking out, perhaps, a piece at each time; secondly, by the holes made by the pins driven into the boards in rafting; and, thirdly, by the rocks, and rapids, and shallows in the river breaking the rafts to pieces and splitting up the boards as they descend. These inconveniences will be partly remedied by the railroad now in operation, unless other inconveniences in the use of it should be found to overbalance them.

"The kinds of timber brought down our rivers are pine, spruce, hemlock, ash, birch, maple, cedar, and hackmatack. Far the greater part of it is pine. The lumberers make about six kinds of pine, though they do not agree exactly in the classification or in the use of some of the names. The most common division is into pumpkin pine, timber pine, sapling, bull sapling,* Norway and yellow, or pitch pine. The pumpkin pine stands pre-eminent in the estimation of the lumberers, because it is the largest tree, and makes fine, large, clear boards. They are soft and of a yellowish cast. The timber pine and saplings are the most common. The former is generally preferred, as being larger and more likely to be sound; yet the saplings are said to make the harder and more durable boards. The common sapling grows in low lands, generally very thick, but much of it is apt to be rotten. The bull sapling is larger and sounder, grows on higher land, and is mixed with hard wood. The Norway pine † is a much harder kind of timber than the others. It is seldom sawed into boards, though it makes excellent floor boards, but is generally hewn into square timber. In the Provinces it bears a higher price than the others. There is not much of it brought to market, and it is not very abundant in the woods. The yellow pine is very scarce, if to be found at all, in that region.

"I will conclude with some remarks upon the different modes of operating made use of by owners of timber. These are three. One is, for the owner to hire his men by the month, procure teams, and furnish them with equipments and supplies, A second is, to agree with some one or more individuals to cut and haul the timber, or cut, haul, and run it, at a certain price per thousand feet. The third way is, to sell the *stumpage* outright; that is, to sell the timber standing.

"The first mode is seldom adopted unless the owner of the timber is likewise a lumberer, and intends to superintend the business himself. The second mode is very common. It is considered the most saving to the owners, because the lumberer has no inducement to select the best timber and leave all that is not of the first quality; to cut down trees and take a log, and leave others to rot that are not

* All the kinds here named, with the exception of the last two, are varieties of white pine.

† This pine is called also red pine, from the color of its bark.

quite so good, but which may be well worth hauling. Its inconveniences are, that, as the object of the lumberer is to get as large a quantity as possible, he will take trees that are not worth as much as the cost of getting them to market, and which, besides being of little value themselves, render the whole lot less saleable by the bad appearance they give it. The owner, too, is subject to all the losses that may happen in running the logs down the river. Very frequently he is obliged to make one contract to have the timber cut and hauled to the landing-places, and another to have it run down; for the river drivers are a distinct class from the lumberers. Most of them, indeed, are lumberers; yet it is but a small part of the lumberers that are river drivers. A great part of the lumberers are farmers, who must be on their farms at the season of driving, and therefore cannot undertake anything but the cutting and hauling. They are paid for the number of thousand feet they deposit at the landing-places; and the logs being surveyed, or scaled, as they are hauled, their object is to get as many thousand as possible on the landing-places; while the river drivers may be very careless about getting them all down, and the owner may never receive the whole quantity he has paid for cutting and hauling. In operating in this mode, the owner usually furnishes the supplies, provisions, &c., and the lumberer procures the teams and hires the men. The owner commonly does not bind himself to pay before the logs get to market, and he frequently makes a contract for his supplies on the same condition; in which case he has to pay from twenty-five to thirty-three per cent more for his goods than he would dealing on cash or common credit. Sometimes, when there is no freshet, the logs do not get down until the second year; and then the trader and lumberer both suffer for want of their pay.

“The third mode is the simplest and easiest for the owner. He avoids all trouble of furnishing supplies, of watching the timber on the river, and looking out for a market. But he must have a man of some capital to deal with, as he furnishes his own teams and supplies, and pays his men, receiving very heavy advances. The purchaser of it has no interest to cut the timber sparingly, and he sometimes makes dreadful havoc among the trees, leaving a great deal of valuable stuff on the ground to rot. And if he selects only the best trees in a berth, much of the timber left standing may be lost, because no one will afterwards want to go into that berth from which all the best trees have been culled. It is common now, in all large concerns, for the owner to employ a man to pass the winter in the camps, living alternately at one or another, for the purpose of scaling the logs, keeping a correct account of them, and seeing that the timber is cut according to the contract. But, after all, there is always found to be a considerable difference between timber cut by the thousand and that which is cut on stumpage.

“Each mode has its troubles; but I think that owners at a distance will manage their concerns with least vexation by selling the stumpage, provided that they have honest men to deal with.”

The public attention is of late, we hope, more alive than it has been to the value of our forests, to the necessity of economizing what yet remains of these rich national treasures, and of replacing what has been so carelessly wasted. This necessity is every day making itself more manifest. Fuel has already become scarce in our sea ports, or rather on our whole sea coast—a fact worthy the serious consideration of those who reflect that the sufferings of the poor from the want of this article are probably greater than from all other causes united.

Art. VI.—UNIFORM SYSTEM OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

THE *London Journal of Commerce*, which takes credit for having originated and pressed continuously upon public notice in England, the readjustment of weights, measures, and moneys, makes the following statements on a subject of equal interest to the mercantile community in the United States:—

There are certain subjects of grave importance in a commercial and general point of view, which, however appreciated and considered desirable, require careful discussion and a suitable moment for their introduction, legislation, and uniform adoption. One of the most important of these subjects, viewed in its universal bearings upon the tradal interests of the world, is a uniform system of weights and measures. This is a matter which, though thrown somewhat in the back-ground by the urgent affairs of war, has not been altogether lost sight of by commercial men and the leading scientific professors of various nations. Mr. J. B. Smith has given notice of his intention, on an early day, to move an address, praying her Majesty to invite a congress of representatives of all nations, to meet at a convenient place, for the purpose of considering the practicability of adopting one common standard of weights, measures, and coinage. The progress of the world in unanimity of feeling and reciprocity of commercial relations is especially marked by its disinterested and patient attention to the elucidation and careful consideration of these very important questions of general applicability to all nations.

The International Association for the Uniformity of Weights, Measures, and Money, which recently assembled at Paris, is slowly but surely effecting its objects, and achieving results which will hereafter be of the utmost importance to reciprocal trade and the more enlarged interchange of commerce. The Permanent International Committee now comprises influential and intelligent members from Portugal, Mexico, England, the United States, Austria, and France. Sweden, Belgium, and other countries are also working in the common cause. The press of every nation has been requested to consider—first, the question of unity in the denomination of moneys; secondly, unity of standard; and, thirdly, unity of weights and measures of all kinds, whether economical or scientific.

In the *Journal of Commerce*, on the 11th and 25th June, 1854, and on the 21st April, 1855, will be found articles strongly advocating the reform of our metrical and ponderal system, and the adoption of some uniform and universally approved unity of weights and measures for general adoption.

The Prussian government has recently again laid before the two Houses its former measure for introducing the 1 lb. weight, which is in vogue throughout all the metrical calculations of the Zollverein, into the Prussian States. At present the Prussian pound differs from the Zollverein pound by about 1 oz., or 1-16th. There is also a lively agitation going on among those connected with trade on a large scale, as to the method of dividing the pound—whether into 32 loths, or half ounces, as at present, or into 30 parts, corresponding to the 30 groschens in a thaler, or into 100, as is the case in many other States of the continent. Decimal weights, or the net 100 lbs., should be introduced generally, so that calculations may all go in arithmetical progression. Our present division of cwts., qrs., lbs., is an old fashioned, clumsy, inconvenient absurdity, that should be forthwith abolished.

No two countries have the same weights and measures, though the same name to designate them may be used in many countries. Take the mile measure, for instance. In England and the United States, a mile means 1,760 yards; in the Netherlands it is 1,093 yards; while in Germany it is 10,120 yards, or nearly six English miles; in France it is 3,025 yards. The Scotch mile is 1,984 yards, and the Irish, 2,038 yards; the Spanish mile is 2,472 yards, and the Swedish mile, 11,700 yards.

These are computed in English yards; but the yard itself, of three feet in length, has divers significations in different places. The English yard is 36 inches; the French, 39.13 inches; the Geneva yard, 57.60; the Austrian, 37.35; the Spanish yard, 33.04; the Prussian, 36.57; the Russian, 39.51. For measures of capacity, the dissimilarity is wider and more perplexing.

There is no necessity, however, for introducing the French metrical system into Great Britain and the United States, as with much less trouble and confusion a decimal system can be introduced on the established units. Thus the pound and the foot may be decimally divided without introducing the kilogramme or the metre, or, what would be the very sure form of the operation, a "usual" pound and foot, being respectively half a kilogramme and one-third of a metre, and thereby defeating the benefits of a decimal system of calculation. It is not a little remarkable that with a decimal currency system—acknowledged to be practically the best in operation—the people and the government of the United States have been content so long to continue the use of the antiquated scale of weights and measures with which trade has been embarrassed in England and its dependencies—the pound as the unit of weight, with its heterogeneous multiples and divisions, of ounce, pennyweight, and grain, of stone, quarter, hundredweight, and ton; moreover, occasionally duplicates of these, as the pound troy and the pound avoirdupois—the stone of 14 and the stone of 8 pounds, &c. Nor has the lineal unit better recommendation. Its division into feet and inches, and its multiples those of pole, furlong, and mile, are of an antiquity that renders them always cumbersome and incongruous, and, in the main, practically unsuited to the age. The revision, however, is not without its difficulties; and this, perhaps, is why something has not been done in the matter by the Americans, the continental nations, or ourselves.

Not only is there difficulty in obtaining a satisfactory standard of unity, but a very slight mistake, or the introduction of an unworkable arrangement, might throw the whole trading interest of the country into the greatest confusion. Mr. Whitworth, in his official report on the industry of the United States, justly observes that it is a matter of surprise, that while the people of the United States have long felt and appreciated the benefits of their decimal monetary system, the old English system of weights and measures has not yet been abolished by the Legislature. Its inconveniences are much complained of, and custom has tried to remedy its evident defects, to a great extent, by adopting the plan of reckoning by 100 lbs., (instead of the cwt. or 112 lbs.,) and by 1,000 lbs. Monetary accounts are kept, and calculations are made with the greatest facility in dollars and cents; the dollar (4s. 2d.) being divided into 100 cents (a cent $\frac{1}{4}$ d.) Convenient coins, called dimes, are in circulation, 10 cents being equal to 1 dime, and 10 dimes making 1 dollar. Quarter-dollar and half-dollar pieces are also commonly used. There appears no reason why a decimal system should not afford equal advantages if applied, as it doubtless will be eventually, to the scales of weights and measures.

In the application of a decimal division to our existing system of weights and measures, there would need the exercise of considerable caution. The adoption of such a system, however simple it may appear in the abstract, would nevertheless entail little less than an entire revolution in all the transactions of commerce, and, like all other innovations upon established usage, would have its opponents and its victims, as well as its interested advocates. But private feelings and private interests should not be suffered to obstruct the introduction and adoption of systems calculated to facilitate tradal operations, and to further the general interests and convenience of the public.

ART. VII.—MERCANTILE OBITUARY.

THE LATE SAMUEL W. OAKEY, OF NEW ORLEANS.

THE decease of Samuel W. Oakey, an eminent merchant of New Orleans during the last forty years, created a deep sensation in the mercantile and social circles of that city, and drew forth most sincere eulogies upon his public and private worth from all the press. He died at the St. Charles Hotel, (which for many years had been his home,) on the 13th of August, 1856, in the sixty-first year of his age. For many years he had suffered from a chronic disease of an internal character, that neither medicine nor the most skillful surgery could conquer. His sufferings were acute almost to the moment of dissolution, but they were borne with wonderful fortitude, and until the week previous to his death his counting-room never witnessed his absence.

He was a son of the late ABRAHAM OAKEY, of Albany, who for a quarter of a century discharged the trust of Deputy Treasurer of the State of New York. He was born and educated in Albany, but at an early age came to the city of New York to enter into mercantile pursuits. His business connections there were with the late PHILEMON R. STARR, and with CHANDLER STARR, Esq., now, at a hale and honored age, a citizen of Norwalk, Connecticut. Before reaching the age of manhood, however, he emigrated to New Orleans, and there resided continually, from the year 1819 to 1856, with only two short visits to the home of his youth.

Mr. Oakey was engaged in the dry goods business from 1820 until 1840. In the latter year, the firm of which he was a member suffered commercial reverses, when he entered into the business of a cotton factor, in connection with Gilbert S. Hawkins, Esq., of New Orleans.

The firm of Oakey & Hawkins, in both the branches of commerce above referred to, was, at the death of Mr. Oakey, probably the oldest partnership in New Orleans. Its name was known throughout the whole Southwest, as a commercial synonym for prudence, carefulness, high honor, generosity and popularity.

From the earliest period of his residence in the Crescent City, Mr. Oakey's diligence and spirit as a public man have been widely acknowledged; always foremost in every public enterprise with his name, his industry, his voice, his pen, and his purse. He was yet unobtrusive, careful not to wound the feelings of those who differed with him, and yet prompt to repel insult or offensive words or conduct, and never sought or held public office. He grew up with the city of his adoption, and his name and face became familiar to every old inhabitant and to each newcomer. Not less in the circles of the old French families than in those of the newer society from the East and West, was he a guest; welcomed for his urbanity, stately politeness, unbounded humor, and charity of intercourse. At the club or the opera, his musical laugh was as well recognized as was his vote or voice upon 'Change and in the counting-room. As member and officer of the Chamber of Commerce, as President of the Exchange, as conspicuous in many private trusts, as familiar with all the ramifications of Southern trade, as a profound political economist, he exercised through various eras of his mercantile life considerable influence in the business relations at home and abroad.

His hospitality was proverbial. Although a bachelor, and apparently wedded to commerce, his hours of leisure were never filled up more satisfactorily to himself than in the society of contemporaries and friends, or of the stranger of the day collected around his social board. Nor were his private generousities surpassed by his public spirit. Yet, while proud to display the latter, he was unusually reserved regarding the former.

There should enter here a secret chapter of his life, that the world of New Orleans, who *thought* they knew him, never has perused, and never will—one which, if fully told, would draw yet nearer to his grave the friends and associates who there paid the tribute of their admiration and grief. He was one of a large family—a family whose share of the world's profits were small. During a period of a quarter of a century, his purse, his watchful prudence, his worldly experience, his affectionate care, were lavishly proffered to all its members. One of them, A. Oakey Hall, Esq., the present District Attorney of the city of New York, is proud to remember that he owes his education and opportunities of advantages to his deceased uncle. Some men seek to hoard their worldly goods, and leave a high-sounding list of bequests; but Samuel W. Oakey was a merchant who loved to live unostentatiously, in the knowledge that his legacies of property were enjoyed while he himself was living to participate in the happiness and affection which accompanied. Mr. Hall, in a dedication of his volume of sketches, entitled "The Manhattaner in New Orleans," inscribed the name of this worthy merchant in sentences that sufficiently attest how suitable was the mention, both as regarded the author and the subject.

Mr. Oakey had many oddities of manner and temper, and peculiarities of prejudice; but they were governed by so much good humor, gentlemanly bearing, and true philosophy of living, that, to those who knew him well, these foibles became parts of his character which commanded respect and regard. But, owing to his large secretiveness, the great world about him were never allowed to look into the depths of his heart. Some of his immediate relatives, (and his partner, who was to him, both in society and business, a friend closer than a brother,) were allowed this privilege. They found within it great self-denial, veneration for truth and honor, jealousy of imputation, a love of early home and of kindred, as pure and strong and as secret as ever woman felt; an earnest regard for the feelings and welfare of others, and a strong ambition and emulation to fulfil all his duties of life agreeable to the dictates of religion.

He honored his profession. In his eyes, the true merchant was superior to all statesmen or warriors. He viewed the mercantile as the controlling pursuit of the world's affairs—as the most democratic—as giving the most equal chances of success—as one affording most scope for generosity and benefit to mankind—as one that always honored its disciple far more than he honored it!

He has left the ranks. The busy mart loses his name from its roll. But his example, his virtues, his revered memory survives. And so long as the Crescent City protects the true merchant, whose integrity, energy, and generousities in life honored *her*, so long shall the name of SAMUEL W. OAKEY survive in her commercial annals. And so long as the ties of his kindred hold together will the remembrance of his kindly tone, and beaming eye, and affectionate deeds, be treasured as the choicest secrets of a domestic temple.

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

ACTION TO RECOVER THE PROCEEDS OF A SHIPMENT OF GOODS.

In the Supreme Judicial Court, (Massachusetts,) November Term, 1855, before Judge Dewey. Francis Huckins et al. vs. Ezra Baker et al.

This was an action of contract, brought by F. & J. W. Huckins against Baker & Morrill, to recover the proceeds of a shipment of goods made by the plaintiffs in 1853, on joint account with the defendants, one-third of which, amounting in the whole (with interest) to \$4,288 10, belonged to F. & J. W. Huckins.

The defendants admitted the receipt of the said proceeds, but denied their liability to pay over the whole amount, because, as they said, two promissory notes, amounting to over \$5,000, signed by the plaintiffs and payable to the defendants, were still due and unpaid; they therefore pleaded these two notes in set-off, but alleged, further, that they could not produce the said notes in hand, because they were in the possession of the plaintiffs, who, the defendants alleged, had induced them to give up the said notes by fraudulent representations, and that though the notes were in the possession of the plaintiffs, by reason of said fraud they were still the property of the defendants, and only in part paid, viz., 60 per cent thereof; and the defendants claimed a right to retain as much of the plaintiffs' funds in their hands as would pay the remaining 40 per cent.

In support of these allegations, they introduced evidence tending to show that in April, 1854, the plaintiffs became embarrassed in business, owing about \$90,000, and entered into an agreement in writing with their creditors for an extension of time within which to meet their liabilities; that in consideration of this extension, James Huckins, the father of the plaintiffs, agreed "with the several other individuals, partnerships, and corporations, creditors of the said F. & J. W. Huckins, executing this indenture," to indorse the plaintiffs' notes, to the amount of 60 per cent of their indebtedment, payable (with interest) in 6, 12, and 18 months, and thereupon the said creditors agreed to take the individual notes of Francis Huckins, one of the plaintiffs, for the remaining 40 per cent, payable (with interest) in 24 and 30 months; that this was considered by Mr. Grant, one of the creditors who obtained the signatures to the indenture, an excellent arrangement for the creditors; and that the defendants, whose returns had not yet come in from California, became a party thereto, took the notes offered them, and gave up the old notes which they held.

The notes indorsed by James Huckins have been paid; the individual notes of Francis Huckins have not yet matured. The indorsed notes, which have been paid by James Huckins, amounted in the whole to about \$56,000. There was a loss of 20 per cent on the shipment to California.

The defendants alleged, that whereas the said indenture of extension provided that "all the creditors should fare alike," they had ascertained that some of the creditors of F. & J. W. Huckins had not been invited to become parties thereto; whereby the agreement was violated, and they were not bound by its terms; and to show this, they offered the evidence of Mr. W. Chipman, who had for a number of years prior to April, 1854, and for some time after, been engaged in joint purchases of goods with Francis Huckins, he giving his own notes therefor, indorsed by said Huckins. He testified that in March, 1854, Francis Huckins took a quantity of notes, amounting to over \$15,000, from that concern, which notes he believed were used to discharge the liabilities of the plaintiffs' firm, and had never been returned. No settlement has been made between Francis Huckins and W. Chipman, though they had settled with their creditors in or about July, 1854, at which time they stopped payment. It was further shown, that at the time of the extension aforesaid, the plaintiffs owed James Huckins over \$20,000, and that James Huckins agreed to give up this debt. He was, therefore, not included among the creditors. No part of this had been paid. At the same time

April, 1854, it was further shown that the plaintiffs owed their truckman, one Atkins—who had before done, and has since done, their trucking—\$2,050, which has since been paid. Also another bill of trucking of \$150, and a bill for wharfage of over \$100, and that Francis Huckins owed an individual debt of over \$500, none of which have been paid, and none of which creditors became parties to the said indenture.

On these grounds, the defendants alleged that they had been deceived when they signed the said indenture; that had they known that these other debts then existed, they would not have become parties thereto, nor given up their original notes; they, therefore, proposed to set aside the whole agreement, and, offering to give the plaintiffs credit for the 60 per cent of their debt which James Huckins had paid, they tendered in court the unmatured notes of Francis Huckins, given for the balance of the debt of F. & J. W. Huckins, and offered to give judgment for the balance of the proceeds of the California shipment, after deducting the 40 per cent and interest. They did not offer to pay back to James Huckins the 60 per cent; and the funds in their hands from California are not sufficient to have paid the whole debt of F. & J. W. Huckins, without the aid of James Huckins.

DEWEY, J., instructed the jury that the proof of the joint shipment and the receipt of the proceeds by the defendants made a *prima facie* case for the plaintiffs; that they were therefore entitled to recover, unless the defendants, upon whom the burden of proof then fell, should show a good reason for not paying over such proceeds; that if the two original notes had been obtained from the defendants by fraud, they might still be treated as in being, and might be pleaded in set-off; that the mere fact of all the creditors of the plaintiffs not having become parties to the said indenture would not of itself vitiate it, but it was for the defendants to prove that they were induced to sign it on that express stipulation, and that that stipulation was known to the plaintiffs to be untrue; that the evidence of Mr. Chipman did not exhibit an indebtedness by F. & J. W. Huckins such as was contemplated, because he and Francis Huckins were *quasi* partners, and that Francis Huckins took what was his own property, and that no indebtedness exists from one partner to another until it is made to appear on a settlement of the partnership; that it was for the jury to say whether the other debts, proved to have been owing at the time of extension, (one of which only had been paid,) and which were not included in the said indenture, were of such a nature as would entitle the defendants to complain of fraudulent deception, because of their not being included in the schedule of liabilities of F. & J. W. Huckins.

If the jury were of opinion that the defendants had made out the alleged fraud, they would rescind the whole contract, and return a verdict for the balance due the plaintiffs, after deducting the 40 per cent aforesaid.

If, on the other hand, they believed that the defendants entered into the said contract understandingly, and believing it to be for their interest to do so, they should return a verdict for the plaintiffs for the full amount of the shipments to California, with interest from the time when they were realized.

The jury found for the plaintiffs for the whole amount claimed, and interest.

OF THE MATURITY OF A PROMISSORY NOTE.

In the Court of Common Pleas, (New York city,) before Judge Brady. *Brown vs. Ryckman.*

This is an action against the maker of a promissory note. The complaint alleges the making of the note, that it has matured, that the whole amount is due to the plaintiff, that it was endorsed and delivered to him by the payee therein named, and demands judgment for the amount thereof. The answer first, on information and belief, says that the plaintiff is not the holder or owner of the note, and that E. F. Brown is the owner and party in interest. The answer then, secondly, as a separate defense, alleges that the note was given to E. F. Brown for services to be performed, and that the consideration thereby failed; and further in this connection, that if the plaintiff is the owner, he took it with notice of such

failure. The answer then, thirdly, as a separate defense, says that the defendant has no knowledge or information sufficient to form a belief that the said E. F. Brown endorsed or delivered the note to the plaintiff for a valuable or any consideration. The answer then, fourthly, as a further and separate defense, alleges that the plaintiff is an attorney at law, and if he is the owner of the note he obtained it for the purpose of prosecuting it contrary to the statute in such case made and provided. The plaintiff demurs to the whole of the answer, except that part of it denying the endorsement or delivery of the note by the payee, and for reasons set out in detail—but in reference to the second and fourth defenses more particularly that they are hypothetically stated. The allegations that the plaintiff is not the owner and holder of the note, and that E. F. Brown is the owner and real party in interest, create no issue and amount to a mere traverse, which is not recognized by the code. They do not deny the property in, and possession of the note by the plaintiff, and yet allege the note to belong to another. If these allegations were good, as a denial, they would be bad for duplicity. Each defense must be separately stated, and be an answer to the cause of action to which it is addressed. (10 Pr. Rep., 68; 5 Sand. 210; 8 Pr. Rep., 242.) Perhaps, if the denial of the endorsement or delivery was not set up as a separate defense, the allegations just mentioned would be consistent with it and sustained. As to the first defense, therefore, the demurrer is well taken, but different considerations suggest themselves as to the residue of the answer. I am aware that in several cases hypothetical pleading has been declared to be obnoxious, (6 Pr. Rep., 59, 84, 401; 14 Barb., 533; 5 Pr. R., 14; 7 Barb., 80,) and an examination of these cases shows that the peculiar form of denial allowed by the code has not received the consideration which it required. I suggest this with due deference to the learned judges who delivered and concurred in the opinions expressed in these cases. The case in 5 Pr. Rep. supra arose where a denial on information and belief was allowed. Those referred to in 7 Barb. and 6 Pr. Rep., were cases in which the hypothetical answers were as to the acts of the defendants, and presumptively within their own knowledge; and in the case in 14 Barb., Justice Willard, who delivered the opinion in 5 Pr. Rep. supra, also delivered the opinion of the court, citing in support of his views, among others, the cases mentioned. These decisions appear to be founded on a rule of the common law system of pleading, which required a plea seeking to avoid the declaration to confess directly, or by implication, that but for the matter of avoidance contained in it, the action could be maintained. (*Conger vs. Johnson*, 2 Wendell, 96.) Under that system there were but two pleas—the plea in abatement, and the plea of *prius darrien* continuance, which required a verification. The conscience of the party was not appealed to, and the pleader was not called upon to consider what his client could declare on oath, but what form he should adopt to place the defense on the record. But hypothetical pleading, even under that system, was not always condemned, as illustrated by Judge Woodruff in *Ketcham vs. Zerega*, 1st E. D. Smith, 553. The difficulty under which the defendant must rest as to the denial of what another did, which he cannot deny, being ignorant thereof, and which he cannot admit for the same reason, is not considered in any of the cases mentioned, except in the case of *Ketcham vs. Zerega*. The code has introduced a system entirely new. It is not an alteration; it is a radical change, and section 140 not only abolishes all the forms of pleading heretofore existing, but provides that the rules by which the sufficiency of a pleading is to be determined, are prescribed by the act. This leads to the decision of the question, whether under the code the answer of a defendant under oath may be hypothetical, and indeed whether it can be otherwise in many cases which may arise. The defendant in this case admits that he made the note sued, but he does not know whether it was endorsed or delivered to the plaintiff, and he denies any knowledge or information on the subject sufficient to form a belief which puts that fact in issue. Unless he denies the allegation positively, there is no other mode of reply. He has no alternative. The act prescribes the manner of his denial, and leaves him no choice. The denial is itself, in its own nature, hypothetical. He does not know whether the plaintiff is the owner or not, but if he is, then there is a defense, and

so he tells his story. It is a very natural sequence to the statement of his doubt on the subject, and that doubt, of course, he has a right, and when his conscience is appealed to, is obliged to entertain. It follows as matter of law, if the endorsement or delivery be not proved, that the plaintiff cannot recover; but whether it can be proved, remains to be determined by trial. If, however, it should be proved, and the plaintiff is right in court, then the defenses alleged are good; and if proved, the defendant must succeed. He cannot state that the plaintiff took the note with knowledge of the failure of consideration, because he does not know whether he took the note at all or not, and his oath admonishes him on the subject. If, however, the plaintiff did take it, then he took or obtained it under the circumstances and for the purpose stated in the answer. Thus it seems that the defendant could not place his defenses before the court in any other mode than the one adopted from the necessities which the new system has created, and had the alternative of admitting what might not be true, and so jeopardize his rights or brave his conscience, and assume to be false a fact alleged of which he was ignorant. This may often be the position of the defendant, in which his rights are not to be restricted, limited, or controlled by any arbitrary rule, not of pleading, but of verification, which is the true question in these cases under the code. Judge Woodruff very justly remarks, in *Ketcham vs. Zerega*, supra, and at page 560—"It may often be true that the defendant is wholly ignorant of the facts alleged by the plaintiff, and if so, he cannot be required to admit them. To compel him to do so is to do injustice." And again—"It is clear to my mind that the defendant cannot be required, as a condition of averring new matter, to make an admission of the facts alleged, which shall preclude him from denying them on the trial." For these reasons I consider the third and fourth defenses well and sufficiently stated, and that the demurrer to them was not well taken. It was insisted on the argument that the fourth defense was objectionable because it did not set out in detail the facts and circumstances of the procurement of the note by the plaintiff to sue. The statute before the code only required the defendant to give notice that he would insist upon and prove at the trial that the demand on which the action was founded had been bought and sold, or received for prosecution contrary to law, without setting forth any other particulars. (2 Revised Statutes, fourth edition, page 475.) Nothing more is now required, and the fact of the procurement is alleged sufficiently for the defense it makes. The judgment must be for the defendant, without costs to either party, and with liberty to the plaintiff to withdraw the demurrer if he shall deem it advisable.

CONTRACT TO DELIVER MERCHANDISE "AS EARLY AS POSSIBLE."

Cincinnati, April 14, 1856. Judge Gholson delivered an opinion in this case. The defendant gave the plaintiff the following written order:—

"Cincinnati, Ohio, November 8, 1853.

"I have given my order this day to H. W. Pitkin for twenty-five bushels of orange-seed, to be delivered as early in the season of 1854 as possible; said seed to be new crop, and good, and the price \$15 per bushel.

(Signed)

J. S. McCULLOUGH."

The action was for a refusal to accept and pay. One of the defenses relied upon was that the seed had not been delivered in the time required by the contract.

The question turned on the expression, "as early in the season of 1854 as possible." It was claimed on the part of the plaintiff that it meant nothing more than a reasonable time; that ordinary diligence in the early delivery of the seed for the season could only be required.

On the other hand, it was claimed that "as early as possible" meant something different from a contract to be performed "within a reasonable time."

It very clearly appears that from the nature and intended use of the article, which was the object of the contract, that time was a material matter. The contract required, and it was important to the vendee that there should be, an early delivery.

All that he would claim would be a readiness to deliver "within a reasonable

time." The same early opportunity by which he sent four bushels of the seed, which reached the defendant on the 7th of January, might have been used for the whole quantity. The balance not being ready for delivery until the 22d of February, I am compelled to say it was too late under such a contract as this, however reasonable it might have been in an ordinary case.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

CONDITION OF THE MONEY MARKET—COLLECTIONS AND PAYMENTS—COUNTRY SPECULATIONS—
MOVEMENT OF THE CROPS—STATEMENT OF THE DEFICIENCY IN BREADSTUFFS IN EUROPE AND
SOURCES OF SUPPLY—A HIGHER STANDARD OF INSPECTION FOR FLOUR NEEDED—THE STOCK
MARKET—LOANS TAKEN AND PROPOSED—THE BANK MOVEMENT—RECEIPTS AND COINAGE OF GOLD
—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR JULY, AND FOR SEVEN MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST
—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AND EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, &c., &c.

THE demand for money has increased, and the market has become more stringent, while rates of interest are generally higher. The collections throughout the interior, for money due at the seaboard, have been more difficult than usual in certain districts. The South has been prompt, every product of her soil having turned readily into gold, but the North and West have been sorely disappointed. Precisely what has made the farmers so poor it would be difficult to say. Everything which they had to sell has commanded a very high price, and they might have been well supplied with money. Two causes are assigned as the reason why they have held back their funds; one is, the hoarding of produce for higher prices, and the other, the general disposition manifested during the last year to speculate. Those farmers who had money, instead of handing it over to their merchant in payment of their debts, used it for a "little speculation." The merchant, who had collected some funds, was affected with the same mania, and instead of forwarding his cash in payment of his liabilities, tried the same experiment. Nearly all speculations of this sort have turned out disastrously, and have diminished the ability of all concerned to make payment of their just obligations; while the detention of the money has been seriously felt by those in the city who had counted upon it to relieve the pressure upon their own Exchequer.

The movements of the new grain crops are now attracting the most attention. The yield of wheat through the Union is acknowledged to be above the average both in quantity and quality. There are exceptions in particular districts where damage has resulted to the crop from local causes, but the supply in the country at large is greater than ever before reaped since its settlement. The downward tendency in prices, which for a while was quite marked, created some alarm, lest the value should fall below a remunerating rate; but this has been dissipated by the late news from Europe. The improvement of the harvest in England has not been so universal or rapid as to relieve all fears, while it is now settled that France will need an import from us equal to six or eight millions of bushels. It is true that the inundations occurred in districts not largely devoted to the production of breadstuffs, so that the damage to this particular crop from that cause will be less than was anticipated. But heavy rains in other departments have inflicted much injury, while from the scarcity of labor, and various other causes, the supply of breadstuffs in France is decreasing, and for the current year will fall below the average. Previous to the late war the countries having an outlet through the

Black Sea, have seldom failed to furnish a great portion of the supplies needed, while Spain has been, at times, a large producer above her own wants. For two years the ports of the Black Sea have been more or less closed, and the trade interrupted or destroyed. This year the channel is again open, and the grain fields have once more borne a fair harvest; but the unusual throng the war has attracted to that quarter, has drained the accumulated stock, and will absorb a large portion of the fresh receipts, so that the shipments to distant ports will be necessarily limited. Spain has a supply unusually limited, and is herself receiving shipments on her sea coast from this country; so that whatever her surplus may be in certain districts, she can have little to spare for her neighbor. France must therefore look to this country, and we are fortunately blessed with such abundance that, after supplying England and the continental states with all they need, and making our usual shipments to the West Indies, South America and Australia, we shall be able to supply all the deficiency in France, without diminishing our stock for home consumption so as to put up prices. Last year there was much damage done to the country by the fallacious hopes entertained by many of realizing "famine prices." This year, with a liberal stock left over, and an extraordinary abundance in the new crop, we shall be further than ever from the point of scarcity.

It is time that all who have the reputation of the country at heart should sound the alarm in regard to the flour manufactured here, that such stuff as is unfit for human food may no longer be sent to market, and sold as standard quality. Much of the wheat last year was poor, and this was held to be a sufficient excuse for the miserable depreciation, but that plea is no longer available, and it becomes all interested to aid in effecting a reform. Unless a change takes place before large exports are made for the current season, foreigners will become so much disgusted with our common flour that they will buy from us nothing but our wheat, and will grind it themselves, thus depriving our millers and mechanics of their share in the profits of the trade.

The Stock Market has been generally depressed, although there were several rallyings since our last, of longer or shorter continuance, when the "bulls" appeared to gain the ascendancy. Toward the close, as many who had left the city for the summer returned, there was more speculative movement, and the fluctuations in the market were more warmly contested. Several new railroad loans of small amounts have been negotiated. One of \$250,000, 8 per cent bonds, of the Burlington & Missouri Railroad, which were taken at 85. The State of Ohio is in the market for a 6 per cent loan of \$2,400,000, 30 years to run, to pay off the bonds of 1856, maturing in December. Some new issues of bonds have been privately distributed among the friends of the respective enterprises they were designed to aid, and the terms have not been made public.

The Bank movement shows a contraction toward the close, but the expansion has been continued at New York much longer than was expected or considered safe by sound political economists. The contraction has been going on for some time in discounts; but the money thus saved was immediately put out in loans on call, thus preparing a stock for the whole community, when the surplus funds, (mostly country bank balances,) should be needed. The following will show the weekly averages of the New York city banks:—

WEEKLY AVERAGES NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

Date.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
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
Jan. 26.....	49,692,900	96,887,221	12,733,059	7,506,986	78,918,315
Feb. 2.....	49,692,900	97,970,611	13,640,437	7,622,827	82,269,061
Feb. 9.....	49,692,900	98,344,077	14,233,329	7,819,122	82,848,152
Feb. 16.....	49,692,900	99,401,315	15,678,736	7,693,441	88,085,944
Feb. 23.....	49,883,420	100,745,447	15,835,874	7,664,688	87,680,478
March 1...	49,784,288	102,632,235	15,640,687	7,754,392	88,604,377
March 8...	49,784,288	103,909,688	15,170,946	7,888,176	88,749,625
March 15...	49,784,288	104,528,298	14,045,024	7,863,148	88,621,176
March 22...	49,784,288	104,533,576	14,369,556	7,912,581	89,390,261
March 29...	51,113,025	104,745,307	14,216,841	7,943,253	88,186,648
April 5...	51,113,025	106,962,018	13,381,454	8,347,498	91,008,408
April 12...	51,113,025	107,840,435	12,626,094	8,281,525	91,081,975
April 19...	51,113,025	106,765,085	12,958,132	8,221,518	90,875,737
April 26...	51,113,025	105,538,864	13,102,857	8,246,120	89,627,280
May 3...	51,113,025	105,325,962	12,850,227	8,715,163	92,816,063
May 10...	51,113,025	103,803,793	13,317,365	8,662,485	89,476,262
May 17...	51,113,025	103,002,320	12,796,451	8,488,152	88,720,415
May 24...	51,113,025	102,207,767	13,850,333	8,335,097	87,094,300
May 31...	51,458,508	102,451,275	14,021,289	8,269,161	86,775,313
June 7...	51,458,508	103,474,921	16,166,180	8,430,252	90,609,243
June 14...	51,458,508	104,168,881	17,414,680	8,360,735	91,602,245
June 21...	52,705,017	105,626,995	17,871,955	8,278,002	93,715,837
June 28...	52,705,017	107,087,525	17,069,687	8,250,289	93,239,243
July 5...	53,170,317	109,267,582	16,829,236	8,637,471	100,140,420
July 12...	53,170,317	109,748,042	14,793,409	8,405,756	95,663,460
July 19...	53,170,317	110,873,494	15,326,131	8,346,243	95,932,105
July 26...	53,170,317	111,346,589	13,910,858	8,386,285	92,365,040
Aug. 2...	53,658,039	112,221,563	14,328,253	8,646,043	93,847,317
Aug. 9...	53,658,039	112,192,322	13,270,603	8,676,759	92,220,370
Aug. 16...	53,658,039	111,406,756	12,806,672	8,584,499	92,013,229

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

WEEKLY AVERAGES AT BOSTON.

	July 21.	July 28.	August 4.	August 11.	August 18.
Capital.....	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000
Loans and discounts..	52,467,575	42,506,495	52,800,815	53,207,000	53,180,786
Specie.....	3,679,263	3,660,057	3,827,617	3,861,000	3,825,692
Due from other banks	6,971,044	6,345,078	6,214,717	6,201,000	5,805,919
Due to other banks..	4,867,786	4,384,504	4,304,728	4,448,700	4,617,849
Deposits.....	15,927,968	16,234,117	16,500,272	16,342,500	16,029,969
Circulation.....	7,310,438	6,768,666	6,660,327	7,020,000	6,790,023

Annexed is a report of the condition of the banks of Missouri and its branches on the 30th of June :—

	Discounts.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Specie.
Bank of St. Louis.....	\$1,605,444	\$1,179,635	\$1,700,590	\$1,185,260
Fayette Branch.....	191,692	402,594	233,600	111,626
Palmyra Branch.....	89,921	54,365	205,360	66,290
Cape Girardeau Branch.....	161,245	26,446	192,820	58,940
Springfield Branch.....	167,353	44,386	152,580	76,226
Lexington Branch.....	197,443	79,671	213,530	94,262
Total.....	\$2,413,098	\$1,487,097	\$2,693,460	\$1,601,600

The following is a statement of the condition of the Massachusetts banks on August 4, 1856 :—

LIABILITIES.

	36 city.	135 country.	Total.
Capital	\$31,960,000	\$26,510,000	\$58,470,000
Net circulation.....	4,750,338	12,945,146	17,695,484
Deposits	16,500,272	6,783,605	23,283,967
Profit on hand	3,837,029	2,786,919	6,623,948
Total.....	\$57,047,689	\$49,025,760	\$106,073,899

RESOURCES.

Notes, bills of exchange, &c.....	\$52,600,815	\$47,290,764	\$99,891,579
Specie.....	3,827,617	1,103,861	4,931,478
Real estate.....	619,207	631,135	1,250,342
Total.....	\$57,047,688	\$49,625,760	\$106,673,899

The receipts of gold from California continue large, but a considerable portion comes forward to the Atlantic States, either in coin or bars from the California mint. We annex a statement of the business at the New York Assay Office during the month of July :—

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

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Foreign coins.....	\$4,000 00	\$3,300 00	\$7,300 00
Foreign bullion	27,000 00	8,755 00	35,755 00
Domestic bullion	1,244,000 00	9,745 00	1,253,745 00
Total deposits.....	\$1,275,000 00	\$21,800 00	\$1,296,800 00
Deposits payable in bars			1,266,800 00
Deposits payable in coin.....			30,000 00
Gold bars stamped.....			1,497,411 00
Transmitted to U. States Mint, Philadelphia, for coinage.....			43,328 00

The following is a statement of the operations at the Mint of the United States in Philadelphia, for the month of July :—

DEPOSITS.

Gold.....	\$100,000	Silver.....	\$160,000
Total			\$260,000

GOLD.

	No. of pieces.	Value.
Fine bars	3	\$2,084 89
Half eagles	6,008	30,040 00
Quarter eagles.....	60,900	152,250 00
Dollars.....	170,885	170,889 00
Total	287,796	\$355,263 89

SILVER.

Half dollars.....	30,000	15,000 00
Quarter dollars	852,000	213,000 00
Half dimes.....	900,000	45,000 00
Total.....	1,782,000	\$273,000 00

COPPER.

Cents	99,815	998 15
Half cents	200	1 00
Total.....	100,015	\$999 15

RECAPITULATION.

Gold coinage	237,796	355,263 89
Silver coinage	1,782,000	273,000 00
Copper coinage.....	100,015	999 15
Total.....	2,119,811	\$629,263 04

The following is a statement of the deposits and coinage at the New Orleans Branch Mint for the month of July :—

GOLD DEPOSITS.

California gold.....	\$10,123 18	
Gold from other sources.....	2,105 27	
		\$12,228 45

SILVER DEPOSITS.

Silver parted from California gold.....	\$3,166 00	
Silver from other sources	79,212 78	
		79,244 44
Total deposits.....		\$91,472 89

SILVER COINAGE.

Half dollars—200,000 pieces.....	100,000 00
Quarter dollars—200,000 pieces	50,000 00
Dimes—670,000.....	68,000 00
Total coinage—1,080,000 pieces	\$218,000 00

The following is the statement of operations of the San Francisco Mint for the quarter ending June 30, 1856 :—

6,501 gold deposits, weighing.....	ounces	613,419 07
And valued at.....		\$11,310,204 86

STATEMENT OF COINAGE.

Gold coins received from coiner during the quarter.....	10,192,400 00
Unparted gold bars manufactured.....	1,637,257 69
Silver coins received from coiner during the quarter.....	53,500 00
Silver bars manufactured	1,733 85
Total coinage of the quarter....	\$11,814,891 54
Average coinage per month	\$3,938,297 24

In our last issue, we showed that the foreign imports for the fiscal year then ended, were larger than for any former year in our history. This has been continued; the total at New York for the month of July was larger than for any previous month since the settlement of the city. It was \$9,407,385 larger than for the same month of last year; \$5,487,982 larger than for July, 1854, and \$5,637,825 larger than for July, 1853, as will be seen from the annexed summary :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK IN JULY.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Entered for consumption....	\$16,725,643	\$14,253,797	\$18,008,485	\$19,288,885
Entered for warehousing....	2,080,908	3,963,573	2,431,756	4,907,675
Free goods.....	1,072,502	1,812,917	799,671	1,280,854
Specie and bullion	199,454	198,063	69,035	238,918
Total entered at the port....	\$20,078,507	\$20,228,350	\$16,308,947	\$25,716,332
Withdrawn from warehouse..	1,702,448	636,832	2,029,164	2,187,337

The largest amount previously received, during a single month, was in August, 1854, when the total was \$23,084,133. There has been an increase in the goods warehoused, but the great bulk consists of goods entered directly for consumption. The total foreign imports at New York since January 1st, are \$49,761,865 larger than for the same time last year; \$18,976,516 larger than for the corresponding seven months of 1854; and \$16,103,211 larger than for the same time in 1853, as will be seen by the following comparison:—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Entered for consumption.....	\$93,558,807	\$84,701,111	\$58,906,280	\$99,589,770
Entered for warehousing.....	13,587,589	17,690,323	16,264,647	21,093,324
Free goods.....	9,669,118	11,044,201	8,562,298	12,371,647
Specie and bullion.....	1,099,516	1,606,090	523,151	963,500

Total entered at the port....	117,915,030	115,041,725	84,256,376	134,018,241
Withdrawn from warehouse.	8,227,102	11,344,876	14,270,234	13,105,204

The country is rapidly increasing in population, and it is natural that the imports should annually augment; but the above total is in excess of any fair estimate of the wants of the country. The increase is a little more than half in dry goods, and the remainder in general merchandise. We have separated the aggregate for the convenience of our readers:—

DESCRIPTION OF FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1854.	1855.	1856.
Dry goods.....	\$55,308,993	\$34,724,393	\$60,296,946
General merchandise.....	59,732,732	49,531,933	73,721,295
Total imports.....	\$115,041,725	\$84,256,376	\$134,018,241

It will be seen that the total receipts of foreign dry goods in July, are \$4,647,925 larger than for July, 1855; \$1,987,818 larger than for the same month in 1854; and \$1,189,776 larger than for July, 1853. We annex a table giving further particulars:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR JULY.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$4,097,250	\$3,154,898	\$2,683,257	\$4,181,850
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,847,216	1,751,517	1,004,456	1,931,159
Manufactures of silk.....	4,824,913	3,625,613	3,458,933	4,829,350
Manufactures of flax.....	719,307	590,664	690,757	791,684
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	569,761	637,207	671,003	910,397
Total.....	\$12,058,447	\$9,759,899	\$8,508,406	\$12,644,440

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$531,250	\$631,958	\$350,944	\$407,577
Manufactures of cotton.....	98,255	237,989	121,677	81,683
Manufactures of silk.....	233,066	352,623	255,550	220,175
Manufactures of flax.....	18,957	39,000	89,832	39,929
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	32,796	52,100	43,158	71,131
Total.....	\$914,324	\$1,313,670	\$861,161	\$820,495
Add entered for consumption.....	12,058,447	9,759,899	8,508,406	12,644,440
Total thrown on the market..	\$12,972,771	\$11,073,569	\$9,369,567	\$13,464,935

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$273,785	\$1,085,553	\$224,725	\$657,573
Manufactures of cotton.....	119,021	334,278	101,494	176,222
Manufactures of silk.....	144,791	483,477	214,569	213,131
Manufactures of flax.....	9,488	85,703	74,186	69,699
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	21,121	79,701	45,124	55,364
Total.....	\$568,206	\$2,068,712	\$660,098	\$1,171,989
Add entered for consumption.....	12,058,447	9,759,899	8,508,406	12,644,440
Total entered at the port.....	\$12,626,653	\$11,828,611	\$9,168,504	\$13,816,429

The increase is comparatively least in silk goods. The total receipts of foreign dry goods at the same port since January 1st, are \$25,572,553 greater than for the corresponding seven months of 1855; \$4,987,953 greater than for the same time in 1854; and \$2,875,327 greater than for the same time in 1853, as will appear by the annexed tabular statement:—

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

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$14,913,222	\$11,903,751	\$7,864,810	\$15,293,314
Manufactures of cotton.....	9,469,017	10,240,642	4,664,731	10,222,133
Manufactures of silk.....	20,679,454	17,165,873	11,257,784	19,486,648
Manufactures of flax.....	4,918,867	4,303,671	2,915,355	5,109,742
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	3,356,511	3,436,176	2,789,645	4,452,102
Total.....	\$53,337,071	\$47,050,113	\$29,492,325	\$54,563,939

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,164,654	\$1,905,570	\$1,542,617	\$1,209,438
Manufactures of cotton.....	701,490	1,782,060	1,772,853	1,535,179
Manufactures of silk.....	1,008,372	1,798,661	1,833,433	1,467,799
Manufactures of flax.....	149,641	566,445	872,100	745,955
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	247,543	261,881	578,745	298,806
Total withdrawn.....	\$3,271,700	\$6,314,617	\$6,599,748	\$5,257,177
Add entered for consumption...	53,337,071	47,050,113	29,492,325	54,563,939
Total thrown upon the market.	\$56,608,771	\$53,364,730	\$36,092,073	\$59,821,116

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,654,251	\$3,181,360	\$1,262,361	\$1,983,598
Manufactures of cotton.....	861,092	1,878,643	1,095,280	1,260,313
Manufactures of silk.....	1,115,548	2,338,213	1,641,274	1,547,504
Manufactures of flax.....	190,745	576,593	696,792	514,283
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	262,912	284,071	536,361	427,309
Total.....	\$4,084,548	\$8,258,880	\$5,232,068	\$5,733,007
Add entered for consumption....	53,337,071	47,050,113	29,492,325	54,563,939
Total entered at the port...	\$57,421,619	\$55,308,993	\$34,724,393	\$60,296,946

The EXPORTS to foreign ports for July, exclusive of specie, have increased in a

still larger proportion than the imports, the total being \$2,675,678 larger than for July, 1855; \$2,779,833 larger than for July, 1854; and \$1,388,962 larger than for the same time in 1853:—

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

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Domestic produce.....	\$4,882,957	\$3,768,661	\$3,960,757	\$6,901,272
Foreign merchandise (free).....	313,192	252,030	185,557	22,423
Foreign merchandise (dutiabie)..	447,201	231,788	210,320	108,617
Specie.....	3,924,612	2,922,452	2,923,324	5,278,126
Total exports.....	\$9,567,962	\$7,174,931	\$7,279,958	\$12,310,438
Total, exclusive of specie.....	5,643,350	4,252,479	4,356,634	7,032,312

The Exports since January 1st, exclusive of specie, are \$10,315,874 in excess of the total for the corresponding period of last year; \$8,535,928 in excess of the total for the same period of 1854; and \$13,299,244 in excess of the total for the same time of 1853. The increase in shipments of domestic produce is still greater than this; but there is a falling off in the exports of foreign goods reshipped.

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

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Domestic produce.....	\$30,305,247	\$34,966,101	\$30,298,181	\$44,678,165
Foreign merchandise (free).....	1,010,669	964,603	3,289,114	592,508
Foreign merchandise (dutiabie)...	2,488,181	2,636,709	3,200,172	1,832,668
Specie.....	12,579,594	19,108,319	19,998,119	19,501,927
Total exports.....	\$46,383,691	\$57,675,732	\$56,785,586	\$66,605,268
Total, exclusive of specie.....	33,804,097	38,567,413	36,787,467	47,103,341

It may be proper to remark, that the statement of exports for June was deficient in \$2,493,775 specie, which was accidentally omitted in the official summary. If this were added to the July summary, it would make the total shipments of specie for the month \$7,771,901; but as it has gone into the last quarter's return at Washington, we have included it in the seven months' statement, but omitted it from the July return, where, of course, it cannot be properly placed, as it all cleared in June.

The cash revenue is very large, the total for July being larger than for any previous month in our history:—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
In July.....	\$4,640,107 15	\$4,045,745 78	\$3,787,341 95	\$5,441,544 27
Previous 6 months ..	21,167,329 50	19,737,960 76	14,299,945 71	22,541,145 75
Total since Jan. 1st.	\$25,807,436 65	\$23,783,706 54	\$18,087,287 66	\$27,982,690 02

We look for very little comparative increase in the imports in August, and should not be surprised at a slight falling off during the remainder of the year. With the large amount of money in Sub-Treasury, and the prospect of heavy receipts for years to come, it is certainly bad policy for our government to continue the present tariff, especially the duty on raw materials.

We annex a statement containing the comparative shipments of certain articles of produce since January 1st:—

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST TO AUGUST 19TH:—

	1855.	1856.		1855.	1856.
Ashes—pots bbls	7,876	6,075	Naval stores bbls	480,711	324,249
pearls	1,768	809	Oils—whale galls	157,242	28,512
Beeswax lbs	125,050	146,265	sperm	550,292	311,112
			lard	60,141	37,340
			linseed	7,430	4,006
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>					
Wheat flour bbls	263,512	1,219,318			
Rye flour	15,017	10,678	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal	35,447	51,751	Pork bbls	118,075	114,402
Wheat bush	88,350	3,490,145	Beef	51,055	55,828
Rye	5,139	1,136,311	Cut meats, lbs	14,791,752	25,596,627
Oats	12,111	11,618	Butter	440,101	839,164
Corn	2,783,485	2,219,954	Cheese	2,004,389	2,714,046
Candles—mold. boxes	34,259	32,735	Lard	5,747,538	8,391,254
sperm	8,907	2,767	Rice trcs	11,932	26,845
Coal tons	6,178	4,870	Tallow lbs	1,107,455	1,059,930
Cotton bales	185,279	144,384	Tobacco, crude pkgs	21,232	25,162
Hay	3,704	3,131	Do., manufactured. lbs	3,094,752	3,719,491
Hops	7,815	2,518	Whalebone	1,261,645	1,225,961

The increase in shipments of breadstuffs, as shown by the above comparative summary, is most remarkable. The exports of flour have increased nearly 400 per cent; while the exports of wheat, which were a mere nominal amount last year, already show a total of nearly three-and-a-half millions of bushels. There is a falling off in corn. This cereal will probably never be a favorite in Europe, and never sells there to any great extent, except to supply the want of potatoes and other root vegetables. There seems to be a general prejudice against it as a substitute for other breadstuffs. The shipments of oils, also, show a decrease; and the total of pork, although large, is below the quantity for the corresponding period of last year. Beef and cut meats have largely increased, and lard has not only gone forward liberally, but has also found a very brisk market, at comparatively high rates. There must be a falling off in our imports of foreign goods before the close of the year, and, with the large exports in prospect, the balance of our foreign trade is likely to be more in our favor on the 1st of January, than it was on the 1st of July.

NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR THE MONTH ENDING AUGUST 22.

PREPARED FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE BY CHARLES W. FREDERICKSON, BROKER, NEW YORK.

Since the date of my last report, July 25, our market has been without material change in prices, and the transactions have partaken of a most languid character. Indeed, the month just closed has been characterized by the oldest in the trade, as dull, "flat, stale and unprofitable," and without a precedent. The transactions have been mainly for our own spinners, who have bought only sufficient for their immediate wants,—preferring to open the season—on account of high prices—with small stocks, and anxious to obtain the first pickings of the new crop—now being rapidly gathered in good condition. Our small stock offered no inducement to shippers or speculators to operate, even were the foreign advices of a character favorable to the transaction, while on the other hand, the growing crop is represented to be in a flourishing condition and likely, with an average fall, to yield an increase even upon the large crop just closing. In our next we will be enabled to give the annual statement as regards receipts, exports, consumption, &c.

The transactions for the week closing August 1st were at a slight decline—say $\frac{1}{4}$ c per lb. on the low grades, and $\frac{1}{2}$ c on the better qualities. The sales were 4000 bales, mostly for home consumption. The favorable reports as regards the growing crop, and dull foreign advices, caused holders to accept readily of the following :—

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 1ST FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10	10	10	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling.....	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{7}{8}$
Middling fair.....	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{5}{8}$	12 $\frac{7}{8}$
Fair.....	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$

The sales for the week ensuing did not exceed 5,000 bales, inclusive of 1500 bales sold in transitu. Holders generally were firm, and spinners limited their operations to their immediate wants. The first bale, new crop, was received here on the 5th, from Savannah; it classed middling fair to fair, and was well prepared, with good staple. Expectations were not realized by the foreign advices of the week, and our small stock alone enabled holders to maintain firmness at the annexed :—

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 8TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10	10	10	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling.....	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{7}{8}$
Middling fair.....	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{5}{8}$	12 $\frac{7}{8}$
Fair.....	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$

For the week ending August 15th the sales were estimated at 5,000 bales, and although no decline could be quoted as a general thing, still some few parcels were disposed of at some irregularity in prices—our home trade, together with some small orders for the continent, being the purchasers. Reports of too much rain in Alabama and Louisiana were received during the week, but failed to induce purchasers to operate. Our market closed quiet at the annexed rates :—

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 15TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10	10	10	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling.....	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{7}{8}$
Middling fair.....	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{5}{8}$	12 $\frac{7}{8}$
Fair.....	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$

The sales for the week closing at date were 6,500 bales, and although prices were without change from previous week, yet there was manifested more confidence in the article by purchasers. The trade met the demand without excess of offerings, and the market closed with much firmness at the following :—

PRICES ADOPTED AUGUST 22D FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10	10	10	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Middling.....	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	11 $\frac{7}{8}$
Middling fair.....	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{5}{8}$	12 $\frac{7}{8}$
Fair.....	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$

The total receipts now amounts to.....	bales	3,485,000
Excess over last year.....		713,000
Excess in exports to Great Britain.....		480,000
To France.....		69,000
Other foreign ports.....		238,000
Total foreign exports in excess of last year.....		737,000

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

GOLD AND PAPER MONEY—EXCEPTED ERRORS.

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

DEAR SIR :—I had hoped for an opportunity to correct the proof sheets of the article on "The Gold of California and Paper Money," contributed by me to your August number, but they reached me too late, and the article, consequently, contains several important errors, that I ask the privilege of correcting, some of which express the converse of the idea intended to be conveyed.

On page 161, line 22d, for "valueless," read valuable; on page 162, the stock of precious metals in the world is stated at \$500,000,000. In the manuscript you will find the sum to be \$5,000,000,000. On page 162, last line but one, for "property," read properly; on page 164, line 8th, for "universal" supply of gold, read increased supply of gold; on page 166, line 22d, for "filling," read piling; on page 167, line 5th, for "more," read worse. At the bottom of page 167, there is an error of my own. I wish to say: The addition of \$5 in paper to \$10 of gold has the same effect in reducing our money as adding one-third more alloy to the coin; it reduces the eagle to \$6,66 $\frac{2}{3}$ —robs it of one-third of its value, but leaves its name unchanged. On page 168, line 35th, for "position," read proportion; on page 169, line 11th, instead of it would "not" affect, &c., read it would "but" affect unfavorably a different class; on page 169, line 20th, for "screen," read screw; on page 170, line 9th, for "or," read as; on page 171, line 7th, for "forwarded," read founded; on page 172, line 11th, for "respectable," read responsible.

There are some minor errors which, as they will be readily discovered by the reader, I will not trouble you to correct.

In regard to Mr. Cary's idea, that the high prices said to be caused by gold, are more properly attributable to the emigration to California, which diminished the number of valuable laborers here, I wish to say, that the effect of the emigration upon prices was probably more than counterbalanced by the increased value given to money by the abstraction of the coin which the emigrants took with them. Probably 50,000 laborers, with some of their families, many merchants, and, as he suggests, many vagabonds, abstracted three or four millions of dollars of coin, which formed the basis, according to the ratio of specie to bank debt, in the whole currency of the country, of eight to eleven millions, that must have been contracted of the currency for a considerable period, till the returns of the labor were received here in gold, and coined into money. It would seem probable that this reduction of the currency would reduce prices more than the abstraction of the labor would enhance them.

I find you have given place to a statement of the gold and silver wealth of the world, taken from a work by a Russian councillor of state, that I have seen quoted elsewhere, which conflicts with my figures, and with all other figures relating to the subject, to such a degree that I cannot avoid saying it is made up with a remarkable independence of all known authorities. Nothing is said by the author of the abstraction by use, or by contingent loss, of any portion of the pre-

precious metals; and the reader is left to infer that the whole quantity raised from the beginning of time is in existence now, by which means he makes up a grand total of present circulation of \$20,536,000,000.

To show the inaccuracy of his data, it is sufficient to say that he states the product of America, including California, at \$146,000,000, and of Australia at \$200,000,000 annually. The largest figures I have seen, relating to the production of the whole world, were taken from an Austrian paper, the *Lloyd*, and they state it to have been in 1850, exclusive of that of California, £11,000,000, equal in our currency to \$53,500,000 annually. The yield of California for four years past has averaged \$49,000,000 annually; so that the Russian councillor estimates the production of America alone at nearly \$50,000,000 per annum more than the most liberal statements of other authors for the whole world. The shipments of gold from Australia for the past four years have been \$195,000,000, nearly, and the whole production of that country cannot have exceeded the sum of \$50,000,000 per annum, or one-fourth of the Russian statement. This would seem to indicate about the true scale of reduction to apply to the whole of its statistics.

It is well known that Humboldt, the most enlightened philosopher and indefatigable statistician in the world, gave especial attention to this subject; but he never found out what this Russian councillor seems to know of the precious metals that had been extracted at the birth of Jesus Christ, which he values in our currency at \$4,328,000,000, a sum perfectly chimerical; and this sum he includes in his aggregate as in existence now! Jacob furnishes some authorities for the statement, that, in the times of the Roman Emperor Augustus, the gold and silver in the world amounted to £300,000,000, which he thinks had diminished by wear, and use, and loss, to £33,000,000 at the period of the discovery of America, in 1492. I believe no intelligent author estimates the precious metals in existence before that period, as more than sufficient to compensate for the loss by abrasion since. Some authorities state the sum of the production since that period, and in existence at the time of the gold discovery in California, at \$6,000,000,000; but if we make due allowance for the known tendency to exaggeration in all estimates in round numbers, which I think is particularly discernible in the estimates of production from 1840 to 1850, we shall probably find \$5,000,000,000 to have been the amount of the stock of precious metals in the world at the time of the discovery in California, as nearly as it can be ascertained by any reliable data.

The Russian councillor's estimates appear to be preposterous, and unworthy of serious consideration.

C. H. C.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF VICTORIA.

In the year ending 30th September, 1855, the general revenue of Victoria amounted to £1,893,069; the territorial revenue, to £953,330; total, £2,846,400—£438,507 was also raised on debentures. The sum of £259,441 was received for gold licenses and other imposts connected with gold, including escort fees; while, in addition, the new duty on exporting gold, in place of the licenses, produced £135,608. The customs, including gold, figure for £1,085,183; spirits gave a revenue of £590,841; tobacco, £118,981; wine, £55,194; beer, £60,089. In the miscellaneous revenue, the receipts for postage—gross, we presume—were £84,704; liquor licenses, £145,632. Nearly the whole of the territorial revenue

arose from the sale of lands, £896,160; leases and licenses, £37,969. The debentures were issued to raise money for the construction of public works.

The following table of the revenue and expenditure from 1850 to 1854, is from a pamphlet (published by Messrs. Low) on the Commerce and Finances of Australia:—

	Total revenue.	Expenditure.
1850	£259,432	£196,460
1851	499,041	410,864
1852	1,635,494	981,566
1853	3,202,248	3,564,858
1854	3,223,172	4,045,291

Though the income of the colony increased so fast after the gold discovery, the ruling powers managed to beat it by their exertions in spending. Since 1854 the revenue has diminished, but there has also been a vigorous curtailment of the expenditure.

BANKS AND BANKERS IN CANADA.

A Canadian correspondent of the *Tribune*, under the signature of "Harry Vane," has written two letters relating to "Banks and Banking in Canada." As these letters contain "facts and figures" of interest to mercantile men in the States, we give the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* the substance of the writer's statements in a condensed form, generally adopting his diction, with slight abridgment.

I.

The Bank of Montreal is our oldest monied corporation. It was opened in 1818. On June 30, 1855, its liabilities had reached \$6,143,064; its capital exclusive. Its means or assets were \$11,786,572. It has some 15 to 25 branches and agencies spread through Canada, each or most of which issues notes payable at its counter, as if each branch were a distinct institution; and if offered in payment of debts due to the bank, at any of its offices, except the one that issued them, there is usually or occasionally a percentage exacted, as brokers do with uncurrent paper. It is the same with the other banks that have agencies; and on a motion being made in Assembly last session to stop this shaving process, it passed in the negative. In the head office and all the branches on the above day there were, of specie, \$758,204; they held of the bills of other banks, \$208,034; balances were due them from other banks, \$651,572; and the bank held government securities (probably what are called bonds, issued by one or more municipal corporations, under a queer sort of provincial declaration, "We are and we are not endorsers of your paper," statute) \$520,000.

Of bank-notes circulating as money, there were afloat \$3,573,195, on which the Montreal and other chartered banks pay a small tax to the government. Last year the Montreal paid \$35,461 of tax, while the interest moneys received on its average paper circulation would come to \$215,000. It had cash deposited in its vaults, liable to be called for on any day, \$1,692,548, and also of cash deposits, \$360,141, on which it was paying three or four per cent of interest. Beside lending its credit in the shape of the above three and a half millions of bank-notes, it had lent of the above cash deposits \$1,300,485, receiving six per cent of interest, which is our legal rate, and, as Mr. Vane thinks, far more just to society than our seven per cent, continued, I regret to perceive it, while all New England and Pennsylvania pay and receive in ordinary dealings the same rate as we do. Balances due by the bank to other banks, \$527,179, complete the details of its liabilities. Its line of discount and the debts due to it not stated above are given in at \$9,490,445, and how far they are worth their face you may readily know. The above statement is taken from a return upon oath made 11th July, 1855, and published in the *Canada Gazette*, and its weak point is not showing the real value of the debts. I suppose we are expected to understand that they are all

very good, and they may be so; but when I see some twenty sets of directors or managers widely scattered over Canada, not a few of whom are doubtless glad to get rid of as many as possible of the "promises of their *slow-coach* business customers upon the bank, minus their indorsation, I am likely to infer that such losses, *nobody* being to blame, diminish greatly the year's gains of such institutions.

Neither to banks, railways, nor insurance offices are commissioners of investigation sent, but in a Savings Bank Act of May, 1855, a sort of financial commissionership is created.

The City Bank, Montreal, a far more modern institution, returned its liabilities in June, 1855, at \$1,767,943, of which \$737,456 was cash deposits, upon less than half of which sum it was paying three or four per cent of interest. Its gold and bullion were \$172,500, and it possessed \$77,600 in public securities, including which its assets were \$2,833,141.

A third bank in Montreal is a branch of a corporation whose headquarters is in London, with a British charter there, and certain powers are conceded to its branches in the Colonies. It comes forth 31st May, 1855, with a statement of some of its affairs, but only to the close of 1854, announcing net profits equal to \$490,000. It has branches or agencies here, and in Quebec, Montreal, Brantford, Bytown, Dundas, Hamilton, Kingston, London, (U. C.) Sault Ste. Marie, Sherbrooke, and Three Rivers; and on the 15th of September, 1855, had \$4,786,137 of its aggregate capital employed at the above places, and \$2,422,387 of its notes in circulation as money. In October, 1854, its cashier at Montreal said that \$3,200,000 only of its capital was employed in Canada, and that his branch (Montreal) had the use of a capital of \$1,200,000.

A monthly or weekly summary of the capital, circulation, specie, deposits, loans and discounts, and the amounts due to and from the banks, would enable business men and politicians to understand more accurately the condition of each bank, and of the banks as a whole. Government could readily supply this summary through some idle clerk, but it is too lazy to give the order; and if such knowledge is obtained, it becomes the property of the few. You may readily judge of the *book-keeping* of banks, when I tell you that the Receiver-General or Treasurer of Canada had not taken a trial balance of his ledger in six years, from 1849 to the end of 1854!

When the extended charters of the Bank of Upper Canada and that of "Montreal" were placed on the statute book monthly statements were to be returned. I have seen none from the Bank of Upper Canada for many months.

Under a statute of 1849, bank stock may be seized for debt by such creditors as can find out who of their obstinate debtors own any. The Montreal Bank, under the management of the Hon P. McGill, of the Legislative Council, its President, prints a list of its shareholders, with the shares they severally hold and their residences, annually. Last year Mr. Mackenzie moved in Assembly that certain chartered banks, then seeking an increase of capital and an extension of their charters, should tell the House who and where there then stockholders were, and what number of shares they severally held. The majority, two to one, rejected the motion, and none were more anxious for secrecy than bank-directors and shareholders having seats.

Without any notice of an intention to apply, the charters of six banks were extended from 1862 to 1871, and the capital of the Bank of Upper Canada, Bank of Montreal, and Commercial Bank at Kingston, were increased \$2,000,000 each; the City Bank, Montreal, \$300,000; the Banque du Peuple there, \$400,000; and the Quebec Bank \$1,000,000; the banks were allowed to peddle the new shares thus created; and to sell them when, and for what premium, or at what discount they pleased! To enable poor speculators to hold the new stock only ten per cent was to be required at first, which favorites of course could borrow of the banks, and keep on renewing their notes; meanwhile some of them would perhaps slip into the direction by this kind of moonshine. Why not? All the directors (and they are all the *individual* stockholders) of the Woodstock Railway Company are seven—they re-elect themselves—they have made contracts for millions and expended vast sums, and all the interest they have in the road, all the money they

have to this day *collectively* invested, is about a thousand dollars! Our Northern Railway, from Toronto to Collingwood, by which Monsieur Hincks juggled \$40,000 from the public, has borrowed millions of dollars through the jugglery of our government, both from individuals and the public, and the whole of its stockholders had, very recently, paid in, in cash, £365, (\$1,460.) and no more. Our Legislature authorized it to be built by lottery, but the juggle that carried it through beat in crafty knavery any lottery I ever heard of, from Birk down to the Baltimore humbugs of 1855. It was provided last fall that all the directors of the Montreal Bank might vote themselves such salaries as they saw fit, legislative assembly fashion, where the daily wages of the immaculate members has varied during the last three Parliaments from \$10 to \$4 and from \$4 to \$6, the present rate.

Our banks consist of the Montreal, City, Banque du Peuple, Molson's, and Branch of British North America at Montreal, Bank of Upper Canada here, Quebec Bank, Quebec; Zimmerman, Elgin; Niagara District, St. Catharines; Commercial, Kingston; Gore, Hamilton; and one south of Montreal.

The Zimmerman, (started by a fortunate railway contractor on the Great Western, from Pennsylvania;) Molson's, and the Niagara District were Free Banks, and gave security for their issues till June 1855, when legislative umbratality specially chartered them. Of course, nobody will use our Free-Bank Act who can logroll himself into a charter, and need not give any real security for his issues. Why should he? If I remember correctly, the British North American Bank is chartered only to issue notes of a certain value, or above it, and therefore it lodged more than \$600,000 of stocks of Canada, or of our *licensed* municipal borrowers, for its other issues.

I say "licensed borrowers," for we have a Loan-Fund Law of 1852, by which the Governor may allow, or refuse to allow, any municipality to borrow money—a sort of joint 3 per cent sinking fund being the pretended security, which is no security at all, for the defaulters swallow up the sinking fund. First, the Province lends our pet railway its credit for \$15,000 a mile; next, the Governor allows towns and cities to pretend to lend the same railways other sums of \$100,000, \$200,000, \$20,000, or as the case may be, out of this sham fund, Clause 3, Division 3 of which is as follows:

"3. They [the Loan-Fund debentures] shall express upon their face that the Provincial Government undertakes to pay the principal sum mentioned in them, and the interest thereon, out of the moneys forming part of the said Consolidated Municipal Loan-Fund, and out of no other moneys or funds whatsoever."

Then the Province takes the management of the above loan-fund, and the government again lends its credit, "partially," it says, in the public accounts, but seemingly with the intention of endorsing, though that is left in doubt, to such municipalities as agree to hand over the money to schemes previously agreed on—or to municipalities where members of Assembly vote as the special interests who govern here bid them—refusing to some, granting to others, converting the fund into a political wheel for organized knavery. Last session the lending act was extended so that \$12,000,000 may be thus borrowed, and already one-half that sum is afloat in the financial world.

As to the meaning of the Loan-Fund Statutes, we will find it out in the Chancery Courts a decent number of years after a crash comes.

The circulation of La Banque du Peuple, Montreal, Feb. 28, 1855—for I find nothing later in the *Canada Gazette*—was \$482,756; its cash deposits, \$771,032, on more than a fourth of which it paid interest; its specie and the balance due it from other banks, \$306,380.

Of Molson's Bank I merely know that it started on the New York free bank scheme; was changed into a special corporation a few weeks since, along with the Zimmerman and the Niagara District, the latter of which says it opened its books yesterday and cleared 11½ per cent net last year. How could it do that? It had but little to lend; it could not lend at more than 6 per cent; all its bank notes out were \$184,676; its capital consisted of \$200,000 in Provincial or Loan Fund debentures, and the lending out of a few small sums is a costly process.

II.

The Independent Treasury, following upon the general stoppage of cash payments by the banks in 1837 and 1838, preserves your federal government from falling back upon that delusive and sinking standard which, in 1814, lent the nation bank notes not worth 50 per cent of their nominal value at a high figure, taking the obligations of Congress to repay the principal, with interest in specie. The depositories of the government are substantial.

Ours are unreal—visionary—nor will there be a change until taught, as you were, in the school of experience, when receiving at one Custom House the provincial duties in irredeemable paper supposed to be worth nine-tenths of its face in cash; at another, ditto of other banks worth perhaps seven-tenths; and the value of our lands, manufactures and labor being assessed in irredeemable rags. That was your position and ours seventeen years since. Our banking scheme invites its return—your's and England's financial system seeks a real standard.

I believe there is some sort of nominal security to bill-holders in a regulation which makes shareholders in some banks responsible to a limited extent. Who ever profited by it? Who ever will? Meantime our banks may perhaps now have twenty millions of their paper afloat—less or more—they have also borrowed of the Provincial Government as follows: Bank of Upper Canada, \$400,000 at 3 per cent; Bank of British North America, \$300,000 at 4; Banque du Peuple, \$200,000 at 3; Commercial, Kingston, \$400,000 at 3—say \$1,300,000, which these institutions lend out again at six, and which the government itself is paying elsewhere and borrowing more yearly in London—though still having these loans of the means it formerly borrowed to increase its undue influences.

The Bank of Upper Canada has, for political reasons, been the exclusive Bank of the Government since 1849. On December 26, 1853, it had the use of \$400,000 at half the legal interest, and of other \$1,600,000—all government deposits—at no interest at all; on October 23, 1854, it had \$1,600,000 of provincial balances, besides, of course, vast sums on account of Government Institutions scattered throughout Canada. The Custom Houses, Post Offices, and Land Offices receive the notes of all the banks as money for lands, duties, &c., and the Bank of Upper Canada asks all the others for specie, as its office is “the treasury.”

Some thirty millions of dollars are due by the banks to the people and Government, over and above a vast amount of private deposits; and the chief means of repayment in the day of trouble is, the endorsed notes, mortgages, &c., in the coffers of the bankers. There is no check upon this vicious system—there will be none. Some of the banks' shares sell at par to 20 premium; not long since they were down from par to 40 discount. If well managed they are a means of realizing much wealth; if badly conducted, they may close as your United States Bank of Pennsylvania, or as Paul, Strahan & Bates' great London concern closed. They require, like certain religions, a great deal of faith. As connected with the Government, and as its bankers, they issue paper and control or powerfully influence both the Legislature and the Executive. In England the Government is always in arrear to the Bank of England; in the United States, Congress and the banks have dissolved partnership; in Canada, the banks are the debtors—they have a powerful foundation in the use of the people's own money, and whatever they unite here to carry, resistance is hopeless. Paper is almost our sole currency except that our bankers buy your gold (a legal tender) in New York for foreign exchange purposes. The Bank of Upper Canada bought and imported direct from New York, of United States gold, \$1,600,000, between March, 1853, and Sept., 1854. Other banks imported proportionally.

When our banks were logrolling their increased capitals through the Assembly, a certain very troublesome member moved to expunge the clauses which authorized the directors of each bank to monopolize the eight millions of new stock by selling it at such times, at such rates, and to such parties as they please, for benefit of old shareholders, and to insert a clause allowing the whole people of Canada a fair and equal opportunity to subscribe for the said stock. How many yeas are recorded on our journals in favor of that common sense proposition, think you? Just three!

Although we are behind even your pet bank and Albany logrolling charter times of 1836—when “the pure Democracy” created a pet bank on the Monday, sold the stock to “the faithful” on Tuesday, and had their President and Directors on their way to the far West, via Buffalo, on Wednesday, to exchange worthless paper, (indeed, too, with State deposits, as here now), for the broad acres of the republic—speculation and stock-jobbing, as I saw it with you in 1836, I see here now. Immense and valuable tracts were then sold on short notice; sales were fraudulently postponed to aid the vile land-jobbers; deposits were made and withdrawn to raise or depress the stock of special institutions—to pamper the servile—to starve the spirited. Those in the secret could make fortunes. Such is Canada now. To you 1837 came with a vengeance, and our 1857 will not tarry.

In 1820 we had a bank at Kingston, but some of our statesmen scooped it hollow, and the Legislature chartered here the “Bank of Upper Canada,” which served the Upper Province for a dozen of years, when a second Kingston bank was started, and is called the “Commercial Bank of the Midland District”—a name too long and very stupid. Its managers put forth on the 6th ult. a statement of its affairs up to the 30th June last, showing (or rather stating) that \$2,490,368 of its capital has been paid in; that after deducting cost of banking and of bad debts, the year's profits were \$298,600, minus the tax to Government on the circulation (\$13,987); the bank notes circulating, \$1,750,160; the deposits bearing interest, (money borrowed by the bank to lend again at a profit,) \$823,333; cash deposited, not at interest, \$485,674; all the bank liabilities, minus the capital, \$3,698,479; all the assets, \$6,188,847; the specie in bank, \$500,258; public securities, \$265,200; bonds and mortgages, \$21,235; balances due by banks and by agents out of Canada, \$448,175; indorsed notes on hand, &c., \$4,827,539. It divided to shareholders 8 per cent, and resolved to demand from the public 15 per cent on the new stock so villainously created, and handed over by our wretched authorities, with the consent of Lord Elgin, for no value at all.

In 1849 the Government was poor and distressed; it asked the banks what were their terms in managing the revenue. The Bank of Montreal and Bank of British North America there, said divide all your deposits equally and exclusively between us, and we will (or may) only charge if we have to send money from Upper to Lower or from Lower to Upper Canada. If we lend Government more money than has been usual (and that wasn't much) it must “be the subject of a special negotiation.” The Bank of Upper Canada went a little further, and has been since then the Provincial Treasury. Its paper is paid away by the Government everywhere. The removal of deposits from bank to bank remains with the Executive Government.

I wish I could have given the figures at least of the business of the Bank of U. C.—they ought to be given—but I nowhere find a record in *The Gazette*, nor at the annual meeting of the Stockholders last June was any information whatever given to the public. It is to be regretted that concealment where it is really unnecessary should be permitted or resorted to. On the 2nd of August last its capital (paid in) was under two millions, and its circulation (paper shekels) \$2,997,263.

The Quebec Bank may have a million or more of new log-roll stock on hand to peddle like its neighbors, but its paid up stock 6th November last was but \$833,621. Its other liabilities on 30th June last were \$1,084,495, including \$629,631 of bank notes afloat, cash deposits \$443,438, on a third of which it was paying somebody interest. Its coin was \$86,142; it held no provincial securities, and its general budget of notes discounted, &c., came to \$2,214,773.

My impression is that the bank in Canada most favorable to our manufacturers is the Montreal City Bank, although the Banque du Peuple, presided over by that excellent officer, Jacob DeWitt, Esq., may be equally so.

Another concern here of the banking order is called the “Trust and Loan Company of Upper Canada.” Attorney General Macdonald is its solicitor or usurer-general. Messrs. Glyn and Baring take pleasure in being its trustees. It has a royal charter in London, where it borrows at 2½ and 3 per cent, and where

its shareholders are. It has a colonial charter for Upper Canada, where it lends to freeholders half the clear value of their lands on mortgage, at 8 per cent, while no Canadian bank can recover more than 6. Borrowers must also pay our Chief Judge's brother (Sir G. Robinson) for valuing the lands, and all fees. They appear to have lent out \$1,800,000 in Canada.

We have two Savings Banks here; one at Cobourg, one or two at Quebec, two at least in Montreal, and there may be more. This year a long act passed for the regulation of some of them, which will do little good. One of this sort of banks broke down at Montreal in 1849: the directors were the elite of the city. They trusted in their actuary, who improved the confusion permitted by their neglect of duty, and the humble, as usual, suffered.

The Quebec Provident Savings Bank owed depositors \$628,489 on the first of March last, some of which it had invested in bank stock, but the bulk of the deposits in provincial stock, the money given for which here is sure to be wanted. The State gets the money of the rich by borrowing—of the poor by savings banks. It controls the sources of public welfare—I wish I could add that it desired to promote that welfare.

The Montreal City and District Savings Bank (Mr. F. A. Larocque, I believe, with J. Armour, being its chief business men) had only about \$280,000 of deposits last January, and the moneys were mostly laid out in stock of the Montreal Banks manufactured as above stated.

We have never had an Auditor of Public Accounts in Canada—none at least since 1821, when England had to pay our officials and there were no cash accounts here to audit. Last May a bill passed to create an Auditor; but an audit is useless unless there are rules. Our Government takes what money it pleases from the chest, regardless of all legislative supplies. The duty of an auditor is to see that what is done is according to law; and where the bill gave power to the Inspector General and Treasurer to place moneys in and draw them out of banks, a member moved that no warrant should be paid unless it contained a certificate from the proper officer that it was according to law, naming the statute giving power. In a house of 96 members there were but 27 yeas—Sir Allan Macnab and the Executive Council being all hostile!

THE MINT OF THE UNITED STATES.

By the Act of Congress, of April 2d, 1792, "A Mint for the purpose of a national coinage," was established, to be located at "the seat of government of the United States," (which was then at Philadelphia.) The Act of 14th of May, 1800, directed "that until the 4th day of March, 1801, the Mint shall remain in the City of Philadelphia," which period of continuance was lengthened for two years, by Act of March 3d, 1801; and this last enactment was revived and continued in force for successive periods of five years, until the 4th of March, 1828, when the location of the Mint at Philadelphia was made permanent by Act of Congress of May 19th, 1828; and there it has since remained, a great addition to the many architectural beauties of that city, and an object of much interest to its citizens and to strangers.

The original Mint building, a portion of which is yet standing, was in Seventh street, opposite Zane, and is still known as the "Old Mint." It continued in this location until the present noble edifice was erected, at the northwest corner of Chesnut and Juniper streets, in the years 1829, '30, '31. The corner-stone of this magnificent structure was laid July 4th, 1829, and the building was finished and occupied in the spring of 1833. The work was completed under the direction of William Strickland, Esq., architect; the masonry was executed by Maj. Peter Fritz, and the marble work by Mr. John Struthers, of Philadelphia. The building, which is of the Ionic order, after the celebrated

Grecian Temple on the river Ilysus, near Athens, is of marble, faced with ashlers, having a front on Chestnut street of 120 feet, divided into a portico of 62 feet, and two wings of the width each of 30 feet.

During the years 1855-56 the interior has undergone very extensive repairs, intended to render it completely fire-proof, conducted under the supervision of Capt. Andrew Talcott, late of the U. S. Corps Civil Engineers, and advantage has been taken of the opportunity thus afforded to introduce such alterations in the arrangements of the several departments of the institution, as will afford increased comfort and facilities in the operations, and insure still greater security to the bullion and treasure. In the execution of these alterations all the wood-work which it was practicable to remove has been substituted by iron frames and girders, so that no danger can possibly be apprehended hereafter from accident by fire.

It may be interesting to present to our readers a brief statement of the *modus operandi* of converting the precious dust into the form of coin, and for this purpose we will follow a deposit through its several stages in the institution, until it has been manufactured into coin.

The deposit is made in the "Weigh Room" of the Mint, in its crude state, and a receipt is given for what is termed its "weight before melting." Thence it passes into the "Deposit Melting Room," where it is converted into a bar or ingot, in such a manner that the foreign substances—dirt and sand in the deposit—are collected together in a concentrated form, and the weight of the metal remaining is then registered as the "weight after melting"—that upon which, and a determination of the fineness by assay, the value returned to the depositor is calculated. The bar or ingot thus formed from the deposit is then transferred to the Melting and Refining Department, and is here made of "standard fineness," (900-1000) by the addition of the proper proportions of silver and copper, if the gold is of higher fineness than standard, or the refining of the deposit by the removal of the requisite amount of foreign substance or metal, if under the legal standard of fineness. It is then turned into ingots of the fineness required by law, and in this form is passed into the Coining Department. Here the ingot is rolled into a strip of the width and thickness of the coin into which it is intended to be converted, and the strip thus obtained is passed through a cutting machine, by which the disks or planchets of the size of the proposed coin are cut from it. The planchets are then transferred to the adjusting room, where they are severally weighed by the adjusters, and if found to be too heavy, they are reduced by filing to the proper weight; but if too light, the planchets are "condemned," and returned to the Melting and Refining Department, there to be re-melted and cast into ingots, as before. Thus adjusted in weight, the planchets are passed through the stamping and milling machines, and are then transferred to the office of the Treasurer for distribution in the payment of deposits, with the devices and edge familiar to us all.

This brief statement, of course, can give but an inadequate idea of the several manipulations and operations necessary for the manufacture of the dust, as it is taken from the mines of California, into the pieces into which it is converted; and we have purposely avoided any description of the several operations of toughening, refining, assaying, &c., as requiring the use of technical terms unfamiliar to the reader, and occupying more space than we can allow to this article. We may

add that the supposition entertained by many that the identical bullion deposited is returned to the depositor in coins, is an erroneous one; this would occasion too great delay in the payment of deposits. By the assay of a portion of the ingot into which the bullion is cast after the first melt we have described, the fineness of the whole deposit is determined; upon the fineness thus found, and the "weight after melting," the standard fineness of the bullion is calculated, and the value paid to the depositor, generally the day succeeding that of the making of his deposit.

All the machinery of the Mint is of the most complete and beautiful description—the engine a very model of elegance, of workmanship, and of accuracy in operation. It is believed that when the repairs to which we have alluded shall be fully completed, the capacity of the Mint will be amply sufficient to meet every demand likely to be made upon it. The present force of the institution consists of one hundred and twenty-nine operatives, divided as follows: The force of the Melting and Refining Department is composed of 30 workmen, and that of the Coining Department of 48 workmen, and 47 females, employed as adjusters. The former department is under the management of Prof. James C. Booth, as Melter and Refiner, and the latter under that of George K. Childs, Esq., Chief Coiner. The Assay Department, where the fineness of the several deposits made at the institution, and of the ingots, &c., manufactured in the Melting and Refining Department, is tested by the process of assay, is in charge of J. R. Eckfeldt, Esq., the Assayer; the force of this department consists of four assistants and three workmen. The Engraving Department, at the head of which is Jas. B. Longacre, Esq., the Engraver, employs one assistant and four workmen; it is in this latter department that all the dies, &c., required for the coinage at the Mint and its several branches at San Francisco, New Orleans, Charlotte, (N.C.) and Dahlonega, (Ga.) are prepared. The Treasurer of the institution is the Hon. Daniel Sturgeon, and the Director the Hon. James Ross Snowden, through whose kindness we are enabled to present the information herein given.

Attached to the Mint is a Museum, containing a great number of specimens of the coinage of all nations and all ages, many of which are very old, and a number of them very rare, and forming a most interesting and valuable collection of coins. It also contains superb specimens of ores of the precious and other metals, from the principal mining regions of the world; and a series of portraits of the Directors of the institution, from Mr. Rittenhouse to Dr. Patterson. Here also are preserved a number of ancient relics, household vessels, &c., &c., and a cabinet in which are exhibited bronze copies of the medals struck under the authority of the general government, in commemoration of national events; the whole making a *tout ensemble* of exceeding interest.

The admission of visitors to the Mint was suspended last summer, on the commencement of the repairs to the interior of the building, but it is hoped that in the course of a few months the alterations will be sufficiently complete to enable Col. Snowden to admit of the visits of strangers passing through or sojourning in that city, and of those of our citizens who have not yet availed themselves of an opportunity of witnessing the interesting operations of the institution, and of inspecting the relics and other objects of interest collected in the Museum. Notice will be given through the press when these visits may be resumed.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

STATISTICS OF THE COFFEE TRADE.

The following tables show the range of prices and average at New York for the years 1853 to 1855, a period of three years, as furnished to our hands by the *Price Current and Shipping List*:—

	BRAZIL.			Average for the month.		
	1st.	10th.	20th.	1855.	1854.	1853.
January.....	8½ a 10½	9 a 10½	9 a 10½	\$9 66	\$11 58	\$9 12
February.....	9 a 10½	9 a 10¾	9 a 10½	9 79	10 71	9 33
March.....	9 a 10½	9½ a 11	10 a 11½	10 25	11 00	9 38
April.....	10 a 11½	10 a 11½	10 a 11¾	10 79	10 67	9 42
May.....	9¾ a 11	9½ a 11	9 a 10¾	10 12½	10 46	9 21
June.....	8¾ a 10¾	9 a 10¾	9½ a 10¾	9 83	9 79	8 83
July.....	9¾ a 11	9½ a 11	10 a 11½	10 46	9 83	8 92
August.....	10 a 11½	9½ a 11½	9¾ a 11½	10 62½	10 00	9 21
September.....	10 a 12	10 a 12	10 a 12	11 00	10 19	10 79
October.....	10 a 11¾	10 a 11¾	10 a 11¾	10 87½	10 79	10 79
November.....	10 a 11¾	9½ a 11½	9½ a 11½	10 62½	10 29	10 81
December.....	9½ a 11¾	10 a 12	10 a 12½	10 96	9 67	11 46
Average for the year.....				10 41	10 41	9 77

MARACAIBO AND LAGUAYRA.						
	1st.	10th.	20th.	1855.	1854.	1853.
January.....	9 a 10½	9 a 11	9 a 10¾	9 87½	11 87	9 00
February.....	9 a 10¾	9 a 10¾	9 a 11½	10 60	11 67	9 48
March.....	10 a 11¾	10 a 11¾	10 a 11¾	10 87½	11 79	9 50
April.....	10¾ a 12½	10¾ a 12½	10¾ a 12½	11 62½	11 58	9 50
May.....	10½ a 11½	10½ a 11	10½ a 11	10 75	11 29	9 33
June.....	10 a 11	10½ a 11	10 a 11½	10 62½	10 54	9 00
July.....	10 a 11½	10 a 11½	10 a 11½	10 75	10 42	9 00
August.....	10½ a 11½	9¾ a 11½	9¾ a 11½	10 75	10 50	9 33
September.....	10 a 11½	10 a 12	10½ a 12	11 00	10 67	10 00
October.....	10½ a 12	10½ a 12	10½ a 12	11 25	11 00	10 83
November.....	10½ a 12	10½ a 12	10½ a 12	11 25	10 83	11 08
December.....	10½ a 12	10½ a 12	11 a 12	11 33	9 83	11 62
Average for the year.....				10 84	11 00	9 81

ST. DOMINGO.						
	1st.	10th.	20th.	1855.	1854.	1853.
January.....	8¾ a 9½	9 a 9½	8¾ a 9½	9 12½	10 35	7 98
February.....	9 a 9¼	9 a 9¼	8¾ a 9	9 06	9 83	8 12
March.....	8¾ a 9	. a 9	9½ a 9¾	9 08	9 83	8 25
April.....	9½ a 9¾	9½ a 9¾	9½ a 9¾	9 48	9 37	8 25
May.....	9½ a 9¾	9½ a 9¾	9½ a 9¾	9 26	9 27	8 47
June.....	9½ a 9¾	9½ a 9¾	9½ a 9¾	9 26	8 96	8 46
July.....	9½ a 9¾	9½ a 9¾	9½ a 9¾	9 39	9 08	8 62
August.....	9¾ a 9¾	9¾ a 10	. a 10	9 77	9 33	8 71
September.....	10 a 10½	10 a 10½	10 a 10½	10 14	9 37	9 21
October.....	10 a 10½	9¾ a 10	9¾ a 10	9 98	10 08	9 71
November.....	9¾ a 9¾	9¾ a 9¾	9¾ a 9¾	9 71	9 52	9 62
December.....	9¾ a 9¾	9¾ a 10	. a 10¾	9 98	9 12	10 17
Average for the year.....				9 52	9 51	8 80

STATISTICS OF THE COFFEE TRADE—(CONTINUED.)

	JAVA (WHITE.)			Average for the month.		
	1st.	10th.	20th.	1855.	1854.	1853.
January.....	13 a 13½	13 a 13½	13 a 13½	\$13 25	\$13 04	\$11 75
February.....	13 a 13½	13 a 13½	13 a 13½	13 25	13 25	11 75
March.....	13 a 13½	13 a 13½	13½ a 14½	13 50	14 00	11 75
April.....	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	14 00	14 17	11 50
May.....	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	14 00	14 46	11 33
June.....	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	14 00	14 25	11 33
July.....	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	14 a 14½	14 08	13 58	11 14
August.....	14 a 14½	14 a 14½	13 a 14½	14 08	13 25	11 12
September.....	14 a 14½	14 a 14½	14 a 14½	14 31	13 17	11 50
October.....	14 a 14½	14 a 14½	14 a 14½	14 31	13 29	11 75
November.....	14 a 14½	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	14 08	13 42	11 79
December.....	13½ a 14½	13½ a 14½	13 a 14½	13 92	13 29	13 08
Average for the year.....				13 90	13 60	11 65

PRODUCTION OF FLOUR IN 1856.

The Cincinnati *Price Current* estimates the quantity of wheat gathered the present harvest at fully 10 per cent greater than has been gathered any previous year. The same authority also states that the quality of the new wheat is excellent. The grain is full and bright, and perfectly dry and sound; and from a careful examination of the advices which it has received, it feels justified in giving the following figures as the quantity of wheat gathered in each State this year:—

States.	Bushels.	States.	Bushels.
Maine.....	400,600	Alabama.....	1,200,000
New Hampshire.....	230,000	Mississippi.....	500,000
Vermont.....	640,000	Texas.....	150,000
Massachusetts.....	46,000	Arkansas.....	300,000
Connecticut.....	60,000	Tennessee.....	3,200,000
New York.....	16,200,000	Kentucky.....	5,750,000
New Jersey.....	1,800,000	Missouri.....	5,600,000
Pennsylvania.....	18,250,000	Illinois.....	14,600,000
Delaware.....	700,000	Indiana.....	11,250,000
Maryland.....	5,100,000	Ohio.....	16,800,000
Virginia.....	12,500,000	Michigan.....	5,200,000
North Carolina.....	4,200,000	Wisconsin.....	8,250,000
South Carolina.....	2,100,000	Iowa.....	4,100,000
Georgia.....	1,750,000	California.....	1,600,000
Total.....			142,836,000

In the British islands, at last accounts, the weather was favorable, and the crop looked well. In France, there is some fear of a short crop, but any deficiency will be largely supplied from the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, and perhaps, in some measure, from Russia. In Russia, the crops are reported as promising well. This prospect of cheap bread is a joyous one for the toiling millions.

IMPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

TABLE OF IMPORTS OF WHEAT AND FLOUR INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM, SHOWING THE COUNTRIES FROM WHICH THESE IMPORTS HAVE BEEN DRAWN:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
Russia, Northern Ports...	47,716	69,084	35,700	27,112	252,243
Do. Black Sea do....	546,501	569,529	663,984	706,622	818,930
Denmark and Holstein..	241,751	162,207	163,768	218,834	294,296
Hanseatic Towns.....	329,963	222,289	696,175	452,293	1,145,845
Prussia.....	616,612	835,650	100,987	41,487	223,914
Other German Ports....	167,448	158,655	163,733	130,144	185,417
Holland.....	306,411	293,465	66,414	114,963	57,732
France.....	738,833	1,145,146	1,193,433	459,418	341,444
Italy.....	279,680	117,323	241,852	65,104	164,255
Moldavia and Wallachia..	46,972	70,035	164,374	86,139	227,143
Turkey.....	116,415	65,523	175,565	40,341	251,343
Egypt.....	128,273	247,235	533,991	394,608	357,906
British North America...	141,266	80,394	123,680	110,033	168,021
United States.....	613,601	537,030	911,855	1,231,893	1,582,641
Other Countries.....	481,627	256,893	84,700	67,552	164,100
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	4,802,475	4,830,263	5,330,412	4,164,603	6,235,860

TABLE SHOWING THE IMPORTS OF CORN AND FLOUR INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM IN THE FOLLOWING YEARS, AND THE COUNTRIES FROM WHENCE THOSE SUPPLIES WERE DRAWN:—

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
Russia, Northern Ports..	340,633	363,779	572,257	343,949	634,404	169,565
Russia, Black Sea Ports.	572,735	589,250	762,160	957,877	1,070,483	539,836
Denmark and Holstein..	1,311,086	1,077,735	843,007	770,194	947,016	876,269
Prussia.....	1,354,691	1,343,780	930,160	554,703	1,177,764	728,914
Hanse Towns.....	596,673	392,853	143,476	167,858	305,011	420,489
Other parts of Germany.	416,023	457,844	336,691	339,734	363,075	365,190
Holland.....	586,739	495,614	153,777	221,563	170,762	250,358
France.....	1,019,410	1,328,922	1,591,377	748,162	741,242	224,712
Italy.....	406,034	210,249	655,905	193,174	237,755	117,947
Moldavia and Wallachia.	325,128	217,505	624,242	713,876	665,106	147,990
Turkey.....	423,976	276,528	474,937	200,021	744,804	308,033
Egypt.....	392,727	558,063	958,995	777,745	643,129	588,969
British North America..	181,622	95,860	143,378	126,240	189,357	84,757
United States.....	1,816,425	1,082,755	1,211,365	1,400,420	1,821,484	2,136,223
Other Countries.....	925,759	528,853	316,294	233,353	489,633	956,052
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	10,669,661	9,019,590	9,618,026	7,746,669	10,173,135	7,909,544

THE COMMERCE OF ALGERIA.

The French government has just published a table showing the commerce of Algeria with France and foreign countries from 1831 to 1855. The returns are divided into four periods, corresponding with the different customs systems successively introduced into that country. The first period is comprised between 1831 and 1835, being the time when all was regulated by decrees issued by the governor-general. The average of the imports to Algeria during these five years amounted to 9,260,000 francs (1½ mills doll.) and that of the exports to 1,666,000 francs. The second period embraces eight years, from 1836 to 1843,

being the time when the royal ordinance of November, 1835, was in force. The average of the imports during that period was 50,806,000 francs, and of the exports 4,865,000 francs. The third period comprises seven years, from 1844 to 1850, being the regime of the royal ordinance of December, 1843. The average of the imports was 88,347,000 francs, and of the exports 9,800,000 francs. Lastly, the fourth period comprises five years, from 1851 to 1855. The average of the imports was then 78,363,000 francs, and of the exports 32,725,000 francs. The total value of the commerce of Algeria, from 1830 to 1855, was the following: imports, 1,463,000 francs; exports, 279,482,000.

POSTAGE STAMPS.

The invention of postage stamps is generally ascribed to the English, and certainly they were first brought into use in England, in 1839; but a Stockholm paper, the *Fryskiten*, says that, so far back as 1823, a Swedish officer, Lieut. Trekenber, of the artillery, petitioned the Chamber of Nobles, to propose to the government to issue stamped paper, specially destined to serve for envelopes for prepaid letters. "The fact," it adds, "is duly recorded in the minutes of the Chamber, under date of the 23d March, 1823. The proposition was warmly supported by Count de Schwerin, on the ground that the invention, if thus used, would be both convenient to the public and the post office, but it was rejected by a large majority."

LIVERPOOL TRADE AND SHIPPING.

The annual statement of the trade and navigation of the United Kingdom for 1855, which has just been issued, presents us with some important statistics in reference to that portion of both which belongs to the port of Liverpool. The number of vessels which entered from foreign ports was 3,458, of the aggregate burden of 1,619,128 tons; and of these 1,859 were British, and 1,599 foreign, the latter being of the greatest average tonnage. Nearly one-third of the foreign vessels were from the United States, and these represent two-thirds of the aggregate tonnage of the whole. The number of vessels which entered from British possessions abroad was 1,035, of the aggregate burden of 571,276 tons; and of these 970 were British and 65 foreign. More than half of these were from ports of the British possessions in North America. This makes the entire number of vessels entered inwards during the year 4,493, and their aggregate burden 2,190,404 tons. There cleared outwards for foreign ports 3,313 vessels, and for British possessions 1,238, their united tonnage amounting in the aggregate to 2,161,265 tons. Nearly one-third of those which cleared for foreign ports went to the United States, and after these the greatest number went to ports in Central and South America. Of those which cleared for foreign ports, 1,624 were British, and 1,689 foreign; and to British possessions there went 1,152 British and 86 foreign vessels. One fact is remarkable,—namely, that twelve British and eighteen foreign vessels arrived in Liverpool during last year from Russian ports, and that five British and sixteen foreign vessels cleared outward for the same. Under what flags this trade has been carried on does not appear, but the fact of a commerce existing openly with a country with which we are engaged in active hostilities is deserving of attention.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

NAUTICAL INVENTION—WRECKS—ALARMS.

MR. RUFUS PORTER, of Washington, has matured a nautical invention, which gives promise of extraordinary utility in preventing shipwrecks and marine disasters on our coasts, and which combines so much simplicity, with manifest utility, that the wonder is that it has been overlooked so long. The invention consists of a loud whistle, or series of whistles, attached to the head of a hollow vertical cylinder, to be adjusted and secured upon dangerous points of our coasts, or over reefs, shoals, and submarine rocks, for the purpose of being operated by the undulation of the waves or swells of the sea, and at the approach of every wave sending forth sounds similar to the shrill steam-whistle of locomotive engines, thus giving notice to mariners of the location of danger. These sonoric indicators may be easily erected and permanently secured, so as to withstand the most furious breakers, or resist the force of floating ice, and may be shielded from storms of sleet or snow. Different indicators will produce different sounds, so that the special point of danger will be recognized by the peculiar sounds even in the darkest night or in the densest fogs. Some of these whistles will give sounds by the force of small waves of two inches in height, while others which require more force to blow them will be loud enough to be heard a distance of three miles; and so simple is the apparatus that in some locations the expense will not exceed twenty dollars. The inventor has taken measures to procure letters patent for this invention, and is about to erect one of the sonoric beacons near the arsenal in Washington, and expects its sound to be heard at the Capitol, a distance of over a mile. The opinion has been expressed by an old ship-master, that one-half of the marine disasters which occur on our coasts would be prevented by a judicious distribution and arrangement of the sonoric beacons.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

Official information has been received at this office that the Turkish government has given notice that the following lights, situate respectively in the Dardanelles, Bosphorus, and Black Sea, were relighted on the 1st of June, 1856:—

GALLIPOLI—DARDANELLES.

A fixed white light has been temporarily placed on the tower nearest to the town of Gallipoli, on the European shore of the Dardanelles, at a height of 98 feet above the level of the sea, and should be visible from the deck of a ship at 10 miles distance, in clear weather. This light will shortly be replaced by a revolving light of the second order.

FANAR BAKCHEH—SKUTARI.

A fixed white light has been established on the point of Fanar Bakcheh, on the coast of Asia, three miles and-a-half to the southward of the town of Skutari, at a height of 84 feet above the level of the sea, and should be visible at a distance of 10 miles.

ANADOLI LIGHT—BOSPHORUS.

A revolving light has been established on the ancient tower of Anatolia, on the Asiatic shore, at the entrance from the Bosphorus into the Black Sea. The light shows, alternately, a red face followed by two white faces, or flashes at intervals

of two minutes each; the light gradually increasing and decreasing, but never totally eclipsed. It stands at a height of 250 feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen at a distance of 18 miles in clear weather. The illuminating apparatus is a catadioptric lens of the third order.

RUMILI LIGHT—BOSPHORUS.

A fixed white light has been established on the ancient tower of Roumelia, on the European shore, at the entrance from the Bosphorus into the Black Sea. It stands at an elevation of 190 feet above the level of the sea, and should be visible at a distance of 18 miles in clear weather. The illuminating apparatus is a catadioptric lens of the third order.

FIDONISI LIGHT—BLACK SEA.

A fixed light has been temporarily placed on Fidonisi, or Serpent Island, in the Black Sea, off the coast of Bulgaria, at 24 miles E. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. of the Sulina entrance of the Danube. The lighthouse is of wood, painted white, 70 feet high, and stands on the summit of the island, in lat. $45^{\circ} 15' 36''$ N., long. $30^{\circ} 14' 54''$ east of Greenwich. The light is shown at an elevation of 195 feet above the level of the sea, but at present has a range of only 10 miles; it is visible through an arc of the horizon of 200° , or from west (magnetic) round southerly to E. N. E. This temporary light will shortly be replaced by a revolving light of the second class. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE LIGHTHOUSE BOARD, }
WASHINGTON, August 9, 1856.

PONTAILLAC LIGHT, RIVER GIRONDE—ATLANTIC OCEAN—FRANCE.

The French Government has given notice, that on the 10th of July, 1856, a light, alternately red and white, (each color lasting twenty seconds, without intervening eclipse,) was exhibited from the summit of a wooden tower erected on the high ground of Pontailiac, situated near the entrance and on the north bank of the River Gironde, on the west coast of France. The tower is 104 feet high, and the light 177 feet above the level of the water, and should be visible 15 miles in clear weather. It stands in latitude $45^{\circ} 38' 10''$ N., longitude $1^{\circ} 3' 42''$ W. of Greenwich. The north channel leading into the Gironde is lighted already by three lights exclusive of that of Cordouan; one on Point de la Coubre, the second on Point de la Falaise, and the third on the tower of Terre Negre.

SAILING DIRECTIONS.—In entering the Gironde by the north channel at night, bring the white fixed light of Terre Negre on with the red and white light of Pontailiac, and keep them so until the Point de la Coubre light bears N. N. E., then alter course immediately, and steer for the revolving light of Cordouan, until you have brought the lights on Point de la Falaise and Terre Negre in one. Steer for and keep these lights in one until Cordouan light bears S. S. W., after which alter course to S. E. by S. [All courses and bearings are magnetic. Var. 20° 45' West.] By command of their Lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, }
London, July 21, 1856.

This notice affects the following Admiralty Charts:—Ushant to Finisterre, No. 64; Sables d'Olonne to the Gironde, No. 71; Gironde to Arcachon, No. 72; French Lighthouse List, No. 160.

RED LIGHT AT THE NARROWS, BOSTON HARBOR.

A fixed red light was exhibited on the night of August 1, 1856, (in conformity to previous notice,) from the screw pile lighthouse erected on the spit abreast the Narrows, Boston Harbor. The house is a hexagonal building, painted a dark brown color; is elevated on seven iron piles, and surmounted with an iron lantern. The light is designed as a guide for clearing the spit, by vessels passing through the main ship channel, and is illuminated by a lens apparatus of the sixth order,

elevated 35 feet above high water mark. This light in range with Long Island Head light will take a vessel clear off the Harding's. From Point Alderton buoy, this light is in range with Long Island Head light, and they bear W. N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. This range will take a vessel by the buoy, in 19 feet water at low tide. Large vessels, in entering, should bring Long Island Head light open to the northward of the Spit light.

The following magnetic bearings are given from this light:—False Spit buoy, E. S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.; Point Alderton buoy, E. S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ E.; North Centurion buoy, S. E. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.; Long Island Head light, W. N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W.; Mix's Mate beacon, N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

C. H. B. CALDWELL, Lighthouse Inspector, 2d Dist.

BOSTON, August 1, 1856.

FOG BELLS ON MOUNT DESERT AND MATINICUS ROCKS, COAST OF MAINE.

A fog bell weighing 1,500 pounds has been placed on Mount Desert rock, near the lighthouse. The bell is placed on an open frame structure, painted white and brown, and is about 50 feet above the level of the sea. It is worked by machinery and strikes about seven times in one minute. A bell of the same weight has been placed on Matinicus Rock, on a frame precisely like that of the Mount Desert Rock bell. This bell strikes ten times in one minute. Both of these bells will be sounded hereafter in thick weather. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

W. B. FRANKLIN, Lighthouse Inspector, 1st Dist.

PORTLAND, Me., August 5, 1856.

CALIBOGUE SOUND LIGHT-VESSEL.

A light-vessel has been moored in Calibogue Sound, (in 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms water at low tide,) between Grenadier Shoals and the Eastern Breakers, running off the southeastern point of Hilton Head. She is schooner-rigged, with a third mast for the lantern; hull painted red, and will show one bright white light at an elevation of 30 feet above the sea. Tybe light bears S. $\frac{3}{4}$ W.; Tybe beacon bears S.; Braddock's Point bears N. by E.; Southeast point of Hilton Head bears E. N. E. The light will be shown for the first time on the evening of August 1st. Bearings and courses are magnetic. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

C. MANIGAULT MORRIS, Lighthouse Inspector, 6th Dist.

CHARLESTON, S. C., July 22, 1856.

GAY HEAD LIGHTHOUSE—MARTHA'S VINEYARD SOUND.

A new lighthouse has been erected on Gay Head, entrance of Martha's Vineyard Sound. The tower is built of brick, and is thirty-five feet high. The keeper's houses are of brick also, and the centre of the tower is twelve feet in front of the centre of the houses. The color is the natural color of the brick. The focal plane of the light is one hundred and ninety-one feet above the level of the sea; and the distance at which it will be visible from the deck of a vessel fifteen feet above the level of the sea is at least twenty nautical miles. The illuminating apparatus is a revolving Fresnel lens of the first order, showing a bright flash every ten seconds. This light will be exhibited for the first time at sundown, December 1, 1856, from which date the revolving light shown at Gay Head at present will be discontinued. By order of the Lighthouse Board:

W. B. FRANKLIN, First Lieut. Corps of Topographical Engineers.

WASHINGTON, D. C., July 22, 1856.

BUOY ON CROSS LEDGE SHOAL, DELAWARE BAY.

A third class nun buoy, painted red, has been placed in seven feet water, to indicate the foundation of the lighthouse upon this shoal. The foundation bears N. N. E., distant 15 yards; the Ledge light-vessel bears S. S. W.; the Ledge buoy bears S. by W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W., distant $\frac{3}{4}$ mile. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

EDWARD M. YARD, Lighthouse Inspector, 4th Dist.

PHILADELPHIA, Pa., August 8, 1856.

VOL. XXXV.—NO. III.

NOTICE TO MARINERS.

Official information has been received at this office, that at different places on the western coast of North Jutland, and on the Isle of Bornholm, (Denmark,) salvage stations for the saving of lives from shipwreck, are established, furnished with all necessary apparatus for the purpose, such as life-boats and rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.

The stations are as follows, viz. :—

1. ON THE WESTERN COAST OF NORTH JUTLAND.

Skagen,	furnished with life-boat and rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.
Kandestederne,	“ “ “ “
Hirtshals,	“ “ “ “
Lonstrup,	“ “ “ “
Lokken,	“ “ “ “
Blokhuse,	“ “ “ “
Slette Strand,	“ “ “ “
Lild Strand,	“ “ “ “
Hanstedholm,	“ “ “ “
Klitmoller,	rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.
Nodre-Vorupore,	life-boat and rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.
Vester-Agger,	rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.
Agger Kanal,	life boat.
Thybo-Ron,	rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.
Flyvholm,	life-boat and rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.
Tusklær,	“ “ “ “
Vædersø-Klit,	“ “ “ “
Sonder-Lyngvig,	“ “ “ “
Bierregaard,	rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.
Henestrand,	“ “ “ “
Blaavandshuk,	life-boat and rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.

2. ON THE ISLE OF BORNHOLM.

Ronne,	furnished with rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.
Allinge,	“ “ “ “
Gudhiem,	“ “ “ “
Svanike,	“ “ “ “
Snogebak,	life-boat and rocket-apparatus for carrying a line.

“If communication with a stranded vessel in no other way can be effected, a 9-yarn line will be thrown at the shipwrecked men by aid of a rocket-apparatus; hauling on board this line, a 3½-inch hawser will follow, at the end of which a block is made fast, in which is the bight of a thin line. Both ends of this line are fast on the life-chair, that with its thimble traverses on the 3½-inch hawser. The hawser must be made fast on board the ship as high as possible, in order that the chair, if possible, may clear the surf. By the aid of the thin line that passes through the block made fast on the hawser on board, the chair can be hauled to and fro, from the beach, and thus the communication for the saving of the shipwrecked is effected.”

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE LIGHTHOUSE BOARD, }
WASHINGTON, July 25, 1856.

LIGHTHOUSE ON CHANDELEUR ISLAND—COAST OF LOUISIANA.

The new lighthouse on the Chandeleur Island has been completed and will be lighted on the 15th inst. It is situated at the north end of the island, near the site of the former lighthouse, and will show a fixed white light by means of a 4th order lens. The tower is white and fifty feet high. The light should be visible from a common deck at a distance of 13 nautical miles. A safe anchorage in 4 fathoms

can be had during easterly storms, under the lee of this light, by hugging the east and north shore of the island, in that depth of water, around westerly and southerly till the light is brought to bear N. E., about two miles distant. The Ship Island light can be seen from this anchorage, bearing from the Chandeleur Island light nearly N. W. (magnetic) 17 miles distant. By order of the Lighthouse Board :

D. LEADBETTER, Lighthouse Inspector, 8th District.

MOBILE, ALA., August 5, 1856.

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**ST. CROIX LIGHTHOUSE—MAINE.**

A lighthouse will be built during the present season on Big Island, in the St. Croix River, otherwise called Neutral Island and St. Croix Island. The structure will be built of wood, and the tower will be on the top of the keeper's house. The color will be white. The light shown will be fixed, of the natural color, and the illuminating apparatus will be a Fresnel lens of the fifth order. The centre of the light will be about forty feet above the level of high water, and the light will be seen in good weather about eleven nautical miles. Notice giving the latitude and longitude will be published before the light is placed in operation. The lighthouse will be lighted for the first time on the night of Monday, the 2d day of Feb., 1857, and will be kept burning during every night thereafter. By order of the Lighthouse Board :

W. B. FRANKLIN, Lighthouse Inspector First District.

PORTLAND, ME., July 17, 1856.

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LIGHT AT THE NARROWS, BOSTON HARBOR.

A screw pile lighthouse has been erected on the spit abreast the Narrows, Boston Harbor. The house is a hexagonal building, painted a dark brown color ; is elevated on seven iron piles, and surmounted with an iron lantern. The light is designed as a guide to clear the spit by vessels passing through the main ship channel. On the night of the first of August next, and every night thereafter, it will be illuminated with a lens light of the 6th order, elevated 35 feet above high-water mark. By order of the Lighthouse Board :

C. H. B. CALDWELL, Lighthouse Inspector, 2d District.

BOSTON, July 15, 1856.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

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**ACT OF LOUISIANA RELATING TO STEAMBOATS.**

We publish below the several sections of an act passed at the last session of the Legislature of Louisiana, regulating the steamboats of that State. This act was approved March 15, 1855, and is now in force :—

**AN ACT RELATIVE TO STEAMBOATS.**

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana in General Assembly convened, That any accident, except such as is impossible to be foreseen or avoided, that may happen to any steamboat from racing, carrying higher steam than may be allowed by law, running into or foul of another boat, or that may occur whilst the captain, pilot or engineer is engaged in gambling, or attending any game of chance or hazard, or whenever an accident happens from the boat being overloaded, the owner of the boat shall be responsible for all loss or damage, and shall be barred from the recovery of freight or insurance ; and the officers violating the provisions of this section shall be subject to a fine of not less than five hundred nor more than two thousand dollars, and imprisonment for not less than three months nor more than three years ; and in the event of loss of life being the result of such accident, then said officers shall be adjudged guilty of manslaughter.

SEC. 2. Be it further enacted, &c., That when gunpowder is shipped on board of a steamboat, it shall be stored away at as great a distance as possible from the furnace, and a written notification of the fact shall be placed on three conspicuous parts of the boat, and in the event of such notification not being so exhibited, then for any loss of property or life, for which the powder may be deemed the cause, the owner and captain shall be liable to the penalty provided in the preceding section.

SEC. 3. Be it further enacted, &c., That any person who shall ship or put on board or cause to be shipped or put on board of any steamboat within this State any gunpowder, without giving notice thereof at the time of making the shipment to the master or clerk of said boat, shall be liable to a penalty of two hundred dollars, which may be sued for and recovered by the owner, captain or clerk of said boat, for his own use and benefit; and in case of any loss of property in consequence of gunpowder being on board of said boat, the shipper that shall have failed to give due notice as herein required, shall be liable therefor, or for any injury done to any person or to their family, and in case of the loss of life, the person who shall have shipped the same without giving due notice thereof, shall, on conviction, be adjudged guilty of manslaughter.

SEC. 4. Be it further enacted, &c., That it shall be the duty of captains and owners, or the agent of every steamboat, under the penalties mentioned in the first section to substitute an iron chain for the rope now used as a tiller rope.

SEC. 5. Be it further enacted, &c., That when the captain or other person in command of any steamboat shall take, or cause to be taken from any wood yard any cord wood or wood of any other kind, he shall pay for such wood the price demanded by the owner thereof. In case of refusal or neglect to pay the price so demanded, in the current coin of the United States, the owner of the boat shall pay the price thereof, together with fifty per cent on such price, as damages resulting from the non-payment thereof: Provided that such damages shall in no case exceed fifty dollars, unless on proof of damages to a greater extent.

SEC. 6. Be it further enacted, &c., That it shall not be necessary for the owner of wood to furnish proof of his claim against any steamboat for cord wood taken other than his affidavit, setting forth all the material facts connected with the taking of such wood, and refusal to pay therefor, accompanied with the certificate of the Judge, or a Justice of the Peace, in case of the absence or death of the Judge of the parish in which the affiant lives, that he is of good standing as to veracity, and is a citizen of that parish, which affidavit and certificate shall be *prima facie* evidence, and any person making such affidavit falsely, shall be guilty of perjury, and shall, on conviction, be punished according to law.

SEC. 7. Be it further enacted, &c., That the claim against steamboat owners for cord wood shall be the first privilege against steamboats, for and during the term of eight months from the time that such claim accrues, as regards all boats running beyond the limits of the State, and three months for boats running within the limits of the State.

SEC. 8. Be it further enacted, &c., That all captains or commanders of steamboats navigating lakes, rivers, bayous, within the jurisdiction of the State of Louisiana, shall, when running during the night, be compelled to hoist each two lights, both on the hurricane deck, one forward and the other at the stern, which lights shall be kept up without intermission throughout the night under the penalty of five hundred dollars for every failure or neglect, to be recovered of the captain or other commanding officer of such steamboat, one half of which penalty shall be for the use of the informer.

SEC. 9. Be it further enacted, &c., That in all cases where any loss or damage has been caused to the person or property of any individual by any carelessness, neglect, or want of skill in the direction or management of any steamboat, barge, flat-boat, water-craft or raft, the party injured shall have a privilege to rank after the first privileges specified by the Civil Code, article three thousand two hundred and four, and continue for the same length of time, and in the same manner provided for other privileges by the said article of the Civil Code upon such steamboat,

barge, flat-boat, water-craft or raft, for the amount of the loss or damages sustained and may proceed by attachment or *in rem* to recover the same.

Before so proceeding he, or if he be absent his agent or attorney, shall swear to the amount of the loss or damage sustained and file a bond with good and sufficient security in favor of the owners of the steamboat, barge, flat-boat, water-craft or raft, whomsoever they may be, whether their names be known or not, for a sum exceeding by one-half the amount of that which is claimed as a security for the payment of such damages as the owners may recover against him in case it should be decided that the attachment or proceeding was wrongfully obtained. It shall be sufficient for the oath required to be taken by the agent or attorney to be to the best of his knowledge or belief.

SEC. 10. Be it further enacted, &c., That all laws contrary to the provisions of this act, and all laws on the same subject matter, except what is contained in the Civil Code and Code of Practice, be repealed.

#### THE RAILROADS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1855.

The usual half-yearly return, recently published, gives the number of passengers conveyed by all railroads in the United Kingdom during the half year ended the 30th June, 1855, with other miscellaneous information on the subject of railways in general.

In ENGLAND and WALES there were 6,166 miles of railway open for traffic on the 30th June, 1855, against 6,112 in 1854. The total number of passengers conveyed by these railroads amounted to 43,286,143½, of whom 5,995,139½ were first class, 15,035,768½ second class, 8,123,096½ third class, and 14,122,814 "Parliamentary" passengers, besides 9,325 season ticket holders. The total receipts from these passengers amounted to the sum of £3,563,452 (including excess fares and tolls,) of which sum £1,090,102 accrued from first class travelers, £1,275,616 from second class, £333,719 from third class, and £774,952 from Parliamentarians. The total receipts from horses, carriages, luggage, parcels, and mails amounted to £450,026, and the total receipts from general merchandise, cattle and minerals to £4,436,914, making a grand total receipt from all sources of traffic of £8,450,394.

In SCOTLAND there were 1,051 miles of line open on the 30th June, 1855. On these lines 5,465,422 passengers were conveyed, viz: 667,433½ first classers, 833,529½ second classers, 719,200 third classers, and 3,243,289 Parliamentarians. Of season ticket holders there were 1,960. These travelers yielded a gross total revenue of £325,348, of which sum the first class passengers contributed £85,015, the second class £68,479, the third class £33,251, and the Parliamentarians £133,075. The receipts from horses, carriages, and luggage, &c., amounted to £46,859, and the receipts from general merchandise to £625,649. The grand total receipts from all sources amounted to £997,856.

In IRELAND there were 807 miles of road open on the 30th June, 1855. On these railroads travelled 3,063,584 passengers, including 379,228 of the first class, 1,231,865½ of the second class, 658,702 of the third class, 791,663 Parliamentarians, and 2,125½ season ticket holders. The total receipts from passengers amounted to £249,937, of which sum the first classers contributed £57,669, the second classers £94,658, the third classers £31,328, and the Parliamentary passengers £60,428. The receipts for horses, carriages, luggage and mails amounted to £45,558, and those from general goods and cattle to £150,301; making a grand total revenue from all sources of traffic of £445,698.

A comparative summary shows that in the whole of the United Kingdom there were, on the 30th June, 1855, 8,115 miles of line open for traffic, against 7,803 miles on the 30th June, 1854; that 51,815,149½ passengers were conveyed thereon, against 50,367,404 in 1854; that the receipts from passengers amounted to £4,125,487 (exclusive of extra fares,) against £4,081,792 in 1854; and that the receipts from goods and cattle amounted to £5,212,866, against £4,826,825 in 1854. The grand total revenue of all railroads for the half year was £9,894,049, against £9,424,603 in the corresponding half year of 1854.

#### TOLLS, TRADE, AND TONNAGE OF THE NEW YORK CANALS.

The Auditor of the Canal Department is required by law to make an annual report to the Legislature of New York, on the tolls, trade, and tonnage of the canals during the season of navigation. From a copy of this document, furnished to our hands by J. T. HEADLEY, Secretary of State, we condense the subjoined summary, reserving several interesting tabular statements for a future number of the *Merchants' Magazine* :—

The whole amount of tolls collected upon the several canals of this State during the last season of navigation, was \$2,805,076 10. Which amount is composed as follows :—

|                                    |           |             |
|------------------------------------|-----------|-------------|
| Toll on boats and passengers.....  |           | \$194,657   |
| “ products of the forest.....      | \$489,666 |             |
| “ products of animals.....         | 55,263    |             |
| “ vegetable food.....              | 1,094,128 |             |
| “ other agricultural products..... | 3,438     |             |
| “ manufactures.....                | 133,935   |             |
| “ merchandise.....                 | 660,105   |             |
| “ other articles.....              | 173,885   |             |
|                                    |           | <hr/>       |
|                                    |           | 2,610,420   |
|                                    |           | <hr/>       |
|                                    |           | \$2,805,077 |

The whole amount of tonnage transported on the canals during the last season of navigation, ascending and descending, was, in tons, 4,022,617, which was composed as follows :—

|                                  |         |           |
|----------------------------------|---------|-----------|
| Products of the forest.....      |         | 1,534,934 |
| Products of animals.....         | 48,691  |           |
| Vegetable food.....              | 993,175 |           |
| Other agricultural products..... | 5,478   |           |
|                                  |         | <hr/>     |
|                                  |         | 1,047,344 |
| Manufactures.....                |         | 281,873   |
| Merchandise.....                 |         | 374,402   |
| Other articles.....              |         | 784,064   |
|                                  |         | <hr/>     |
|                                  |         | 4,022,617 |

The value of such tonnage is estimated as follows :—

|                                  |             |               |
|----------------------------------|-------------|---------------|
| Products of the forest.....      |             | \$10,545,615  |
| Products of animals.....         | \$9,677,099 |               |
| Vegetable food.....              | 47,486,450  |               |
| Other agricultural products..... | 1,058,765   |               |
|                                  |             | <hr/>         |
|                                  |             | 58,222,314    |
| Manufactures.....                |             | 10,467,559    |
| Merchandise.....                 |             | 113,572,523   |
| Other articles.....              |             | 11,582,136    |
|                                  |             | <hr/>         |
| Total value.....                 |             | \$204,390,147 |

The total movement of freight, or number of tons carried one mile during the last season of navigation, was 619,170,651. The total movement of the several classes composing such total tonnage, is as follows:—

|                                  |             |
|----------------------------------|-------------|
| Products of the forest.....      | 178,223,492 |
| Products of animals.....         | 12,952,058  |
| Vegetable food.....              | 221,550,135 |
| Other agricultural products..... | 741,000     |
|                                  | <hr/>       |
| Manufactures.....                | 235,243,183 |
| Merchandise.....                 | 36,822,226  |
| Other articles.....              | 95,073,750  |
|                                  | <hr/>       |
| Total.....                       | 619,170,651 |

The whole amount of tonnage arriving at tide-water, by way of the Erie Canal, from Western States and Canada, during the last season of navigation, was 1,092,876 tons. The whole amount of tonnage arriving at tide-water, the produce of this State, during the same period, was 327,839 tons.

|                                                                                                                                                                    |           |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| The whole number of barrels of flour arriving at tide water through the canals, during the last season of navigation, was.....                                     | 1,290,156 |
| The whole number of bushels of wheat arriving during the same period was 5,426,266, which, turned into flour, calculating 5 bushels to the barrel, would make..... | 1,085,253 |

Total in barrels..... 2,375,409

The whole number of bushels of corn arriving at tide-water during the same period was..... 9,343,785

The total number of new boats registered during the last year is 471, with a total tonnage of 48,220 tons, making an average tonnage of 102.4.

Comparing the season of 1854 with that of 1855, it shows an increase in revenue of \$31,509 75, and a decrease in tonnage of 143,245 tons, divided among the different classes of articles as follows:—

|                                     |         |         |
|-------------------------------------|---------|---------|
| Products of the forest.....decrease | 233,811 |         |
| Products of animals.....            | 29,993  |         |
| Other agricultural products.....    | 4,942   |         |
| Merchandise.....                    | 31,620  |         |
|                                     | <hr/>   | 300,366 |
| Vegetable food.....increase         | 89,440  |         |
| Manufactures.....                   | 23,852  |         |
| Other articles.....                 | 43,829  |         |
|                                     | <hr/>   | 157,121 |
| Decrease.....                       |         | 143,245 |

The decrease in lockages at Alexander's Lock is 5,108. In flour and wheat comprised in the returns of vegetable food, there has been an increase in tonnage the past year, compared with 1854, of 138,433 tons, and an increase in tolls of \$185,183. In corn and oats there has been a decrease, during the same period, of 75,420 tons, and a decrease in tolls of \$108,261. Under the head of products of the forest, there was a decrease in tonnage upon shingles, boards, and scantling, as compared with 1854, of 198,725 tons, and a decreased tonnage upon timber, staves, and wood, of 34,753 tons, and a decrease in pot and pearl ashes, of 794 tons. Under the head of other articles, there was an increase in the tonnage of mineral coal, for the same period, of 15,113 tons, and a decrease in sundries, of 13,364 tons.

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## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

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### LAW OF LIMITED PARTNERSHIP IN THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.

We give below an authentic copy of the law of Illinois, in relation to limited partnerships, passed in 1847, and now in force :—

#### AN ACT IN RELATION TO LIMITED PARTNERSHIPS.

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the people of the State of Illinois, represented in General Assembly, That hereafter it shall be lawful to form limited partnerships within this State, according to the provisions of this act.

SEC. 2. Limited partnerships may consist of one or more persons, who shall be called general partners, and who shall be jointly and severally responsible, as general partners now are by law ; and of one or more persons who shall contribute a specific amount of capital in cash, or other property at cash value, to the common stock, who shall be special partners, and who shall not be liable for the debts of the partnership beyond the amount of the fund so contributed by them respectively to the capital stock, except as hereinafter provided.

SEC. 3. The general partners only shall be authorized to transact business, to sign for the partnership, and to bind the same.

SEC. 4. The persons desirous of forming such partnership, shall make and severally sign a certificate, which shall contain :—

- 1st. The name or firm under which the partnership is to be conducted.
- 2d. The general nature of the business to be transacted.
- 3d. The names of the general and special partners therein, distinguishing which are general and which are special partners, and their respective places of residence.
- 4th. The amount of capital stock which each special partner shall have contributed to the common stock ; and,
- 5th. The period at which the partnership is to commence, and the period when it will terminate.

SEC. 5. Such certificates shall be acknowledged by the several persons signing the same, before some officer authorized by law to take the acknowledgment of deeds ; and such acknowledgment shall be made and certified in the manner provided by law for the acknowledgment of deeds for the conveyance of land.

SEC. 6. The certificate so acknowledged and certified, shall be filed in the office of the clerk of the county in which the principal place of business shall be situated, and shall be recorded at large by the clerk in a book to be kept by him ; and such book shall be subject, at all reasonable hours, to the inspection of all persons who may choose to inspect the same. If the partnership shall have places of business situated in different counties, a transcript of such certificate, and of the acknowledgment thereof, duly certified by the clerk in whose office it shall have been filed, under his official seal, shall be filed and recorded, in like manner, in the office of the clerk of every such county ; and the books containing such records shall be subject to inspection, in the manner above directed.

SEC. 7. At the time of filing the original certificate, as before directed, an affidavit of one or more of the general partners shall also be filed in the same office, stating that the amount in money, or other property at cash value, specified in the certificate to have been contributed by each of the special partners to the common stock, has been, actually and in good faith, contributed and applied to the same.

SEC. 8. No such partnership shall be deemed to have been formed until such certificate, acknowledgment, and affidavit shall have been filed as above directed ; and if any false statement shall be made in such certificate or affidavit, all the per-

sons interested in such partnership shall be liable for all the engagements thereof as general partners.

SEC. 9. The partners shall publish the terms of partnership, when recorded, for at least six weeks, immediately after recording the same, in some newspaper, to be designated by the clerk with whom such records shall be made; such newspaper to be printed in the county in which the business is to be carried on, or in the county nearest thereto in which a newspaper shall be published; and if such publication be not made, the partnership shall be deemed general.

SEC. 10. Affidavits of publication of such notices by the printers of the newspaper in which the same has been published, may be filed with the clerk directing the same, and shall be evidence of the fact therein contained.

SEC. 11. Upon the renewal or continuance of a limited partnership beyond the time for which it was first created, a certificate shall be made, acknowledged, recorded, and published, in like manner as provided in this act for the formation of limited partnerships; and the affidavit of one or more of the general partners, as above provided, shall also be filed with the proper county clerk, as aforesaid; and every such partnership which shall not be renewed or continued, in conformity with the provisions of this section, shall be deemed a general partnership.

SEC. 12. The business of the partnership shall be conducted under a firm, in which the names of the general partners only shall be inserted, without the addition of the word "Company," or any other general term; and the general partners only shall transact the business; and if the name of any special partner shall be used in the said firm, with his consent or privity, or if he shall personally make any contract, respecting the concerns of the partnership, with any persons except the general partners, he shall be deemed and treated as a general partner.

SEC. 13. During the continuance of the partnership under the provisions of this chapter [act,] no part of the capital stock shall be withdrawn, nor any division of interest or profit be made, so as to reduce such capital stock below the sum stated in the certificate above mentioned; but in case it should subsequently appear that such receiving of interest was a withdrawing of original capital, the special partner or partners shall be bound to refund the same with lawful interest.

SEC. 14. That it shall not be lawful for any such partnership, nor any members thereof, in contemplation of bankruptcy or insolvency, and with the intention and for the purpose of paying or securing any one or more of their or his creditors in preference to any other of their or his creditors, to make any sale, conveyance, gift, transfer, or assignment of their or his property or effects, or to confess any judgment, or to create any lien whatsoever, upon their or his property or effects; and every such conveyance, gift, transfer, or assignment, involving such judgment or other lien, shall be, and the same is hereby declared to be utterly void.

SEC. 15. All suits respecting the business of such partnership, shall be prosecuted by and against the general partners only, except in those cases in which provision is made in this chapter, [act,] that the special partnership may be deemed general partnership; in which cases all the partners deemed general partners may join or be joined in such suit; and excepting, also, those cases where special partners shall be held severally responsible, on account of any sum, by them received or withdrawn from the common stock as above provided.

SEC. 16. No dissolution of a limited partnership shall take place, except by operation of law, before the time specified in the certificate before mentioned, unless a notice of such dissolution shall be recorded in the registry in which such certificate was recorded, and in every other registry where a copy of such certificate was recorded, and unless such notice shall also be published six weeks successively, in some newspaper printed in the county where the certificate of the formation of such partnership was recorded; and if no newspaper shall, at the time of such dissolution, be printed in such county, then the said notice of such dissolution shall be published in some newspaper printed in an adjoining county, or at the seat of government.

SEC. 17. That the general partners in every such partnership shall be liable to

account to the special partners, and to each other, for the management of the joint concern, according to the law of partnership as now subsisting.

SEC. 18. That in case of bankruptcy or insolvency of the partnership, no special partner shall be considered or allowed to claim as a creditor under any circumstance.

SEC. 19. For performing the duties required of him by this act, the clerk shall be entitled to demand and have one dollar for each registry.

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## JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

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### MANUFACTURE OF BIBLES IN PHILADELPHIA.

#### HARDINGS' PUBLICATION OFFICE.

The great Bible publishing house of the country is that of Messrs. Jesper Harding & Son, proprietors of the *Pennsylvania Inquirer*, at the corner of Third and Carter streets; and those who have enjoyed the opportunity, as we have, of inspecting the details of the daily operations of their vast establishment, can form an adequate idea of the large demand for fine editions of the Sacred Volume, and of the extraordinary facilities required to meet the demand.

The strong competition that exists in the publishing business demands that every advantage to be derived from the use of labor-saving machinery should be seized, and we accordingly find in Messrs. Hardings' establishment machinery for performing most of the labor of the business. Steam is here the great toiling agent, and human skill is only needed to direct it and manage the machinery set in motion by it. The engine which furnishes the motive power for the entire building is under the side-walk on Carter-street. It is 20-horse power, and it noiselessly and steadily sets in operation presses, stamping and cutting machines, and the other numerous mechanical contrivances of the vast establishment. The boiler for the engine is also in a vault upon the north side of the premises. It was constructed with great care, and it is provided with such guards and appliances as to render an explosion almost an impossibility. The proprietors have the engineer constantly under their eye by means of a steam-gauge placed in the counting-room. By this contrivance the exact pressure per inch upon the boiler can be ascertained at a glance. There is also a "tell-tale," which denotes the highest point of pressure attained, so that neglect would inevitably be registered upon the dial, and remain so, even though the extraordinary pressure had been reduced before the gauge had been consulted.

The first floor is appropriated to the business department of the establishment, and from it speaking-tubes ramify through the entire structure, bringing every operative within speaking distance of the persons who control the movements of all. This apartment is also furnished with a massive fire-proof safe and the other necessary office fixtures.

We will now, if the reader pleases, step into a "dumb-waiter," in waiting just back of the counting-room. Our chaperone touches a rod, and the waiter commences ascending roofwards at a gentle rate. The cable by which we are sustained looks slender, but it is made of twisted wire, and it has, we are assured, borne a weight of five tons, and these facts give us confidence, even when we are

passing the upper windows, through which we have a fine view over the house-tops of the northern part of the city. Five tons capacity and twisted wire cables to the contrary notwithstanding, we are not sorry when the top of our journey is reached, and we step from our perpendicular moving car out upon the seventh floor of the large granite building adjoining, in which the post-office is located. Messrs. Harding occupy the three upper stories of this large structure. In the fifth story they have materials stored; the sixth floor is appropriated to the uses of a composing and press room. Over one hundred compositors are employed in this apartment. At the northern end there are six Adams' and Hoe's presses kept in daily operation. These beautiful pieces of machinery are attended by females.

To us the seventh story was most interesting of all. Here the Bibles are bound; and we saw at a glance no less than 20,000 copies of the Scripture in various stages of progress—from the fresh sheets, hot from the press, to the perfect volumes in wrappers ready for packing. It would require far more space than our pages would afford, to give a description of the various processes through which the volumes pass in this apartment, or of the complicated and ingenious machinery employed. Portions of the work that used to be done by hand, and at a great expenditure of time, labor, and patience, are now done with wonderful rapidity and precision by machinery. Some 40,000 or 50,000 copies of the Bible are bound annually in this apartment, and sent abroad. This large number of volumes embraces no less than 50 varieties, all differing in style and price—from the commonest kind made of comparatively inferior paper, illustrated with woodcuts, and plainly bound, that can be afforded at 85 cents per copy, to the magnificent quarto swathed in Turkey morocco, rich with gilding and embossing, ponderous in clasps, and with its beautifully printed white pages enlivened with fine steel engravings and chromo-lithographic illustrations. Such a volume as we describe, and which Messrs. Harding now sell for prices varying from \$12 to \$40, would have been deemed worth almost a fabulous sum not many years ago.

The extent of the Bible publishing operations of Messrs. Harding may be inferred from the quantity of materials annually used in the bindery. Among them we find over 500 tons of white paper, worth from \$200 to \$300 per ton; 40 tons of tar paper for book covers; 20,000 sheep and goat skins; over 500,000 leaves of gold; and glue and paste almost *ad infinitum*.

In the other branches of this extensive establishment, we find job presses in operation, wood engravers at work, packers and clerks busy, &c. But we will not enter further into the details. The proprietors, although having more than 200 persons employed upon the spot, have every portion of their operations systematized. Fire in such an establishment would, of course, be most disastrous, and great care is taken to guard against such a contingency. The premises are warmed throughout by the waste steam from the boiler, while the tools that have to be used hot are heated in gas ovens.

The importance to Philadelphia of such establishments as that of Messrs. Harding cannot be overrated. They give employment, directly or indirectly, to great numbers of persons, and not only render that city independent of the world in respect to the articles manufactured, but they do much to extend abroad her trade and the reputation of her business men, her mechanics, and her artists. The

*Inquirer* is a well established journal that needs no encomium at our hands, and we rejoice to be enabled to make a record of the evidences of the enterprise and prosperity of our cotemporary.

#### IMPROVEMENT IN WEAVING ELASTIC FABRICS.

This invention, recently made and patented in England, will doubtless interest a portion of our readers. The invention consists in throwing two or more colored threads, or threads of different materials in the weft, to the surface at will. This object the patentee obtains in various ways; as, for example, by working the shaft or beam holding the elastic threads in such a manner as to throw either of the colors in the shuttle to the surface at pleasure, or by so working the batons as to produce the same effect. The usual way of working the shaft holding the elastic threads is to lift it up, pass one of the shuttles through the warp, next drive it down, then pass another shuttle through the warp, and so on. When the invention is carried into effect by working the elastic web shaft, the shaft is acted upon by means of wheels, or otherwise, in such a manner that it may be held still whenever it is desired to change the color or material of the surface, until two or more shuttles have been passed separately through the warp; by which means either of the colors or materials in the weft are brought to the surface at pleasure and thus plaids and other fancy patterns may be produced without changing the motion or altering the position of the shuttles. In practice, however, in order to produce a great variety of pattern and color, the patentee prefers to adapt the machines for weaving elastic fabrics to the Jacquard system. The India-rubber or elastic threads are the only threads that are connected to the lifting wires of the cards; and, according to the pattern pierced upon these cards, the proper number of elastic threads is lifted or brought to the surface, and the weft is thrown above or below, or between these elastic threads, in accordance with the design to be produced. By using several tiers of shuttles, each tier carrying threads of a different material or color, a great variety of patterns may be produced by alternately bringing the different shuttles even with the sheds, and, at the same time, by means of the patterns on the cards, so shifting the position and number of elastic threads as to bring the required color or material to the surface. Simple patterns, such as checks, or plaids, or stripes, may be produced independently of the Jacquard arrangement, and in the ordinary looms for weaving elastic webs, where two or more tiers of shuttles are used, by so working the shaft or beam holding the elastic threads that at every change of color or material the shaft is held stationary while the shuttles are thrown twice. The shaft carrying the elastic thread is then worked up and down together with the throwing of the shuttles, until the required length of pattern is produced; the shaft carrying the elastic thread is next held still, and the shuttle again thrown twice, which thereby brings the next required color or material to the surface. The shaft of the elastic thread is then worked in this position until the required number of this surface color or material has been thrown, when the shaft is again shifted, and both tiers of shuttles, if two tiers are being used, thrown twice, which brings the next colored weft to the surface; and this color is then worked the required number of shoots, and the elastic thread shaft is again shifted, and the throw of the shuttles again continued. Instead of the above method of acting upon the elastic threads, the

battens may be worked up or down in such a manner as to bring the tier of shuttles carrying the required surface color or material of weft, even with the work ; so that when the shuttles are thrown, the desired color or material is brought to the surface. At every change of color or material to be thrown by the shuttles, the battens must remain up or down while either of the tiers of shuttles are thrown twice, or any other even number of times.

#### INCREASE OF THE WOOLEN MANUFACTURES OF FRANCE.

The recent circular of Messrs. Des Grand *pere et fils* affords some interesting information of the great increase made of late years, but especially last year, in France, in the manufacture of woollen goods. A few years ago France imported her foreign wools from England and Germany. Now she employs all sorts of wools, which she obtains direct from Australia, and from all wool-producing countries. There were five French ships employed in 1855 in carrying wool from Australia to the ports of France.

The following table shows the progress of the general trade of wool in France for the last four years :

| Years.    | Imports.<br>lbs. | Exports.<br>lbs. | Stock, Dec. 31.<br>lbs. |
|-----------|------------------|------------------|-------------------------|
| 1852..... | 73,043,000       | 4,152,000        | 5,823,000               |
| 1853..... | 62,036,000       | 7,205,000        | 10,084,000              |
| 1854..... | 53,086,000       | 5,255,000        | 5,714,000               |
| 1855..... | 82,918,000       | 5,605,000        | 7,265,000               |

The increased consumption shown by these returns to have taken place in 1855—a year of active war—is very extraordinary. The increase in the export of woollen goods in 1855, is no less wonderful. Messrs. Des Grand state also :

The importations of foreign wools had been yearly on an average :

|                        |                                   |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| From 1830 to 1839..... | 24,200,000 lbs. (English weight.) |
| From 1840 to 1849..... | 42,000,000                        |
| From 1850 to 1854..... | 57,400,000                        |

It was, in 1855, of 83,000,000 lbs. This is the highest amount which it has ever attained. This importation has diminished 14 per cent in 1853, it has undergone a further diminution of 15 per cent in 1854, and, if we compare the amount of 1854 with that of 1855, we remark an increase of 57 per cent.

The exportations of woollen manufactures has also increased in a great proportion.

It had averaged yearly—

|                        |            |
|------------------------|------------|
| From 1835 to 1844..... | £2,540,000 |
| From 1845 to 1854..... | 4,960,000  |

It reached £7,200,000 in 1855, not including yarns, of which the exportation was £400,000.

Such a progress is prodigious.

The total production of yarns and tissues of wool is £2,400,000 in Belgium, £10,000,000 in Austria, £17,200,000 in the Zollverein, £36,000,000 in England, and in France it exceeds £40,000,000.

England took nearly thirty years and France scarcely twelve to double the exportation of woollen manufactures. In 1836, the English exports were £7,600,000, and ours £1,960,000 ; in 1855, the former rose to £9,600,000, and the latter to £7,200,000.

As a last fact : the consumption of foreign wools is 13,200,000 lbs. in Belgium ; 15,500,000 lbs. in Austria ; 66,000,000 lbs. in England ; and in France 77,000,000 lbs.

Thus, France is in the world the greatest market for wools, and the most considerable manufactory of woollen articles ; she has acquired this preponderance in

spite of a restrictive customs tariff; how much more rapid will be her progress with a liberal legislation!

The manufactories of France consume 20,000 bales.

To meet the increasing competition with France in the manufacture of woollen goods for consumption in this country, Congress should hasten the repeal of the import duty on wool and dyeing materials. That is the way to protect our manufactures, to remove restrictions which tend to give foreign manufactures an advantage over our own.

#### CULTURE AND MANUFACTURE OF CASTOR OIL.

We copy the following interesting article on the culture and manufacture of castor oil in Illinois and St. Louis, from the March number of the *American Journal of Pharmacy*:—

Southern Illinois is the source whence all the beans are brought that are sold or manufactured in St. Louis. The ground is prepared as for other crops, and when there is no longer any danger from the spring frosts, the seeds are planted in hills and rows, much in the manner of planting Indian corn, with the exception that there is but one seed put into each hill, and that at every fourth row a space is left sufficiently wide to admit of the passage of a team for the purpose of gathering the crop. Unlike the cereal grains, the ricinus bears at the same time flowers and fruit, and the severity of our climate, which renders it in this latitude an annual plant, destroys its vitality whilst yet decked with bloom. The ripening commences in August, and the crop is gathered at intervals from this date till the plants are destroyed by frost.

The yield of course varies with the quality of the soil, and the care of the culture. Twenty-five bushels from an acre of ground is considered a very large crop, and is but seldom obtained. From sixteen to twenty bushels per acre is a very fair yield in a season not marked by drouth or other unfavorable feature.

The primitive mode of making castor oil was by putting the [bruised] beans in a bag and placing the same in a kettle of water, and as the beans were boiled the oil came to the surface and was skimmed off. Subsequently, there was adopted the screw and lever presses, and other devices for pressing the beans, and many mills sprang up throughout the Southern portion of Illinois, some of which remain in use until this time. The beans are first kiln-dried, and then pressed without grinding, the oil thus obtained being called "cold pressed," to distinguish it from the boiled oil, (that obtained by boiling the beans in water.)

About nine years ago, Mr. Henry T. Blow commenced using the ordinary hydraulic press in its manufacture, increasing the yield from the raw material, and working the beans with greater rapidity and economy. About two years since, Mr. Latourette introduced a new press of his own invention, which was patented October 28th, 1851, which has brought the business to a greater state of perfection by increasing the product of oil from the bean  $37\frac{1}{2}$  per cent over the ordinary hydraulic press, and securing other advantages, such as saving of labor and fuel. One of these presses will work 150,000 bushels of beans per annum, producing as much as 400,000 gallons of oil. It is said that one of these presses worked on castor oil, in connection with others on linseed oil, furnishes sufficient combustible refuse from the castor bean to supply fuel for the works; and in this way the fuel from the bean is of sufficient value to pay all the expenses of manufacturing the oil. The amount saved in Latourette's establishment, by burning the above refuse, when in full operation, is about fifty dollars per week.

After the oil is pressed from the beans, it is clarified by boiling in large kettles with a small portion of water, and when perfectly clear, is allowed to cool, and is then drawn off into barrels ready for market. During the months of July, August, and September, 1854, there were manufactured thirty-two thousand gallons of castor oil at this establishment alone.

The manufacture of the oil, which, in 1850, was largely carried on in Illinois, is now mostly effected in the city of St. Louis.

|                             | 1850.   | 1851.   | 1852.   | 1853.   |
|-----------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Crop in bushels.....        | 250,000 | 160,000 | 90,000  | 65,000  |
| Factories in Illinois.....  | 18      | 7       | 5       | 3       |
| Factories in St. Louis..... | 2       | 2       | 2       | 3       |
| Barrels of oil made ...     | 9,900   | 7,000   | 5,500   | 4,200   |
| Equivalent in gallons.....  | 350,000 | 255,000 | 192,500 | 147,000 |

The estimated crop of beans for 1854 is but 10,000 bushels, being almost a total failure, arising from the excessive drouth that prevailed during the past summer over that part of the country. The number of mills in operation in 1854 was but five, and they only employed part of the time.

The above statements exhibit a gradual decline in the amount of oil produced, which arises partially from the decreased crops, and partly, probably, from a limitation in the demand. The price of oil in 1852-3 was as low as 60 to 80 cents per gallon, and is at present up to \$1.25 by the barrel, which, with the short crop of the past year, will probably prove an inducement to the farmers to again turn their attention to raising the beans. We saw it stated in the newspapers that castor oil had been used on one of the Western railroads for oiling the axles of cars, and probably also on the locomotives. Since the rise in the price of whale oil, the attention of machinists has been turned to various substitutes, and it is probable that the non-drying quality of the castor oil, when pure, will render it very valuable for lubricating purposes, if it can be produced at a sufficiently low price.

#### COTTON MANUFACTURES.

At a recent meeting of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, some interesting statements were made by the president, Mr. Bazly, upon the cotton manufacture of Great Britain. From his remarks we quote the following:—

“He would inform gentlemen present that some months ago he was called upon by the eminent publishers of Edinburgh, the Messrs. Black, to revise an article in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, upon cotton and cotton manufacturers. He wrote a new article upon cotton, and considerably enlarged the article upon cotton manufacturers, and in the course of the inquiries and investigations he was led to make, he had been enabled to prepare a table, which he regarded as of some importance, for it was the first time that the manufacture of cotton had been shown in the way it was shown in that table. The Board of Trade very kindly gave him all the facts which he required from the department; and therefore, in the calculations he had made, he had depended entirely upon governmental authority. The Board of Trade, in publishing the returns of the exports of cotton, had usually stated the gross value sent out of the United Kingdom; but he had ascertained to what particular country every parcel of cotton manufactures was sent during 1853; he was thus able to show the value of the goods sent to each country, and by comparing that with the population, and ascertaining the amount per head, we should be able to define more correctly than upon any other principle the extent of our trade with any particular country.

“In the British dependencies in the East Indies, we had a population of 150 millions; and the value of cotton manufactures exported to them in 1853 was £5,680,000, or equal to 9d per head. To Russia, with its population of 67,000,000, our exports amounted to £180,000, or equal to six-tenth of a penny per head; but to those parts of Russia supplied through ports in the Black Sea, with a population of 3,000,000, our exports amounted to £13,000, or 1½d per head. France had 36,000,000 (or nearly 37,000,000,) of population; and to France, in 1853, we sent cotton manufactures to the value of £155,710, or at the rate of 1d. per head. To British North America, with a population of 2,456,000, we exported £749,000 worth of cotton manufactures; which was equivalent to 6s. 1½d. per head. The United States, with a population of 27,000,000, took to the value of £4,182,901, or at the rate of 3s. 1d. per head. By the assistance of his friend, Mr. John Leisler, of this city, an eminent foreign merchant, he had been enabled

to approximate as nearly as possible to the value of cotton manufactures consumed in Great Britain and Ireland, and he found that while our exports amounted to £32,712,000, we retained at home not less than £21,224,000 worth of cotton manufactures—showing that the people of the United Kingdom consumed our staple manufacture at the rate of 15s. 5d. per head per annum. The result in gross was this:—

“To the population of the globe, about 8,500,000,000, Great Britain supplied cotton manufactures to the extent of very nearly £54,000,000 sterling, being an average of 1s. 3½d. per head. The £53,000,000 or £54,000,000 sterling representing the products of the cotton industry of Great Britain and Ireland, might be regarded as one-half of the cotton industry of the world. Foreign countries, besides taking one-half of the raw cotton sent into the market, received large supplies of cotton yarn from Great Britain; and in Asia and Africa cotton was still largely spun by hand. Hence the cotton industry of the world might be valued at £120,000,000 sterling, which would give an average consumption per year, for every man, woman, and child upon the globe, 2s. 9½d. worth of cotton manufactures, or about fourteen yards each per annum of excellent calico.”

#### TIN AND GREAT BRITAIN.

Camden the historian supposes that England, from the abundance of tin which it contains, was called Britain. In the Syriac language *varatanac* signifies *land of tin*; whence is derived Britain. The mention of tin by Moses, in the 31st chap. of Numbers, 22d verse, is a proof of its being known from the most remote antiquity. Long before the Christian era the trade in tin caused many a vessel to spread its sails in the Mediterranean Sea, and to cross the Bay of Biscay to fetch it from those shores. The alchemists of old considered tin to be a mixture of silver and lead, but modern chemistry proves it to be a distinct metal. About 10,000 tons of tin are extracted every year from the mines in Cornwall and Devon, nearly the whole of which is consumed in the manufacture of tin plate (*fer-blanc*, or white iron, as the French term it), that is, sheet iron coated with tin; and it is this substance which constitutes England's famous tin-ware, which finds a market from Naples to Japan, from New York to Eupatoria. Melted tin forms a sort of varnish for iron, and prevents that metal from rusting; when copper is coated with it verdigris cannot be produced. Tin and lead melted together produce what is called “*Britannia metal*,” of which teapots and similar domestic utensils are made. It is owing to a mordant of tin that the dyer produces the fine scarlet cloth so famous as the royal and military color of England. In many other ways we could show how very useful tin is; but it is enough for us to state that England, at the present time, is the tin plate manufacturer for the whole world.

#### AMERICAN TELESCOPES IN ENGLAND.

The query has been made, “Why does the English astronomer, Rev. W. R. Dawes, send to America for telescopes?” This may be answered by the contents of a letter to the instrument maker, from Mr. Dawes, recently written, in which he uses the following language in relation to an eight-inch object glass, which went out lately in one of the steamers: “Its efficiency is certainly greater than that of any other telescope I have tried, both in depicting the features of the planet and in splitting close double stars.” This is a clear answer; and whatever may be its bearings upon the honor of America, to one who has surmounted the difficulties in optical art, such an acknowledgment of precedence is of much value.

**THE LINSEED OIL OF COMMERCE.**

This is the most important of the drying oils, and is obtained by pressure, from the seeds of common flax, which yield from 20 to 25 per cent of their weight. When the seeds are submitted to pressure at common temperatures, (cold drawing, or cold pressure,) the oil is of a pale yellow color, and of the greatest purity, but if a steam heat a larger quantity may be obtained; it is then of an amber color, and more liable to become rancid. It is slowly bleached by sunlight, and when long kept in a half-filled bottle, it thickens, and does not dry well. It has a specific gravity of 0.93.

The drying properties of linseed oil, which adapt it to the painters' use, are greatly increased by boiling for several hours with the addition of a little litharge, (protoxide of lead,) two to four ounces of litharge to every gallon of oil; a little acetate of lead and sulphate of zinc are also sometimes introduced with benefit. The product is known as boiled oil, purified oil, and drying oil. It acquires by boiling a brownish-red color, and hence when white lead is to be made into a paint with linseed oil it is prepared in the unboiled state, in consequence of its paler clearer color.

The change wrought in the oil by boiling, consists in depriving it of certain gummy, mucilaginous matters, which are dissolved in it, and greatly retard the drying. The compounds of lead combine with this mucilage, forming an insoluble body, which is precipitated as a white sediment. If, after boiling for a time, the oil is set fire to and permitted to burn for half an hour, and the flame then extinguished by placing a cover upon the vessel, (burning oil or fat should never be quenched with water,) it acquires a viscid, tenacious consistency, and forms printers' ink, by the addition of a due quantity of lamp-black.

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**CALLAN'S SINGLE FLUID BATTERY.**

Professor CALLAN, of Maynooth, has invented a single-fluid battery, which offers advantages of great importance to science and manufacturing industry. Nitric acid batteries, as is well known, though the most powerful, are not so much used as they might be, in consequence of the high cost of the acid and the porous cells required, and the difficulty of manipulating them without loss of time and accident, to say nothing of the noxious fumes of the acid. Moreover, if one of the cells be defective, the power of the whole battery is weakened; and in any circumstances, the effectiveness of the power depends much on stillness, the results being sensibly reduced when the battery is in motion, carried from place to place. All these difficulties are said to be met by Prof. Callan's battery.

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**OBTAINING MINERALS BY IGNEOUS ACTION.**

By igneous action, various minerals have been synthetically obtained in the hearths of iron furnaces, of porcelain furnaces, and in the flame of the oxyhydrogen blowpipe; the usual condition being, as in the experiments of Eddmann, that the components of the mineral should be held in solution, or at any rate in suspension, by some solvent capable of volatilization at intense heats; qualifications expressly possessed by borax and boracic acid. By such means, felspar, ruby, spinelle, and many aluminous minerals have been obtained in a crystalline form. Some few may be obtained from their aqueous solutions.

**BULLOCK'S BLOOD PRESSED INTO CAKES FOR SUGAR REFINING.**

In some stages of sugar refining, and in Turkey-red dyeing, bullock's blood, in a natural state, is used, and in this condition it is difficult to carry and disagreeable to keep. To obviate these evils, a patent has been taken out for pressing the clotted blood of animals into cakes, then drying them with currents of hot air. It is afterwards ground into powder in a machine, and in that state is used by sugar refiners and dyers. The serous portion of the blood, which has been pressed out, is dried like the clotted parts, and is supplied to calico printers for using with their colors.

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**ALUMINA IN SOAPSTONE.**

The London *Mining Journal* says that Rev. Samuel Houghton, on a late tour in Cornwall, had occasion to examine the serpentine porphyry at Kynance Cove and Gue Grease. In the porphyry there are only traces of alumina to be found; at these places the serpentine is traversed by dykes of granite, and the soapstone lies spread out in sheets at the junction of the serpentine and granite. He therefore considers the soapstone to be the result of the contact of these rocks at a high temperature, the serpentine giving the magnesia, and the felspar of the granite supplying a sufficient quantity of alumina to form the soapstone.

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**POSTAL DEPARTMENT.**


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**INFORMATION FOR LETTER WRITERS, ETC.**
**INSTRUCTIONS TO POSTMASTERS.**

By the act of March 3, 1855, requiring the pre-payment either by stamps, stamped envelopes or in money, of all letters to places within the United States, from and after April 1st, 1855, the single rate under 3,000 miles is three cents, and over 3,000 miles, in the United States, ten cents. From and after January 1st, 1856, all such letters must be pre-paid either by stamps or stamped envelopes. The franking privilege is continued, and by another act extended to Ex-Vice Presidents of the United States.

The law relative to drop letters is not changed in any particular by the recent act.

The act of March 3, 1855, making no provision for unpaid letters to places within the United States—on the same or day following any such unpaid letter or letters being put into a post office, the Postmaster thereof will post up conspicuously in his office a list of the same, stating that they are held up for postage. Any unpaid letters, dropped into mail cars to be forwarded, must be deposited by the route agents in the post office at or nearest the point where they are received, and the postmaster will add them to his list, stating that they were put into the cars unpaid. If not attended to, all such letters must be returned monthly to the dead letter office.

Letters part paid should be dispatched, charged with the additional postage due at the prepaid rate, according to distance, established by said act, except where the omission to pay the correct amount is known to have been intentional, when they should be treated the same as letters wholly unpaid.

It is proper to forward a letter when duly requested. When forwarded, no additional postage should be charged, if the letter, contrary to its address, has been mis-sent. If it has been sent according to its address, and then forwarded, it must be charged with additional postage, at the prepaid rate, according to dis-

tance, established by the act of March 3, 1855, which additional postage may be paid either at the forwarding office or at the office of delivery.

The franking privilege is not changed by the new postage act of 3d March, 1855. Of course all persons entitled to this privilege before the passage of the late law still retain it. Any postmaster whose compensation for the last preceding fiscal year did not exceed \$200, can send through the mail all letters written by himself, and receive letters addressed to himself, on his private business, free of postage, the weight of each letter not to exceed half an ounce. He cannot receive free nor frank printed matter of any kind; nor letters addressed to his wife, nor any other member of his family; nor can he frank letters to editors or publishers containing money in payment of subscription.

The franking privilege of postmasters whose yearly compensation exceeds \$200 is restricted to sending and receiving free, written communications relating exclusively to the business of their offices, or of the post office department. The penalty for a violation of law in this particular is \$300.

It being impracticable in all cases to determine what postmasters are entitled to receive their private communications free, a manuscript letter addressed to a postmaster should not be detained in the mailing office, for the reason that the postage on it is not pre-paid, except in cases where it is known that the postmaster addressed is not entitled to receive his private letters free. And if letters to any postmaster are known to relate exclusively to "post office business," being so superscribed, they should be mailed free.

Any postmaster receiving a letter free, which should have been charged with postage, is bound by his oath of office to charge himself with such postage in his account with the department.

Postmasters are required to report to the department all violations of the franking privilege.

The law, fixing the penalty for violation at fifty dollars, provides "that no postmaster or assistant postmaster shall act as agent for lottery offices, or under any color of purchase, or otherwise, vend lottery tickets;" and that "no postmaster shall receive free of postage, or frank lottery schemes, circulars or tickets." Therefore, all such lottery schemes, circulars or tickets addressed either to a postmaster or assistant postmaster, must hereafter be excluded from the mail, together with all other transient matter of this kind, addressed simply to an office and not to any individual.

Copyright books, charts, &c., required to be delivered to the library of Congress or Smithsonian Institution, and which are entitled to pass free in the mail, should be superscribed "Copyright for Congress Library," or "Smithsonian Institution," as the case may be.

All letters placed on a mail steamboat, on which the mails are in charge of a route-agent, should go into the hands of such agent, and on these letters the master of the vessel is not entitled to receive any compensation. None but pre-paid letters should be received on such steamboat, and these should be duly mailed. But should any chance to be unpaid, they should be deposited by the route-agent in the post office at or nearest the point at which they are received, and the postmaster should post up a list of them, with the unpaid letters dropped into his office, adding that they were put on board the steamer unpaid.

In like manner, when practicable, all letters should be prepaid which are received by steamboats or other vessels not in the mail service, or carrying the mail with no route-agent on board. When pre-paid, the master of the vessel, if under contract to carry the mail, may receive one cent "way," and if not under contract with the department, two cents each from the postmaster in whose office he deposits them; and they should be delivered to their address without any charge beyond the amount prepaid. But if unpaid, they should be treated as ship-letters, and are chargeable as such with a postage of six cents if delivered at the office at which the vessel shall arrive, and with two cents in addition to the ordinary rate of postage if destined to be conveyed by post to another place. In the latter case, the master of the vessel is entitled to receive two cents a letter.

Persons desiring to send their letters by steamboats can most readily accomplish their object by inclosing such letters in the stamped envelopes issued by the department, inasmuch as letters so enclosed may be conveyed out of the mail without a violation of law, and need not be delivered to the postmaster on the arrival of the vessel.

Letters relating exclusively to the cargo of the vessel by which they are conveyed are not subject to postage, but should be left unsealed—the law relating to such letters remaining unchanged.

Ship letters, as they cannot be prepaid, and are not supposed to be embraced in the new act, will continue to be dispatched agreeably to the provisions of the 15th section of the Act of March 3, 1825. Abstract logs, addressed to the Superintendent of the National Observatory, are to be treated as ship letters.

The rates and regulations in regard to letters to or from Canada and all other foreign countries are not changed by the new act.

Every postmaster, in addressing the department, should be careful to write the name of his office, County and State, at the head of his letter, and to avoid writing upon more than one subject in the same letter. He should then postmark the letter with the name of his office and State, as well as date of mailing, and address it to the proper bureau.

In stamping letters, great care should be observed to render the impression distinct and legible.

JAMES CAMPBELL, Postmaster General.

POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT.

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#### RATES OF POSTAGE TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

POSTAGE TO THE EAST INDIES, JAVA, BORNEO, LABUAN, SUMATRA THE MOLUCCAS,  
ADD PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

We state, on the authority of the Post Office Department, that arrangements having been made by Great Britain for collecting in India the British and other foreign postage on letters between the United Kingdom and the East Indies, whether transmitted via Southampton or via Marseilles in the British mails, hereafter the United States postage only should be prepaid in this country on letters for the East Indies, to be transmitted by either of the above routes, viz: five cents the single rate when the Atlantic conveyance is by British packet, and twenty-one cents when by United States packet.

Owing to a reduction of twelve cents in the British postage beyond England, which took place on the 1st of February last, the single rates of letter postage between the United States and Java, Borneo, Labuan, Sumatra, the Moluccas, and the Philippine Islands, will hereafter be as follows:

To Java, via Southampton. 33 instead of 45 cents the half ounce; and via Marseilles, 53 instead of 65 cents the quarter ounce, and 63 instead of 75 cents the half ounce; prepayment required.

To Borneo, Labuan, Sumatra, the Moluccas, and the Philippine Islands, the single rate will be 41 instead of 53 cents when sent via Southampton, and 61 instead of 73 cents the quarter ounce, or 71 instead of 83 cents the half-ounce, when sent by closed mail via Marseilles; prepayment also required.

The rates above mentioned as chargeable for the Island of Java will provide for their conveyance by British packet as far as Singapore, but they will afterwards be subject to a Netherland rate of postage on account of the conveyance from Singapore to Java.

By the Prussian closed mail the rates to these countries remain unchanged.

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**STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.**

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**THE LARGEST NURSERY IN THE WORLD.**

It has been some years since Rochester has become the head-quarters for nurseries in America. From only a few acres in extent, as they existed fifteen or twenty years since, the nurseries within ten miles of the city now cover at least one thousand densely planted acres.

The cost and annual product of these nurseries may be reckoned with some degree of accuracy, by taking as the basis of calculation, the estimates of several intelligent nurserymen of that place—that a well-managed acre would yield as an annual average from two to three hundred dollars—the expenses varying from fifty to seventy-five per cent of this amount. It would of course be greatly controlled by the kind of trees raised, the proportion of ornamentals, &c., but still more by the judgment, energy, and skill exercised by the manager—for under the direction of some, the cost exceeds the profits, and the business consequently soon comes to an end.

But it is not our present object to pursue this inquiry, but to give to our readers the results of a few hours personal observation of one of the establishments to which we have alluded—namely, that of Ellwanger & Barry, who now have about two hundred and seventy-five acres actually occupied with their nurseries. These are not all in one contiguous piece of ground, but are comprised in four principal detached portions, of fifty to a hundred acres each, lying near each other. For extent and perfection combined, there is none in America that nearly approaches this establishment, and we have not been able to ascertain from satisfactory sources, that there is any in Europe—although there may possibly be a greater number of hands employed in some European nurseries, where labor is cheap and economy not studied.

Ellwanger & Barry had in regular employ at the time of our visit, over one hundred hands. In the spring, they have two or three hundred. Being in the midst of the budding season, they had sixteen active budders at work, with boys to tie after them, and other hands to precede them in preparing the stocks. These added to such as were occupied in providing the buds, and in removing the ligatures, amounted to about sixty in all, connected with this department of operations. The buds are all cut by the proprietors themselves, and every pains taken to secure the greatest accuracy throughout this mammoth establishment—about twenty-five thousand buds are inserted daily; and eight persons are required, in connection with the persons who cut the buds, to remove the leaves from them on the spot.

They employ twenty-five horses. During all the early part of the season, these were all required in cultivating the rows—at present only eighteen are needed for this purpose.

We observed single fields, of thirty or forty acres each, out of the many which constituted their establishment, which alone would be regarded as large for an entire nursery. A block of ninety thousand (90,000) cherry trees, one year from the bud, was especially noticed for its beautiful growth, most of the trees being already about five feet high, and as even along the tops as if they had been

sheared. A half acre of seedling pears, had as fine a growth as any we have ever seen, although they numbered at least one million. They must be worth at market prices, more than ten thousand dollars. Two hundred thousand were picked out from them early in summer, without any sensible diminution from their numbers. As nearly as we could estimate, there were at least two hundred thousand Norway firs, two feet or more in height, and covering many acres.

Their ornamental department is on a very large scale. They have five hundred feet in length of glass propagating houses—seven acres in roses—and about half an acre densely planted with dahlias. They have a very rare collection of the celebrated new California tree, the *Wellingtonia gigantea*, being no less than five thousand fine young plants of this tree, grown from seed collected in California, and which were procured by gathering such as the squirrels had thrown down in their depredations. A year ago these plants sold for a guinea each—at only one dollar now; here was a space of twenty feet square worth a valuable farm.

In their grape-houses, they have over ten thousand exotic grapes of fine growth for sale. Their collection of bearing specimen pear-trees is unequalled in this country—they have five or six thousand, most of which are handsomely trained pyramids, comprising about four hundred sorts.

In such an immense establishment, our readers will naturally suppose there must be a great deal of confusion, and much bad growth and bad cultivation. But the reverse is true in a striking degree. An excellent system seems to pervade the whole; and, as many have remarked, they are remarkably successful in all they undertake, from the most delicate hot-house plants, to their vast plantations of large and thrifty fruit trees. Indeed, there seems to be a sort of magic in all their attempts at propagation, so rarely are there any failures.

The reason of this remarkable success is their thorough experience and knowledge of the requisites for every operation, and an excellent soil, reduced to the best condition by subsoiling and constant tillage. A weed is a great rarity on their grounds.

The cost of conducting this establishment must, of course, be very great; although we have no definite information on the subject, we should judge from the estimates mentioned in the early part of this article, that they must amount to fifty thousand dollars annually. Their sales may be estimated from the same data, remembering that none are more successful, and that probably no nursery is better managed for pecuniary success.

There are several other nurseries in Rochester, of large size, which we were unable to visit, among which are those of H. E. Hooker & Co., Frost & Co., and S. Moulson, are widely celebrated, each containing, as we have been informed, a hundred acres or more.

Since writing the foregoing, Ellwanger & Barry have, at our request, furnished the following statement of the number of acres occupied by each crop on their grounds:—

ORNAMENTAL DEPARTMENT, 52 ACRES.

|                                            |       |     |
|--------------------------------------------|-------|-----|
| Evergreens.....                            | acres | 20  |
| Roses.....                                 |       | 7   |
| Flowering shrubs.....                      |       | 6   |
| Magnolia seedlings in seed-bed, thick..... |       | 1½  |
| Miscellaneous trees, specimens, &c.....    |       | 17½ |
|                                            |       | —   |
|                                            |       | 52  |

FRUIT DEPARTMENT, 225 ACRES.

|                                                                                               |     |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Standard apples .....                                                                         | 37  |
| Dwarf apples .....                                                                            | 11  |
| Pears .....                                                                                   | 64  |
| Cherries .....                                                                                | 27  |
| Plums .....                                                                                   | 12  |
| Peaches .....                                                                                 | 18  |
| Apricots .....                                                                                | 3   |
| Apple quinces .....                                                                           | 4   |
| Currants .....                                                                                | 4   |
| Gooseberries .....                                                                            | 4   |
| Grapes .....                                                                                  | 4   |
| Pear seedlings .....                                                                          | 2   |
| Sundries—seedlings, rhubarb, asparagus, raspberries, strawberries,<br>quince stocks, &c. .... | 35  |
| Total .....                                                                                   | 277 |

PRICES OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS IN 1852 AND 1855.

Mr. J. H. JAMES, of the Inner Temple, London, has just produced a very interesting pamphlet on a most vital question, namely, "What should be the price of bread, and how can it be regulated?" Mr. James says that the effect of the existing high prices of the necessaries of life upon the condition of all classes of the community, may be gathered from the following estimate, by which it will be seen that the cost of living is now 33 per cent above what it was in 1852. The subjoined table shows the leading articles of consumption, and the comparative expenditure of a man in the receipt of £100 per annum, and having a wife and five children to support, in the years 1852 and 1855 :—

|                                | Weekly. | Yearly. | 1852. |         |         | 1855.     |         |  |
|--------------------------------|---------|---------|-------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|--|
|                                |         |         | d.    | £ s. d. | d.      | d.        | £ s. d. |  |
| Bread ..... quarterns          | 11      | 572     | 4½    | 10 14 6 | 9½      | 22 12 10  |         |  |
| Meat ..... per lb.             | 8       | 416     | 6½    | 11 5 4  | 7½      | 13 0 0    |         |  |
| Bacon .....                    | 1½      | 78      | 6     | 1 19 0  | 9       | 2 18 6    |         |  |
| Potatoes ..... per 20 lbs.     | 2       | 104     | 8     | 3 9 4   | 13      | 5 12 8    |         |  |
| Sugar ..... per lb.            | 1½      | 78      | 4     | 1 6 0   | 5½      | 1 15 9    |         |  |
| Candles .....                  | 1½      | 78      | 4½    | 1 9 3   | 7½      | 2 8 9     |         |  |
| Butter .....                   | 2       | 104     | 10    | 4 6 8   | 13      | 5 12 8    |         |  |
| Cheese .....                   | 1       | 52      | 6½    | 1 8 2   | 8½      | 1 16 10   |         |  |
| Tea .....                      | 0½      | 13      | 4s.   | 2 12 0  | 3s. 8d. | 2 7 8     |         |  |
| Soap .....                     | 1½      | 78      | 5d.   | 1 12 6  | 4½d.    | 1 9 3     |         |  |
|                                |         |         |       | £40 2 9 |         | £50 14 11 |         |  |
| Income Tax .....               |         |         | 5d.   | 2 1 8   | 11½     | 4 15 10   |         |  |
|                                |         |         |       | £42 4 5 |         | £64 10 9  |         |  |
|                                |         |         |       |         |         | 42 4 5    |         |  |
| Increased cost of living ..... |         |         |       |         |         | £22 6 4   |         |  |

Since the above was calculated, the prices of tea, coffee, sugar, rice, and other articles, have advanced, and still have an upward tendency. Besides the items enumerated, coals and other fuel have increased considerably; so have parochial rates.

The Paris correspondence of the *New York Times*, published some time since, contained some curious statistics relative to the prices of articles of household consumption. From these, it appears that the price of meat and bread is higher

here than in most European cities. Taking average prices of first-class meats as a criterion of prices here, the chief cities of Europe will compare as follows:—

| Cities.                     | Beef. | Veal. | Mutton. |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------|---------|
| London.....cents per 2 lbs. | 35    | 37    | 35      |
| Dublin.....                 | 29    | 45    | 29      |
| Ostend.....                 | 26    | 28    | 30      |
| Amsterdam.....              | 33    | 41    | 33      |
| Dantzic.....                | 22    | 31    | 20      |
| Nice.....                   | 25    | 27    | 27      |
| Rome.....                   | 16    | 17    | 15      |
| Constantinople.....         | 19    | 19    | 19      |
| Paris.....                  | 26    | 32    | 31      |
| New York.....               | 32    | 32    | 24      |

It appears that London is the dearest place to live, in respect to edibles of this kind, and Rome the cheapest. All the Italian cities are cheap, as every one knows. Men live sumptuously at Florence on a couple of hundred a year, and many a family leads a life of unmixed bliss at Naples on what is here a meager salary for an efficient clerk. But the difference between these cities and London and New York is, that there you can live well and cheaply, it is true, but you cannot make anything; while in London and here, if you do pay more for beef, you can earn more than twice as much.

The price of bread does not vary much.

But the two items of bread and beef are a very small portion of our domestic expense. In all others, the Europeans have a great advantage over us. Rent, dress, servants, furniture, amusements, and so forth, cost far more here than abroad. In England, the rule is that rent is one-tenth of a man's total house expenses; the tenant of a house costing £100 a year is expected to spend £1,000 in living. Here rent is nearer twenty or twenty-five per cent of the total house expenses of most citizens; the tenant of a \$1,000 house does not usually spend over \$4,500 to \$5,000, if he is fortunate enough to have as much. So of dress and servants. In France and England, a housekeeper can keep a staff of servants on what it costs here to keep a cook that knows the difference between baking and boiling. It is needless to observe that incomes are, as an average, three or four times as large here as in England, eight or ten times as large as in France.

#### PROFIT OF FEEDING CORN TO HOGS.

It is estimated, from an experiment made by S. B. Anderson, that 100 bushels of corn will produce 1,050 lbs. of gross increase in the weight of hogs. One hundred thrifty hogs were weighed and put into a pen. They were fed for 100 days on as much corn as they could eat. The average gross increase per hog for the 100 days was 175 lbs., or at the rate of 1½ lbs. per day.

It thus appears that one bushel of corn will produce a gross increase of 10½ lbs. Throwing off 1.5 to come at the net weight, gives 8 1.5 lbs. of pork as the product of 1 bushel of corn. If 8 2.5 lbs. of pork are made by 1 bushel, or 56 lbs. of corn, 1 lb. of pork is the product of 6¾ lbs. of corn.

From an experiment made by Samuel Linn, with 58 hogs, as reported in the Patent Office Report for 1849, 6½ lbs. of corn produced 1 lb. of pork.

From the experiment of the Hon. H. L. Ellsworth, reported in the Patent Office Report for the year 1847, it appears that 3 4.5 lbs. of cooked meal made 1 lb. of pork. This experiment was on a small scale.

Assuming that it requires 6½ lbs. of corn to make 1 lb. of pork, the cost of its production will be seen from the following table. The labor of feeding and taking care of the hogs is not included in the estimate :—

|                                                                 |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|
| When corn costs 12½ cts. per bushel, pork costs 1½ cts. per lb. |
| When corn costs 17 cts. per bushel, pork costs 2 cts. per lb.   |
| When corn costs 25 cts. per bushel, pork costs 3 cts. per lb.   |
| When corn costs 33 cts. per bushel, pork costs 4 cts. per lb.   |
| When corn costs 42 cts. per bushel, pork costs 5 cts. per lb.   |

The following table shows what the farmer realizes for his corn, when sold in the form of pork :—

|                                                                            |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| When pork sells for 3 cts. per lb., it brings 25 cts. per bushel for corn. |
| When pork sells for 4 cts. per lb., it brings 33 cts. per bushel for corn. |
| When pork sells for 5 cts. per lb., it brings 42 cts. per bushel for corn. |
| When pork sells for 6 cts. per lb., it brings 50 cts. per bushel for corn. |

## STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

### CENSUS OF ILLINOIS IN 1850 AND 1855.

The returns of the State census are all in, except from one county, (Jackson,) and the result will be so little varied that we may say that the census is now complete. Leaving out the population of Jackson county in 1850, 5,862, the entire population of the State at the time of taking the census, was 1,292,917; adding that, 1,298,779—so that if the increase in Jackson county since 1850 has been only 1,221, the round number of 1,300,000, is made out. Since the census was taken, however, from 20,000 to 30,000 have been added to the population, supposing the rate of increase to have been equal to that of the last five years. We subjoin a table of all the counties in the State :—

|                  | 1855.   | 1850.  |                  | 1855.  | 1850.  |
|------------------|---------|--------|------------------|--------|--------|
| Adams .....      | 34,311  | 26,598 | Effingham .....  | 6,226  | 3,799  |
| Alexander .....  | 2,927   | 2,484  | Fayette .....    | 9,592  | 8,570  |
| Bond .....       | 7,511   | 6,144  | Franklin .....   | 7,182  | 5,631  |
| Boone .....      | 10,994  | 7,624  | Fulton .....     | 27,968 | 22,508 |
| Brown .....      | 7,946   | 7,198  | Gallatin .....   | 6,723  | 5,442  |
| Bureau .....     | 19,518  | 8,841  | Greene .....     | 13,092 | 12,420 |
| Calhoun .....    | 3,768   | 3,231  | Grundy .....     | 7,021  | 3,023  |
| Carrroll .....   | 7,610   | 4,586  | Hamilton .....   | 7,212  | 6,362  |
| Cass .....       | 8,946   | 7,253  | Hancock .....    | 22,158 | 14,652 |
| Champaign .....  | 6,565   | 2,649  | Hardin .....     | 3,920  | 2,887  |
| Christian .....  | 7,041   | 3,203  | Henderson .....  | 7,128  | 4,612  |
| Clark .....      | 13,863  | 9,532  | Henry .....      | 9,218  | 3,807  |
| Clay .....       | 7,076   | 4,289  | Iroquois .....   | 6,788  | 4,140  |
| Clinton .....    | 6,823   | 5,139  | Jackson .....    | .....  | 5,862  |
| Coles .....      | 14,937  | 9,355  | Jasper .....     | 6,842  | 3,220  |
| Cook .....       | 103,960 | 43,385 | Jefferson .....  | 10,258 | 3,107  |
| Crawford .....   | 10,152  | 7,135  | Jersey .....     | 8,771  | 7,304  |
| Cumberland ..... | 6,099   | 3,718  | Jo Daviess ..... | 24,104 | 18,604 |
| De Kalb .....    | 13,636  | 7,540  | Johnson .....    | 6,946  | 4,114  |
| De Witt .....    | 8,508   | 5,102  | Kane .....       | 26,665 | 16,703 |
| Du Page .....    | 12,807  | 9,280  | Kankakee* .....  | 10,110 | .....  |
| Edgar .....      | 13,920  | 10,692 | Kendall .....    | 10,145 | 7,730  |
| Edwards .....    | 4,598   | 3,524  | Knox .....       | 22,347 | 13,279 |

\* This county was formed since 1850 from parts of Will and Iroquois.

|                  | 1855.  | 1850.  |                   | 1855.     | 1850    |
|------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-----------|---------|
| Lake .....       | 17,630 | 14,226 | Pulaski .....     | 2,462     | 2,265   |
| La Salle .....   | 35,563 | 7,815  | Putnam .....      | 5,100     | 3,924   |
| Lawrence .....   | 8,160  | 6,121  | Randolph .....    | 12,601    | 11,019  |
| Lee .....        | 11,618 | 5,292  | Richland .....    | 7,049     | 4,012   |
| Livingston ..... | 4,606  | 1,552  | Rock Island ..... | 16,217    | 6,937   |
| Logan .....      | 8,324  | 5,128  | St. Clair .....   | 28,554    | 20,180  |
| McDonough .....  | 12,886 | 7,616  | Saline .....      | 6,776     | 5,588   |
| McHenry .....    | 19,295 | 14,973 | Sangamon .....    | 25,604    | 19,225  |
| McLean .....     | 19,573 | 10,163 | Schuyler .....    | 12,296    | 10,572  |
| Macon .....      | 8,365  | 3,998  | Scott .....       | 7,937     | 7,915   |
| Macoupin .....   | 17,409 | 12,355 | Shelby .....      | 11,270    | 7,807   |
| Madison .....    | 21,556 | 20,441 | Stark .....       | 6,293     | 3,710   |
| Marion .....     | 10,139 | 6,720  | Stephenson .....  | 13,315    | 11,666  |
| Marshall .....   | 9,900  | 5,580  | Tazewell .....    | 17,371    | 12,052  |
| Mason .....      | 7,775  | 5,921  | Union .....       | 10,106    | 7,615   |
| Massac .....     | 5,692  | 4,002  | Vermillion .....  | 15,893    | 11,492  |
| Menard .....     | 8,029  | 6,349  | Wabash .....      | 6,233     | 4,692   |
| Mercer .....     | 9,660  | 5,246  | Warren .....      | 12,209    | 8,176   |
| Monroe .....     | 10,285 | 7,629  | Washington .....  | 10,059    | 6,053   |
| Montgomery ..... | 9,941  | 6,277  | Wayne .....       | 9,902     | 6,825   |
| Morgan .....     | 17,735 | 16,064 | White .....       | 10,059    | 6,053   |
| Moultrie .....   | 4,435  | 3,234  | Whiteside .....   | 13,416    | 5,361   |
| Ogle .....       | 10,456 | 10,020 | Will .....        | 24,468    | 16,703  |
| Peoria .....     | 30,134 | 17,547 | Williamson .....  | 9,430     | 7,216   |
| Perry .....      | 6,858  | 5,278  | Winnebago .....   | 20,826    | 11,775  |
| Piatt .....      | 3,052  | 1,605  | Woodford .....    | 8,400     | 4,415   |
| Pike .....       | 22,351 | 18,819 |                   |           |         |
| Pope .....       | 6,835  | 3,975  | Total .....       | 1,292,917 | 851,470 |

PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN CHICAGO AND TOLEDO.

We cheerfully give place to the following communication, in reply to statements of our esteemed correspondent, J. W. Scott, Esq. :—

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

DEAR SIR—The article of J. W. Scott, Esq., in the July number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, fails to do Chicago relative justice. At the time of its first appearance in the *Toledo Blade*, I furnished the inclosed notice of it to the *Chicago Tribune*, which, as amended in three points, please copy into the next number of the *Magazine*. Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

CHICAGO, July 21, 1856.

J. G. HAMILTON.

MESSRS. EDITORS—In a recent number of the *Toledo Blade*, J. W. Scott, Esq., presents a table of estimates of the future growth of Chicago and Toledo, based (one would suppose, judging from his text, quoted above,) upon their past growth, from which he would make it appear, that their respective populations in the not distant future, would be, Chicago, in 1860, 171,753; Toledo, in 1870, 146,815.

It is fair to presume Mr. Scott has *not* underrated Toledo, inasmuch as he is entirely familiar with the statistics of his own city. But he unquestionably, though unintentionally no doubt, fails to give Chicago "full measure," as is shown by the fact that for every year since 1850, (except 1852,) his estimates for Chicago are short of the census returns, the deficiency last year, 1855, amounting to 10,898. Over 12½ per cent.

His error, it is presumed, is to be accounted for in this way, viz. : In applying to Chicago since 1850, (the year when her railroad system began to be developed,) only the rate of increase which obtained from 1840 to 1850, before she had twenty miles of railroad in operation; while Toledo gets the benefit in the calculation of her ratio of increase since the development of her railroad system. According to his own showing, the rate of increase in Toledo, since 1850, has been about 20 per cent per annum; while, in point of fact, that of Chicago since the same date, has been about 23 per cent compounded annually.

Amending the estimate for Chicago, accordingly, the tables would stand as follows:—

|           | Toledo, per<br>Mr. Scott. | Chicago, per<br>Mr. Scott. | Chicago, per<br>census. | Chicago,<br>per estimate<br>23 per cent. |
|-----------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| 1850..... | 3,829                     | 27,786                     | 28,620                  | 28,620                                   |
| 1851..... | 4,596                     | 33,344                     | .....                   | 35,302                                   |
| 1852..... | 5,515                     | 40,011                     | 38,733                  | 43,431                                   |
| 1853..... | 6,618                     | 48,013                     | 60,652                  | 53,407                                   |
| 1854..... | 7,941                     | 57,416                     | *65,872                 | 65,690                                   |
| 1855..... | 9,529                     | 69,130                     | 80,028                  | 80,798                                   |
| 1856..... | 11,435                    | 82,828                     | .....                   | 99,381                                   |
| 1857..... | 13,722                    | 99,394                     | .....                   | 122,238                                  |
| 1858..... | 16,466                    | 119,273                    | .....                   | 150,352                                  |
| 1859..... | 19,760                    | 143,128                    | .....                   | 184,932                                  |
| 1860..... | 23,711                    | 171,753                    | .....                   | 227,466                                  |

While I neither affirm nor deny the correctness of Mr. Scott's text, that "what has been, will be," yet if it be true as applied to Chicago, it follows that our city during the year 1860, will contain a population of 227,000, instead of 171,000, as estimated by him. Either number is large enough to satisfy reasonable men; so the reader can choose for himself. I have not carried the calculation forward to 1870, the period at which Mr. S. assigns to Toledo a population of 146,815—having no fondness for the labor which the calculation would require, and being also somewhat fearful lest it might turn out that the largeness of our figures then, for Chicago, might cast a doubt upon the whole calculation. Beyond a question, they will be large enough to satisfy the demands of the most hopeful.

Either Mr. Scott's figures are too small for Chicago, or too large for Toledo; most likely the latter.

J. G. H.

MORTALITY OF POPULATION IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK IN 1855.

The following is the summary of the weekly bills of mortality in the city of New York in 1855, distinguishing each month and quarter, as nearly as the corresponding weeks will allow:—

| Months.       | Total. | Still-born. | Under<br>1 year. | Under<br>5 years. | From 5 to<br>20 years. | From 20 to<br>40 years. | Over<br>40 y'rs. |
|---------------|--------|-------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|
| January.....  | 1,388  | 128         | 589              | 981               | 157                    | 338                     | 302              |
| February..... | 2,067  | 131         | 714              | 1,193             | 168                    | 342                     | 344              |
| March.....    | 1,957  | 138         | 769              | 1,079             | 170                    | 383                     | 444              |
| 1st quarter.. | 5,412  | 397         | 2,072            | 3,253             | 395                    | 1,063                   | 1,090            |
| April.....    | 1,743  | 125         | 558              | 996               | 158                    | 309                     | 280              |
| May.....      | 2,174  | 134         | 673              | 1,234             | 176                    | 394                     | 370              |
| June.....     | 1,372  | 113         | 473              | 831               | 121                    | 226                     | 194              |
| 2d quarter..  | 5,289  | 372         | 1,704            | 3,061             | 455                    | 929                     | 844              |
| July.....     | 2,880  | 140         | 1,325            | 1,984             | 176                    | 387                     | 273              |
| August.....   | 2,358  | 106         | 1,066            | 1,770             | 94                     | 252                     | 242              |
| September.... | 1,755  | 115         | 685              | 1,190             | 101                    | 245                     | 209              |
| 3d quarter..  | 6,993  | 361         | 3,076            | 4,944             | 371                    | 884                     | 724              |
| October.....  | 1,828  | 129         | 592              | 1,047             | 115                    | 338                     | 326              |
| November..... | 1,283  | 131         | 319              | 729               | 104                    | 241                     | 211              |
| December..... | 1,374  | 126         | 446              | 767               | 105                    | 258                     | 244              |
| 4th quarter . | 4,486  | 386         | 1,356            | 2,543             | 324                    | 837                     | 781              |
| Total.....    | 22,179 | 1,516       | 8,208            | 13,851            | 1,545                  | 3,720                   | 2,339            |

\* Private census; believed not to be reliable.

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## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

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### THE SONG OF COMMERCE.

DEDICATED TO GEORGE STEERS, OF NEW YORK, THE GREAT AMERICAN NAVAL ARCHITECT, BUILDER OF THE YACHT "AMERICA," AND OF THE "NIAGARA" AND "ADRIATIC."

BY G. W. CUTLER.

Oh, come from the dull, tame round of life,  
From the paths so vainly trod—  
From the arts of man and his petty strife,  
O'er the glad waves, come abroad!  
The compass shall guide our trackless way  
O'er the wild, wild wastes we roam,  
When clouds obscure the light of day,  
And the sea is white with foam.

With song and cheer we haste to launch  
Our barks o'er the waters blue—  
Their giant ribs are strong and staunch  
As the hills whereon they grew;  
They are hewn from out the veteran oak  
That centuries have withstood  
The rending force of the thunder-stroke,  
In the ranks of the ancient wood.

For masts we'll rear the mountain pine,  
That far to the northward grows,  
Whose lofty boughs, like emeralds, shine  
O'er the drifting Polar snows.  
We'll stay them with sinuous cordage taut,  
That, under a press of sail,  
They will not spring when the tack is brought  
And she heels to the rushing gale.

With each studding and top-gallant sheet,  
With her royals poised in air,  
And skysails like the clouds that meet,  
And the heavens for change prepare—  
And proudly o'er all our Union stars,  
From her tapering topmast high,  
With the earthquake shouts of her gallant tars,  
Will fling to their native sky.

Then away from the landman's wildered view  
Shall flee her graceful form,  
The spray of the Alpine billows through  
With the speed of the flying storm;  
Thou hast no kings or groaning slaves,  
Thou ancient, glorious sea,  
Thou realm of wild and restless waves,  
Thou home of the fearless free!

Hurrah! o'er the boundless fields we roam,  
O'er thy billows, skyward rolled,  
Embossed by the white caps glittering foam,  
And fretted with solar gold;

And when, descending the curtained West,  
Day's lingering beams expire,  
Our highway o'er your heaving breast  
Shall brighten with gleams of fire.

We'll view the glowing Eden Isles  
O'er thy orient azure rise,  
Like the cloth of gold the sunset piles  
O'er the hills of the evening skies.  
We'll view the glittering iceberg roll  
Where the ocean is frozen white,  
As we slacken sail at the sunset pole  
By the glare of the northern light.

Ye shall see the wealth of every shore,  
In our priceless cargo shine  
The gleaming piles of golden ore,  
And the gems of every mine.  
Then speeding over our course sublime,  
With our cloud of sails unfurled,  
We'll hasten back to our native clime,  
From our race around the world.

Who talks of war? we have guns below,  
And the steel of the truest make,  
And where is the vain and reckless foe  
Their thunder shall dare awake?  
Our peaceful flag, that ne'er did blanch  
Where the smoke of the contest grew,  
Though it bears the shade of the olive branch,  
Is gleaming with arrows, too!

And the deeds of our lion-hearted sires  
With the hues of that flag are known,  
That now is flashing its starry fires  
In the clouds of every zone;  
The tide from their clotted scuppers poured  
Made crimson the dark-blue main,  
When the stricken foe hath seen them board  
Like the rush of the hurricane.

Should his hostile flag appear again  
O'er the fires of his silenced guns,  
The blood his shattered bulwark stains  
Shall prove that we are their sons—  
The war-cry of that glorious band  
Shall revive on every breeze,  
The freedom of our native land,  
The freedom of the seas.

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### COPPER ORE A DANGEROUS CARGO.

The ship *Georgia*, which recently arrived at Liverpool, Eng., from Savannah, brought some copper ore in cases, which proves to be an exceedingly dangerous cargo, for so great was the heat evolved during the passage, from the sulphur contained in the ore, that some of the cases were taken out of the ship completely charred, the lids being a mass of charcoal; while the cotton stowed immediately above them was partially burnt, and when landed from the ship, so hot as to make it painful for a man to thrust his hand into the bales. These ores should be first roasted to dispel the sulphur in them before they are shipped across the Atlantic.

## ACTIVITY IS NOT ALWAYS ENERGY.

There are some men, whose failure to succeed in life is a problem to others, as well as to themselves. They are industrious, prudent, and economical; yet, after a long life of striving, old age finds them still poor. They complain of ill luck. They say fate is always against them. But the fact is, they miscarry because they have mistaken mere activity for energy. Confounding two things essentially different, they have supposed that, if they were always busy, they would be certain to be advancing their fortunes. They have forgotten that misdirected labor is but a waste of activity. The person who would succeed in life is like a marksman firing at a target; if his shots miss the mark, they are a waste of powder; to be of any service at all, they must tell in the bull's eye or near. So in the great game of life, what a man does must be made to count, or it had almost as well been left undone. The idle warrior, cut from a shingle, who fights the air on the top of a weather-cock, instead of being made to turn some machine commensurate with his strength, is not more worthless than the merely active man, who, though busy from sunrise to sunset, dissipates his labor on trifles, when he ought skillfully to concentrate it on some great end.

Everybody knows some one in his circle of acquaintance, who, though always active, has this want of energy. The distemper, if we may call it such, exhibits itself in various ways. In some cases, the man has merely an executive faculty, when he should have a directive one; in other language, he makes a capital clerk, for himself, when he ought to do the thinking of the business. In other cases what is done, is either not done at the right time, or in the right way. Sometimes, there is no distinction made between objects of different magnitudes, but as much labor is bestowed on a trivial affair as on a matter of vast moment. Energy, correctly understood, is activity proportioned to the end. Napoleon would often, when on a campaign, remain for days without taking off his clothes, now galloping from point to point, now dictating dispatches, now studying maps. But his periods of repose, when the crisis was over, were generally as protracted as his exertions had been. He has been known to sleep eighteen hours on a stretch. Second rate men, your slaves of tape and routine, while they would fall short of the superhuman exertions of the great emperor, would have thought themselves lost beyond hope, if they imitated what they call his indolence. They are capital illustrations of activity, keeping up their monotonous jog-trot forever, while Napoleon, with his gigantic industry, alternating with such apparent idleness, is as striking an example of energy.

We do not mean to imply that chronic indolence, if relieved occasionally by spasmodic fits of industry, is to be recommended. Men who have this character run into the opposite extreme of that which we have been stigmatizing, and fail as invariably of winning success in life. To call their occasional periods of application, energy, would be a sad misnomer. Such persons, indeed, are but civilized savages, so to speak, vagabonds at heart, in their secret hatred of work, and only resorting to labor occasionally, like the wild Indian, who, after lying for weeks about his hut, is roused by sheer hunger, and starts off on a hunting excursion. Real energy is persevering, steady, disciplined. It never either loses sight of the object to be accomplished, nor intermits its exertions while there is a possibility of success. Napoleon, in the plains of Champagne, sometimes fighting two battles in one day, first defeating the Russians, and then turning on the Austrians, is an

illustration of this energy. The Duke of Brunswick, dawdling away precious time, when he invaded France, at the outbreak of the first revolution, is an example to the contrary. Activity beats about a cover, like an untrained dog, never lighting on the covey. Energy goes straight to the bird.

#### THE VIRTUES WHICH COMMAND SUCCESS.

James Holford has risen step by step up the ladder of fortune until he stands securely at the summit, with fame, wealth and honors surrounding him. Some twenty years ago this same James Holford was at the very foot of the ladder, pondering how he should rise. The ladder was very curious to contemplate, and still more curious was it to hear what the world said about it.

"It is all luck, sir," cried one, "nothing but luck; why, sir, I have managed at times to get up a step or two, but have always fallen down ere long, and now I have given up striving, for luck is against me."

"No, sir," cried another, "it is not so much luck as scheming; the selfish schemer gets up while more honest folks remain at the foot."

"Patronage does it all," said a third, "you must have somebody to take you by the hand and help you up, or you have no chance."

James Holford heard all these varied opinions of the world, but still persisted in looking upward, for he had faith in himself.

"The cry of luck's all, what does it amount to in reality," thought he, "but that some people are surrounded by better circumstances than others; they must still, however, take advantage of these circumstances permanently to succeed; and I, having very indifferent circumstances around me, have the more need to use great exertion in order to better them; and when reverses come I will not despair as some do, but persevere on to fortune. I want no friend to take me by the hand and do that for me which every healthy man can do better for himself. No. I will rise by myself alone."

The resolution was earnestly made, and faithfully carried out. From the humblest office in a store, to the post of the highest trust, James Holford rose in a few years. He placed his affections on one alike to him in sympathies and fortune, and wedded happiness with her. He became a trader for himself, having from his income laid by sufficient to start with. His probity, his courtesy and his application, commended him to all his customers, and every year saw him advancing higher in the world's estimation. Not only did he devote his energies to his business, but his leisure hours were given to the cultivation of his mental faculties, so that his neighbors soon began to look upon him as an authority in public matters, and again and again confided offices of trust to him, in which he invariably won golden opinions. Independent in spirit as he is now also independent in fortune, and still in the vigor of health and life, with a fine troop of children around him, James Holford looks with hope and serenity to the future, while in his every action he still offers a model to the world.

His counsel is much sought by the young and aspiring, and he thus discourses to them concerning the ladder of fortune:

"The steps from the foot to the summit are not many, but each has a name which must be distinctly known by all who would seek to climb. The first step is faith, and without this none can safely rise; the second, industry; the third, perseverance; the fourth, temperance; the fifth, probity, and the sixth, independence. Having attained thus high a position on the ladder, the future rise is easy, for faith will have taught the climber never to doubt or despair; industry will have kept him from vice either in thought or deed; perseverance will have shown him how easily difficulties are surmounted when calmly met; temperance will have preserved both health and temper; probity will have ensured respect and given stability to the character; and independence of spirit, while it will give dignity to the man, will certainly gain the admiration of the world. One step more has to be acquired, which is experience—the only true knowledge of life, and then the summit of the ladder is surely reached."

Young men, the ladder of fortune can be mounted by all of you, if you learn the moral of James Holford's life. Say, who is the first to profit by it?

## DOES WEALTH LEAD TO THE PHYSICAL ENERVATION OF A COUNTRY ?

The writers who lived at the periods when Europe was slowly emerging from ignorance and poverty, through the first slight union of capital and labor as voluntary exchangers, complain of the increase of comforts as indications of the growing luxury and effeminacy of the people. Harrison says, "in times past, men were content to dwell in houses built of sallow, willow, plum-tree, or elm; so that the use of oak was dedicated to churches, religious houses, princes' palaces, noblemen's lodgings and navigation. But now, these are rejected, and nothing but oak any whit regarded. And yet see the change; for when our houses were builded of willow, then had we oaken men; but now that our houses are made of oak, our men are not only become willow, but many, through Persian delicacy crept in among us, altogether of straw, which is a sore alteration. In those days, the courage of the owner was a sufficient defense to keep the house in safety; but now, the assurance of the timber, double doors, locks, and bolts, must defend the man from robbing. Now have we many chimneys, and our tenderlings complain of rheums, catarrhs, and poses. Then had we none but rere-doses, and our heads did never ache." These complaints go upon the same principle that made it a merit in Epictetus, the Greek philosopher, to have no door to his hovel. We think he would have been a wiser man if he had contrived to have had a door. A story is told of a Highland chief, Sir Evan Cameron, that himself and a party of his followers being benighted and compelled to sleep in the open air, when his son rolled up a ball of snow and laid his head upon it for a pillow, the rough old man kicked it away, exclaiming, "What, sir! are you turning effeminate?" We doubt whether Sir Evan Cameron and his men were braver than the English officers who fought at Waterloo; and yet many of these marched from the ball-room at Brussels in their holiday attire, and won the battle in silk stockings. It is an old notion that plenty of the necessaries and conveniencies of life renders a nation feeble. We are told that the Carthaginian soldiers whom Hannibal carried into Italy were suddenly rendered effeminate by the abundance which they found around them at Capua. The commissariat of modern nations goes upon another principle; and believes that unless the soldier has plenty of food and clothing he will not fight with alacrity and steadiness. The half-starved soldiers of Henry V. won the battle of Agincourt; but it was not because they were half-starved, but because they roused their native courage to cut their way out of the peril by which they were surrounded. When we hear of ancient nations being enervated by abundance, we may be sure that the abundance was almost entirely devoured by a few tyrants, and that the bulk of the people were rendered weak by the destitution which resulted from the unnatural distribution of riches.

## FINE CRUSTED OLD PORT.

The following bit of "biography" from "ODDS AND ENDS," will amuse, if it does not instruct, the wine merchant or the wine drinker:—

Topper Topper, Esq., of Topper-hall, Toppershire, was many years since a dashing member, the phrase is now "fast," of Bronzephiz College," in the University of Mudford. Topper kept much company, and gave many wine parties. Port was the thing in those days. He was very fastidious and particular in his choice of his "tipple," and flattered himself, and was pleased when others flattered him by thinking, that on this point he *was* a connoisseur, and no mistake about it. His talk, indeed, when abstracted from dogs and horses, was about

this or that vintage, "beeswing," "crust," and so forth. His wine merchants were the famous Messrs. Sloejuice, Smallquart, and Brandy mix. They liked such customers as Topper, who bought largely and paid readily, and, of course, served him well and sent him nothing but their best, as one of them would say with his slangy wit, "it must always be *tip top* for Mr. Topper. These vinous men had, especially, one bin which they reserved for him. It had once, as they asserted, contained a few fabulous dozens of fabulous old port, bought at the fabulous sale of some fabulous duke, and somehow or other these fabulous dozens never grew less. They were as never-failing as the widow's miraculous cruse of oil. Topper, however, believed in their integrity, and that was enough.

"If ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise."

But his faith was destined in the end to be rudely and funnily disturbed. He had one day bought a few dozens more of "the duke's fine crusted old port," which, as a particular favor to him, their best customer, Sloejuice & Co. again promised that he should have. The wine was forthwith sent to his lodgings, where he received it himself. Now it so happened that the old porter of the establishment who was acquainted with all the secrets and mysteries of the wine trade, was very busy that day, and had sent, in his place, a new hand altogether raw and uninitiated. When the wine was stowed away, he asked Topper for something wherewith to drink his health. When it was given, he looked rather contemptuously at the amount, and then, touching his hat, innocently observed, "Please, sir, I think I deserve a little more." "More!" retorted Topper; "What! for bringing a hamper of wine half the length of the street?" "But, then, sir," rejoined the greenest of Johnny Raws, touching his hat again at the same time, "consider, sir, that I have been engaged all the morning in *bottling* this wine for you." Here was a pretty cat to let out of a pretty bag. Here were the Eleusinian mysteries exposed with a vengeance. An earthquake or a jump down Niagara, or a leap into Vesuvius, or the explosion of a powder magazine, would not have been half so trying to the nerves of the overwhelmed Topper. Here was he who prided himself on being far and away the best judge of wine in all the University of Mudford, fairly "sold," duped, and diddled into believing that he was swallowing "the duke's fine crusted old port," when all the time it was new from the cask, and, perhaps, newly mixed as well as newly bottled. But what could he do? He would only expose his own simplicity and ignorance by exposing his wine merchants. He, therefore, voted that "the least said would be the soonest mended." But the story, nevertheless, oozed out, and many a good laugh there was at his expense before it was superseded by another joke of as telling a character.

#### PUNCTUALITY IN ALL THINGS.

It is astonishing how many people there are who neglect punctuality. Thousands have failed in life from this cause alone. It is not only a serious vice in itself, but it is the fruitful parent of numerous other vices, so that he who becomes the victim of it gets involved in toils from which it is almost impossible to escape. It makes the merchant wasteful of time; it saps the business reputation of the lawyer, and it injures the prospects of mechanics who might otherwise rise to fortune; in a word, there is not a profession, nor a station in life, which is not liable to the canker of this destructive habit.

It is a fact not always remembered, that Napoleon's great victories were won by infusing into his subordinates the necessity of punctuality to the minute. It was his plan to maneuver over large spaces of country, so as to render the enemy uncertain where he was about to strike the blow, and then suddenly to concentrate his forces and fall with irresistible force on some weak point of the extended lines of the foe. The execution of this system demanded that each division of the army

should arrive at a specified spot punctually; for, if any part failed to come up, the battle was lost. It was by imitating this plan that the allies finally succeeded in overthrowing the emperor. The whole Waterloo campaign turned on these tactics. At Mount St. Jean, Blucher was punctual, while Grouchy was not; and the result was that Napoleon fell and Wellington triumphed.

In mercantile affairs, punctuality is as important as in military. Many are the instances in which the neglect to renew an insurance punctually has led to a serious loss. Hundreds of city merchants are now suffering in consequence of the want of punctuality among their Western customers in paying up accounts. With sound policy do the banks insist, under the penalty of a protest, on the punctual payment of notes; for, were they to do otherwise, commercial transactions would fall into inextricable confusion. Many and many a time has the failure of one man to meet his obligations brought on the ruin of a score of others, just as the toppling down, in a line of bricks, of the master brick, causes the fall of all the rest.

Perhaps there is no one class of men less punctual than mechanics. Do you want an upholsterer? He rarely comes when he agrees. So with carpenters, painters, and nearly all others. Tailors and shoemakers often do not have their articles home in time. The consequence is that thousands remain poor all their lives, who, if they were more faithful in their word, would secure a large run of custom, and so make their fortunes. What would become of the *Magazine* if it was not punctual in going to press? or if our paper-makers were not punctual in delivering paper? or if our compositors were not punctual in coming to work? Be punctual, if you would succeed.

#### HINTS FOR BUSINESS MEN.

Pick up that pin—let that account be correct to a farthing—find out what that ribbon costs before you say “you will take it”—pay that half dime your friend handed you to make change with—in a word, be economical, be accurate, know what you are doing—be honest, and then be generous; for all you have or acquire thus belongs to you by every rule of right, and you may put it to any good use if you acquire it justly and honestly, for you have a foundation, a background which will always keep you above the waves of evil. It is not parsimonious to be economical. It is not selfish to be correct in your dealings. It is not small to know the price of articles you are about to purchase, or to remember the little debt you owe. What if you do meet Bill Pride decked out in a much better suit than yours, the price of which he has not learned from his tailor, and he laughs at your faded dress and old fashioned notions of honesty and right, your day will come. Franklin, who from a saving boy, walking the street with a roll under his arm, became a companion for kings, says, “Take care of the pennies, and the dollars will take care of themselves.” La Fitte, the celebrated French banker, leaving the house to which he had applied for a clerkship, was not too proud or careless to pick up a pin. This simple pin laid the foundation of his immense wealth. The wise banker saw the act, called him back, and gave him employment, convicted by the seeming small circumstance of his ability and honesty. Be just and then be generous. Yes, be just, always, and then you can always be generous. Benevolence is a great duty, a heaven-given privilege, by which you not only benefit the object, but feel a sensation of joy in your own soul, which is worth

more, far more, than gain. But you may not give your neighbor's goods. Your own just earnings you should always share with the needy, but generosity can never be measured by the amount you lavish on a fine dress, or that you spend with your friends to satisfy the requirements of vanity and folly. What if they do pat you on the shoulder? They would do as much to any dog that would serve them. It is the service, not yourself, that gets the flattery, or you spend your money for naught certainly. Well, let the girls say you are small, rather than spend that dollar you need for a book. Get the book, if it is a good one, it will tell you that no girl worth having ever selected a man for a husband for his long tailor and livery-stable bill more than for his long ears.

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#### BUYING AND SELLING.

Buying and selling are so well understood in Turkey, that Mohammedans make a practice of going to mosk, and leaving their goods marked with their several prices, and those who go bazaaring—not shopping—choose what they want, and leave the money to every fraction. What a censure upon Christendom, where Falstaff's exclamation is so peculiarly applicable, "How this world is given to lying!" Think of the barefaced assurance of a clerk, with confidential looks, assuring customers that he is actually selling at cost price! The most profound adept in falsehood is sure of promotion, therefore it is no wonder so many lickspittles turn the tables on their employers, when the devil is the father of lies, and lying the origin of all evil. The popular mania for bargains first caused these deceptions to be practiced among traders in their own defense—at least, this is certainly a plausible excuse under present circumstances, for buyers and sellers are foes rather than friends, and each one exults in turn, when laying the flattering unction to their souls that one has overreached the other.

"'Tis naught, saith the buyer, but after a while he boasteth." This shows that a similar system was carried on in the days of Solomon. David seems to intimate that the children, in his days, told lies as soon as they were born. This pernicious custom of romancing has become so general as to produce a countless race, whose ideality is immense; they imagine that the most notorious falsehoods are merely poetical licenses and flowers of rhetoric. Major Longbow would have made his fortune in a retail dry goods' store, or a Jew's ready-made clothing establishment. "One fib is oft the cause of ten more," says the old spelling-book; and one who has the gift of the gab, and "lays it on with a trowel," is now considered a first-rate salesman. Is it possible, after such manifestations, that a good understanding can be maintained between employer and employed? Let us consider the essential qualities most likely to attract patronage and inspire respect.

The primary object is unquestionably to win the confidence of those likely to become purchasers, and for such a purpose, truth is our card of recommendation; all duplicity is recoiled at as derogatory to the character of probity. The cost price of wares is never referred to, supposing such a reference might only produce incredulity and suspicion. Having a general knowledge of human nature, a salesman adapts himself to the disposition of the buyer, and, by sedulous attention and courtesy, he is sure to please. Should an injudicious choice be made of a defective article, an honorable man will point it out, and produce only what he

can warrant. Such undeviating, straightforward transactions are the sure methods of building up a business that will endure.

"Discretion in speech is more than eloquence," while sincerity and affability are passports that carry merchants through the world like winged Mercuries. An impertinent coxcomb is avoided, especially by ladies; an unmeaning tittle-tattle—foreign to the subject—is out of place, and resembles the trickery of a juggler to divert attention. Every one has an indubitable right to make all the profits he possibly can—but honorably. "The worth of a thing depends on the want of it; the value of a thing is the market price of it. This is the only intelligible idea of value, and the only reasonable adjustment of price." On competition depends the market price and its fluctuations.

With these necessary causes, still honor and truth need never be infringed. The public know how to discriminate between genuine and fictitious trading, which accounts for the failures so frequent in our cities; once imposed on, the rogues' store is shunned, and finally closed. Honesty is the best policy all the world over.

#### WISH FOR NO MAN'S WEALTH.

"I wish I had his money," said a young, hearty-looking man, as a millionaire passed him in the street. And so has wished many a youth before him, who devotes too much time to wishing, that too little is left for working. But never does one of these draw a comparison between their several fortunes. The rich man's money looms up like a balloon before them, hiding uncounted cares and anxieties, from which they are free; keeping out of sight those bodily ills that luxury breeds, and all the mental horrors of *ennui* and satiety; the fear of death that wealth fosters, the jealousy of life and love from which it is inseparable. Let none wish for unearned gold. The sweat by which 'tis gathered is the only sweet by which it is preserved for enjoyment, for in too literal a sense is it true, that "'tis easier for a camel to pass through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of heaven."

Wish for no man's money.

The health, and strength, and freshness, and sweet sleep of youth are yours. Young love, by day and night, encircles you. Hearts unsoiled by the deep sin of covetousness, beat fondly with your own. None—ghout-like—listen for the death-tick in your chamber; your shoes have value in men's eyes—only when you tread in them. The smiles no wealth can purchase greet you—living; and tears that rarely drop on rose-wood coffins, will fall from pitying eyes upon you—dying. Be wise in being content with competency. You have, to eat, to drink, to wear, enough? then have you all the rich man hath. What though he fares more sumptuously? He shortens life—increases pains and aches, impairs his health thereby. What if his raiments be more costly? God loves him none the more, and man's respect in such regard comes ever mingled with his envy.

Nature is yours in all her glory; her ever varying and forever beautiful face smiles peace upon you. Her hills and valleys, fields and flowers, and rocks, and streams, and holy places, know no desecration in the step of poverty; but welcome ever to their wealth of beauty—rich and poor alike.

Be content! The robin chirps as gaily as the gorgeous bird of Paradise. Less gaudy is his plumage, less splendid his surroundings. Yet no joy that cheers the

Eastern beauty, but comes upon his barren hills to bless the nest that robin builds. His flight is as strong, his note as gay, and in his humble home the light of happiness shines all as bright, because no cloud of envy dims it. Let us, then, labor and be strong—in the best use of that we have; wasting no golden hours in idle wishes for things that burden those who own them, and could not bless us if we had them, as the gifts already bestowed by a Wisdom that never errs. Being content, the poorest man is rich; while he who counts his millions hath little joy if he be otherwise.

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#### CHARACTER.

Integrity of character and truth in the inner man are the prerequisites for success in any calling, and especially so in that of the merchant. These are attributes of the man which never fail to command respect and win admiration. No one fails to appreciate them, and if they "do not pay," in the vulgar sense of this phrase, they bring an amount of satisfaction and peace to the owner, that all the wealth of Cræsus could not yield. There is no better stock in trade than these commodities; no capital goes so far or pays so well or is so exempt from bankruptcy and loss. When known, it gives credit and confidence, and in the hardest of times will honor your paper in bank. It gives you an unlimited capital to do business on, and everybody will indorse your paper, and the general faith of mankind will be your guaranty that you will not fail. Let every young man in commencing business look well to these indispensable elements of success, and guard and defend them as he would the apple of his eye. If inattentive and reckless here, he will imperil everything. Bankruptcy in character is seldom repaired in an ordinary lifetime. A man may suffer in reputation and recover—not so the man who suffers in character. Be just and truthful. Let these be the ruling and predominating principles of your life, and the reward will be certain, either in the happiness they bring to your own bosom, or the success which will attend upon all your business operations in life—or both.

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#### STICK TO THE CONTRACT.

A very pleasant commotion was caused in one of the towns in the vicinity of Boston, by a singular instance of sticking to the contract, related to us by a friend. A sea captain was about to start on a long voyage, and entered into a contract with a builder to erect him a commodious house during his absence. Everything was to be done according to the contract, which the captain had had drawn up with great care. A large sum was to be forfeited by the builder if he should fail to observe any of the stipulations, or attempt to put in his notions where the contract made no provision for them. The captain sailed and returned. His house stood in ample and imposing proportions before his sight, and he confessed himself delighted with the exterior. But when he entered and attempted to ascend to the second floor of the building, he found no stairs, and no means of ascent were to be had till ladders were sent for. The captain felt that he was trifled with, and a bit of a gale seemed brewing. But this was soon quieted by the opening of the written contract, and there was found not the least provision for stairs in any part of the house! "Give me your hand, sir," said the noble captain at once; "all right! You've stuck to the contract, and I like it."

The stairs were subsequently, at a great expense, put in, and the captain often

remarked that one of the pleasantest things about his elegant residence was, the remembrance of one man who could stick to the very terms of a contract.

Now, "such a getting up stairs" as was involved by this fidelity to a contract few would like, but it is, after all, one of the best checks on want of care in business arrangements. Nine-tenths of the trouble growing out of building operations arise from violations of the terms of the contract, on the ground that such and such things were omitted—such and such alterations will give great satisfaction when they are executed—this omission being put over against that addition, and both the builder and the property owner looking, for the time, only on that side of the transaction which favors them individually. When the settlement comes, lo, a bill of items longer than Jacob's ladder is brought forth, in addition to the sum specified in the contract, and the property owner is asked to pay for every whim and carelessness of the builder. The only remedy for these evils, which so often lead to vexatious law-suits, is, to specify every intended variation from the contract as carefully as the first arrangement was drawn up; and when this is not done, stick to the contract, though it impels to "such a getting up stairs" as was never seen before.

#### THE PLACER "TIMES" ON MERCANTILE INTEGRITY.

As important as financial solvency in a mercantile community, is that strict integrity of purpose which guaranties reliance in the world, as well as the bond of the merchant. Were it necessary in all the transactions which take place between men of business to pass written guaranties, legally constructed and attested by witnesses, trade would be sadly hampered. The wheels of commerce would be clogged, and important time would be lost in gathering together the means requisite to guard against breaches of faith. Indeed honor and policy both dictate that the word of those with whom we are often brought in business contact should be implicitly relied on, and that verbal assurances should often be taken as guaranties as sacred as would be legally attested instruments of engagement. In every great commercial mart, this confidence happily obtains, and comparatively few are the instances in which it is signally abused. Yet in California, as almost everywhere else, there are occasional instances where men, disregarding the most solemn pledges, violate their word, and entail consequent loss upon those who had confided in their honor.

The species of breach of faith alluded to has of late most glaringly taken form in the violation of verbal compacts in regard to rates at which merchandise should be disposed of. A consignee receives one of a series of cargoes of goods, for which he is naturally anxious to find a market. Owing to a variety of causes, he alone may be cognizant of the fact that other cargoes of a similar character are on the way from the same or similar ports, and he alone may know that the amount of such goods likely to come to hand within a short period is greater than the immediate requirements of the market demand. That he should endeavor to dispose of his consignment as speedily as possible, and at prices as remunerating as possible, it will be conceded is consistent with his duty to his consignor, always providing that he resort to no unworthy means of accomplishing his object.

Honor may not require of him that he should take especial pains to inform the business world that he expects an early glut of the market, but honor does require that he should not labor to create an impression inconsistent with what he knows to be true. More especially does it require that after his assurances that a scarcity is at hand, and after he has disposed of a portion of his merchandise at prices below which he has promised his customers that he will not sell within a given period, he should not enter the market at lower rates, and undersell those who had reposed confidence in his integrity. It is true that by pursuing an opposite course the returns he may make will prove more satisfactory to the shipper, and in view of the uncertainty of law, even should law be resorted to, he

may enjoy legal immunities ; but in the estimation of those who duly appreciate mercantile integrity, he stands branded as one unworthy the name of a merchant.

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#### THE SECRET OF SUCCESS.

There is a class of men who rail at fortune, and accuse her of being blind in her gifts. They say that dull plodding men succeed while men of brilliant attainments fail ; but they never pause to ask why it is so. To the end of their days they continue to murmur at fickle fortune, whereas they would be far wiser to complain of fickle self. There is a simple truth too often lost sight of by the world, which we shall now seek to demonstrate ; it is that the lesser virtues win.

Alpha and Omega begin life together as clerks in a merchant's counting-room. Alpha has more varied talents than Omega, and gains more favor in the eyes of their employer during the first few months. There is no denying that Alpha is smart and Omega comparatively slow ; Alpha can accomplish more work in a given time ; but Omega is more painstaking. It occurs to Alpha that all his duties can be performed in less time than he now gives to them, and he determines to come to business a little later and leave a little earlier. Omega is always punctual. One evening their employer stays late in town, and wanting the services of Alpha finds him not at his books, and has to ask Omega to do his work. Again and again this occurs, but Alpha is always ready with excuses, and his employer is of an indulgent nature.

The dissipations of the world have strong allurements for Alpha, and he often comes to business with feverish brow and nervous hand. His thoughts are then how to dissemble his suffering, not how to fulfil his duties. His books are carelessly kept, and he is told to imitate Omega. Then Alpha begins to murmur at life. The plodding Omega preferred to him ; why he " could talk and write down such a fellow any day." " Very true, Alpha, but you forget that Omega does much more useful work in a year." Omega is persevering, and is continually surmounting difficulties over which Alpha stumbles, until at last Omega's painstaking, punctual and persevering habits are known to insure reliability in every business transaction, and he is rewarded by being made a partner in the firm, while Alpha remains a clerk on sufferance.

Shall we pursue the story further, and see Omega rising to the top-most pinnacle of fortune, and Alpha sinking lower into the gulf of dissipation ? Shall we hearken to the latter railing at fortune while in his every action he courts misfortune ? Shall we view him wilfully perverting his talents, and yet blaming society for not seeing him as he might have been instead of as he is ? Shall we gaze on him, when an utterly ruined and disappointed man he falls into a premature grave, self-deluded to the last ; the cruel world and not the cruel self his final theme ?

We prefer to dwell for a moment on a more pleasing subject—the moral to be gathered from the life of Omega. We have said that the lesser virtues win, and it ever must be so, for they lead to the higher virtues. Painstaking perseverance leads to strict probity. Omega was engaged to do his very best for his employer and he scrupulously did so. To dissipate is not alone to trifle with health and reputation, but to rob the employer of a portion of the time for which he pays. It is not enough for a young man to say he will be in business during the hours specified, but he should come calm and collected so as to perform his duties well ;

and to insure this he must be as regular in his habits away from business as when in business. The punctual man becomes the honorable man, for in saving moments he preserves his good faith with the world. His word rises in public estimation, for it is known to be the word of a truly honest man. Prize then the lesser virtues, young men, on the threshold of life, and then in the meridian of your days the higher virtues will be your solace and reward.

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PUNCTUALITY.

A shoemaker of Dublin had a longing desire to work for Dean Swift. He was recommended by Mr. James Swing, the banker, and Mr. Sican, a merchant. The Dean gave him an order for a pair of boots, adding, "when shall I have them."

"On Saturday next," said the shoemaker.

"I have no appointments," said the Dean, "nor would I have you disappoint others; set your own time and keep to it."

"I thank your reverence," said Bamerick, (for that was his name;) "I desire no longer than 'Saturday e'en, when you will be sure to have them without fail."

They parted. The boots were finished at the time; but through hurry of business, Mr. Bamerick forgot to carry them home till Monday evening. When the Dean drew the boots on and found them to his mind he said:

"Mr. Bamerick, you have answered to the commands of your friends, but you have disappointed me, for I was to have been at Sir Arthur Axhosen's, in the county of Armagh, on this day."

"Indeed, and indeed sir," said Bamerick, "the boots were finished at the time, but I forgot to bring them home."

The Dean gave him one of his stern looks; and after a pause asked him whether he understood gardening as well as bootmaking. Bamerick answered:

"No, sir; but I have seen some very fine gardens in England."

"Come," said the Dean, in a good-humored tone, "I will show you some improvements I have made in the deanery garden."

They walked through the garden to the further end, when the Dean started as if recollecting something. "I must step in," said he; "stay here till I come back." Then he ran out of the garden, locked the door, and put the key in his pocket. Bamerick walked about till it grew dark, and not seeing the Dean, he at last ventured to follow him; but found the door locked. He knocked and called several times to no purpose; he perceived himself confined between high walls, the night dark and cold in the month of March. However, he had not the least suspicion of his being intentionally confined.

The deanery servants went to bed at the usual hour, and the Dean remained in his study until two o'clock in the morning. He then went into the hall and drew the charge out of a blunderbus and other fire-arms. then returned and rang his bell. He was immediately attended by one of his servants.

"Robert," said he, "I have been much disturbed with a noise in the garden side; I fear some robbers have entered; get me a lantern and call up Saunders." Then the Dean took the lantern and stayed by the arms until the men came. "Arm yourself," said he, "and follow me." He led them into the garden where the light soon attracted poor Bamerick, who came running up to them. Upon his approach the Dean roared out, "there is the robber, shoot him." Saunders presented, and Bamerick, terrified to death, fell on his knees and begged his life. The Dean held the lantern up to the man's face, and gravely said:

"Mercy on us! Mr. Bamerick, how came you here?"

"Lord, sir," said Bamerick, "don't you remember you left me here last evening?"

"Ah, friend," said the Dean, "I forgot it as you did the boots," then turning around to Robert, who was the butler, he said, "give the man some warm wine and see him safe home."

STICK TO YOUR BUSINESS.

There is nothing which should be more frequently impressed upon the minds of young men than the importance of steadily pursuing some one business. The frequent changing from one employment to another is one of the most common errors committed, and to it may be traced more than half the failures of men in business, and much of the discontent and disappointment that render life uncomfortable. It is a very common thing for a man to be dissatisfied with his business, and to desire to change it for some other, and what seems to him will prove a more lucrative employment; but in nine cases out of ten it is a mistake. Look round you, and you will find among your acquaintances abundant verification of our assertion.

Here is a young man who commenced life as a mechanic, but from some cause imagined that he ought to have been a doctor; and after a hasty and shallow preparation has taken up the saddle bags only to find that work is still work, and that his patients are no more profitable than his work-bench, and the occupation not a whit more agreeable.

Here are two young men, clerks; one of them is content, when his first term of service is over, to continue a clerk till he shall have saved enough to commence business on his own account; the other can't wait, but starts off without capital and with a limited experience, and brings up after a few years in a court of insolvency, while his former comrade, by patient perseverance, comes out at last with a fortune.

That young lawyer who became disheartened because briefs and cases did not crowd upon him while he was yet redolent of calf-bound volumes, and had small use for red tape, who concluded that he had mistaken his calling, and so plunged into politics, finally settled down into the character of a middling pettifogger, scrambling for his daily bread.

There is an honest farmer who has toiled a few years, got his farm paid for, but does not grow rich very rapidly, as much for lack of contentment mingled with his industry as any thing, though he is not aware of it—he hears the wonderful stories of California, and how fortunes may be had for the trouble of picking them up; mortgages his farm to raise money, goes away to the land of gold, and after many months of hard toil, comes home to commence again at the bottom of the hill for a more weary and less successful climbing up again.

Mark the men in every community who are notorious for ability and equally notorious for never getting ahead, and you will usually find them to be those who never stick to any one business long, but are always forsaking their occupation just when it begins to be profitable.

Young man, stick to your business. It may be you have mistaken your calling—if so, find it out as quick as possible and change it; but don't let any uneasy desire to get along fast, or a dislike of your honest calling lead you to abandon it. Have some honest occupation, and then stick to it; if you are sticking type, stick away at them; if you are selling oysters, keep on selling them; if you are at the law, hold fast to that profession; pursue the business you have chosen, persistently, industriously, and hopefully, and if there is anything of you it will appear and turn to account in that as well or better, than in any other calling; only if you are a loafer, forsake that line of life as speedily as possible, for the longer you stick to it, the worse it will "stick" you.

GETTING ALONG SLOWLY.

Such is the answer frequently given to inquiries respecting the worldly prosperity of our friends. "How are you getting along?" "Well, I don't know,—getting along slowly!" This question and the answer may be set down as among the most familiar phrases, asked and answered, over and over again, just as unthinkingly and unmeaningly as the salutations given in passing, "Good-day—How-d'ye-do?"

But, without stopping to quarrel with custom, we will suppose that the answer is made, as in many cases it may be, in all soberness and truth, and see if we cannot draw from it some lessons of practical utility. "Getting along slowly." This is generally spoken, whenever earnestly uttered, in a regretful, fault-finding tone, and yet contains an admission for which the individual should feel grateful. It is something, yea, it is a great thing—it is decidedly a meritorious achievement to be *getting along* at all in this busy, crowding, selfish world of trade. Do you say, reader, that you are getting along slowly? Then you have much to be thankful for. By *getting along* you mean that you are advancing in your worldly interests, that you are increasing in prosperity, gaining riches; but you say, *slowly*. Very well, "slow and sure" has been the maxim of the wisest and wealthiest men.

Getting along. Let the man who feels that he is "just getting along" look around him and scan closely the condition and circumstances of many whom he knows. Here is Mr. A. and Mr. B., with others, who had before seemed to him as model business men—whom he supposed were getting along rapidly. Now, he penetrates beneath the glittering surface and finds them, instead of being firmly planted upon the high rounds of the ladder of fortune, merely held suspended by specious *promises to pay*, and in momentary dread of dropping into ruin. And still others, whom he had once known as eminently successful merchants he sees already suffering in the lowest vale of poverty. Let him go out from the circle of his own acquaintance and look upon thousands in the city who are trying to get along in the world. He will see that the large majority of them are incessantly wrestling against seeming fate. They try, and strive, and contrive and study; struggle hard at one thing, then another; fail; begin again; work early, late; in fact, enter into a perfect warfare against body, mind, and life itself, in order, as they term it, to get along. And they can't get along. Fate is against them, friends are against them, fortune is against them, society is against them, everything is against them, and they can't get along! These toiling, struggling, unfortunate thousands would feel that a new life had come to them, and rejoice with unspeakable joy, if they were afforded the least cause for saying, we are *getting along slowly*. While contemplating the two extremes, the ruin that is likely to fall upon those who make haste to get rich, and the suffering condition of those who by misfortune, or incapacity, vainly strive for the necessities of life, do you not feel reproved for murmuring because of your slow progress in wealth.

Getting along slowly. If you really are getting along slowly in worldly prosperity and in honorable reputation, then you have abundant reason for rejoicing. All great, grand, and most durable things are of slow growth. The grand old trees of the forests require centuries to perfect their majestic proportions. The noblest animals are of long life and slow development; and from twenty-five to

thirty years are requisite to the mature growth of man in his physical and mental being. Gradual development is the great law of nature, and is applicable to almost everything pertaining to human society. Speed either debilitates or insures danger. Hot-house plants are comparatively puny, fragile things; and he who rides astride the locomotive may glory in the speed with which he passes the poor pedestrian by the way side, and at the same time meditate on the chances of having his name in print among the list of killed and wounded.

Let no one infer that we would favor idleness, or discourage proper effort in business men. We utter not a word against the most strenuous, constant exertions after wealth, when attended by a cheerful disposition, thankfulness of heart, and guided by a soul of noble charity and of moral integrity. But that spirit of fault-finding, that murmuring ungrateful spirit so frequently manifested by those of moderate business success, we most heartily condemn; and we say instead of complaining because they are *getting along slowly*, they should rejoice in the fact that they are getting along at all. No man is worthy of an abundance who is not thankful for even the smallest degree of prosperity.

And now, if we have any readers of the get-along-slowly order, we will say to them: Get along, *slowly*, if you must, but get along *honestly*. Neither sit down supinely in despair of success, nor enter into any hazardous speculation in hope of sudden gain. Better patiently learn the great life-lesson, "to labor and wait," with the prayer of Hagar ever on your lips and in your heart—"Give me neither poverty nor riches,"—so that, whether getting along slowly, or in the full tide of prosperity, you may have the same heart of thankfulness, the same generosity of purpose, and be distinguished by the same nobleness of character.

DON'T LEAVE A LEGITIMATE BUSINESS FOR FINANCIERING.

It is an evil of the intense competition in great mercantile communities that it drives many from the walks of legitimate business into schemes of speculation with reference to sudden and extravagant gains. The history of frauds teaches that they originate chiefly in the attempt to grow rich rapidly by financiering rather than by diligence in business. Financiering has its place in legitimate business. Some men have a talent for this, which is as true a mark of genius as is poetry or art. But it is not a talent that every man can acquire; and it is fortunate that this is so; for if all the world should turn financiers, the earth itself would soon go into bankruptcy. Now, the calamity of a great city is that every one who gains a little money takes to financiering as a readier mode of increasing it than by regular business. Wall-street, the focus of financiering, gives a tone to the whole business community.

But financiering is a deep game; and he who leaves an honest toil in a business that he does understand, for calculations of chance in matters where he has no skill, is very apt to become the loser, and, as in all lotteries, to grow desperate in the attempt to make up his losses. We do not speak of investments in stocks as property, but of the spirit of speculation; and we have no doubt that a just verdict upon many cases of fraud would be, "This man lost his capital and his character by speculation in stocks." Keep, therefore, to honest toil in a legitimate business, and do not aspire to become a financier. "Be content with such things as ye have."

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*History and Repository of Pulpit Eloquence*, (deceased divines;) containing the masterpieces of Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Massillon, Flechier, Abbadie, Taylor, Barrow, Hall, Watson, M'Laurin, Chalmers, Evans, Edwards, Davies, John M. Mason, &c., &c., with discourses from Chrysostom, Basil, Gregory, Nazianzen, Augustine, Athanasius, and others among the "Fathers," and from Wickliffe, Luther, Calvin, Melancthon, Knox, Latimer, &c., of the "Reformers." Also, sixty other celebrated sermons from as many eminent divines in the Greek and Latin, English, German, Irish, French, Scottish, American and Welsh Churches; a large number of which have now, for the first time, been translated. The whole arranged in their proper order, and accompanied with historical sketches of preaching in the different countries represented, and biographical and critical notices of the several preachers and their discourses. By Rev. HENRY C. FISH, author of premium essay "Primitive Piety Revived." In 2 volumes.

The copious title, which we quote entire, quite clearly indicates the character and contents of this work, unless, perhaps, we should expect to find something of the words and lives of the divines outside of the Trinitarian faith, such as the great, good and eloquent Channing, the Unitarian, and others that could be named. The book, however, embodies a large amount of pulpit eloquence, and seems to contain, with the exception of the omissions alluded to, most of the great pulpit orators, and a complete history of preaching. Over eighty different preachers are represented each by a sketch and his most celebrated discourse. Under the Greek and Latin pulpit there are eight discourses; under the English, twenty-two; German, ten; French, eleven; Scottish, nine; American, sixteen; Irish, four; Welsh, three. The volumes furnish, in a well arranged form, models for the young preacher, and will familiarize all who peruse them with the history and eloquence of the pulpit.

2.—*Memoirs of John Kitto*, D. D., F. R. S. Author of "Daily Bible Illustrations," and Editor of the "Cyclopedia of Biblical Literature," compiled chiefly from his letters and journals. By J. E. RYLAND, M. A., Editor of "Foster's Life and Correspondence," &c. With a Critical Estimate of Dr. Kitto's Life and Writings. By Professor Eadie, D. D., LL. D. In 2 vols., 12mo., pp. 404 and 352. New York: Carter & Brothers.

This work, as the editor remarks, is in all essential points an autobiography; the statements being taken mainly from the journals and letters of Dr. Kitto. The materials were so abundant, that Mr. Ryland found it necessary to select and compress, in order to bring the work within the limits of two volumes. It is an exceedingly interesting and instructive biography of a man whose whole course, from childhood to the grave, was a strenuous, unintermitting conflict with difficulties and trials of no ordinary kind, and who fitly chose for the motto of his zeal, "PER ARDUA." Such lives teach the sublimity of human nature, and cheer us in the march and battle of life.

3.—*Colomba*. By PROSPER MERIMEE. Translated from the French. 18mo., pp. 309. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

Though the translator's name is not given in the title-page, the translation bears unmistakable marks of scholarship. This is believed to be the first translation of any of the works of that brilliant French writer which has ever been offered to the American public. As a picture of Corsican life and manners, *Colomba* is quite unequalled. He seems to have preserved the lively and piquant style of the original. Those who have not made themselves acquainted with the French language will thankfully acknowledge their obligations to the English translator and to the American publishers, who have been singularly successful in producing valuable works in handsome style.

- 4.—*History of the American Privateers and Letters of Marque during our War with England in the years 1812, 1813 and 1814*; interspersed with several naval battles between the American and British ships of war. By GEORGE COGGESHALL, author of "Voyages to various parts of the world." In one volume, 8vo., pp. 438. New York: C. T. Evans, 321 Broadway.

We noticed some years since Capt. Coggeshall's commercial "Voyages to various parts of the world," a volume of more than ordinary interest. The author of the present volume, thinks, and correctly in our judgment, that the "private armed service" achieved exploits as brilliant, displayed courage as daring, seamanship as masterly, and coolness in danger as remarkable as are to be found in the annals of the public service, and for which high places in the temple of fame have been awarded. He complains that no testimonials of national gratitude have rewarded the "blood bought victories of the privateersmen of the last war," and while recounting their bold and varied achievements, seeks to vindicate their characters from the neglect and even obloquy which they have encountered. The volume, which is illustrated with a number of fine engravings, may be regarded as an interesting, if not valuable, contribution to the naval history of the United States.

- 5.—*The Humorous Poetry of the English Language*; from Chaucer to Saxe, with notes explanatory and biographical. By J. PARTON. 12mo., pp. 689. New York: Mason Brothers.

This volume is designed to contain the best of the shorter humorous poems in English and American literature, except such as are very familiar, from their publication in school books and newspapers, and poems by living American authors who have published their own volumes, and poems so local or contemporary in subject or allusion as not to be readily understood by the American reader, together with poems of such freedom of expression as not to be allowable in the society of these days. The poems comprise narratives, satires, enigmas, burlesques, parodies, travesties, epigrams, epitaphs, translations, including the most celebrated comic poems of the *Anti Jacobin*, *Rejected Addresses*, the *Ingoldsby Legends*, *Blackwood's Magazine*, *Bentley's Miscellany* and *Punch*. A list of sources numbering near seventy, including that prolific writer, Mr. Anon, is included in the volume. Mr. Parton has shown good taste and judgment in the selections, and in the arrangement and classification of the whole work.

- 6.—*Sibert's Wold*. A Tale. By the author of "Sunbeam Stories," "A Trap to catch a Sunbeam," "Dream Chintz," "The Star in the Desert." 12mo., pp. 258. Boston and Cambridge: James Monroe & Co.

Those who have read the pleasant and fascinating "Sunbeam Stories," will cordially welcome this other work from the same pen. In this "Sibert's Wold," a lovely picture of parsonage life, we have the same high moral tone and refined sentiment exhibited in her other productions. This, with its various characters, has all the attraction of a romance, though it is drawn from actual life. The author, in her dedicatory words to good Aunt Fielding, says she is no imaginary being, but a living model woman. We feel that we have many pictures of life, and that "Mr. Belfast" is but the true representation of a faithful, self-sacrificing pastor, who has been known and revered. The application of these stories to daily life constitute their chief charm.

- 7.—*Six Months in Kansas*. By a LADY. 12mo., pp. 231. Boston: John R. Jewett & Co.

The writer of this book, a lady of Massachusetts, went to Kansas in September, 1855, and returned to her native State in April, 1856. During her absence she wrote the letters, contained in this volume, to her mother, and, at the suggestion of her friends, they are now presented to the public, with but few alterations. They are rather in a natural, unpretending style, and appear to contain an authentic narrative of events transpiring around her during the period of her sojourn in Kansas. The book is worth reading and preserving for the use of the future historian of that now troubled, but prospectively great State.

8.—*Reality*; or, the Millionaire's Daughter. A Book for Young Men and Young Women. By Mrs. L. C. TUTHILL, author of "Queer Bonnets," "Tip Top," "Beautiful Bertha," &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 310. New York: C. Scribner.

Mrs. Tuthill has contributed largely to our stock of juvenile literature, or rather to the production of books adapted to the wants of young men and young women. "Reality" will favorably compare with the best of the author's previous publications. Her aim in this, as in all her writings, is to blend instruction and entertainment, and her books may be read with pleasure and profit.

9.—*Boston Common*; A Tale of Our Own Times. By a Lady. 12mo., pp. 550. Boston: James French & Co.

The Bostonians feel proud of their "Common," and well they may, for it is a noble park, surrounded with elms of more than a century's growth. It was a donation to Boston in the early days of her township, when governed by a dozen of "Selectmen." The donor wisely gave it on the condition that it should forever remain a Common, or revert back to his heirs. The scene of the story of our "lady" author is laid on this Common, as the title would imply, or rather it is a New England tale, pleasantly told, and very well written. The author is somewhat inexperienced as a novelist, but she has capacities for improvement in the field she has chosen. We wish her every success.

10.—*The Elements of Natural Philosophy*; Copiously Illustrated by Familiar Experiments, and containing Descriptions of Instruments, with Directions for the Use of Schools and Academies. By A. W. SPRAGUE, A. M. 12mo., pp. 368. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

Great progress has been made during the last twenty-five years in the preparation of educational works; and the best English school-books have been produced in the United States. The author of the present treatise was eminently fitted for the compilation of such a work. He was many years a successful teacher, and for four years employed in one of the most extensive philosophical-instrument manufactories. He has, in our judgment, produced a work that will stand the test of a careful and critical examination. The volume is illustrated with nearly 300 engravings.

11.—*The Last of the Foresters*; or, Humors on the Border. A Story of the Old Virginia Frontier. By JOHN ESTEN COOKE. 12mo., pp. 419. New York: Derby & Jackson.

Mr. Cooke has written much and well, in illustration of Virginia, or Southern legends, life, manners, &c., and those who have admired his "Virginia Comedian," "Leather Stocking and Silk," "Youth of Jefferson," &c., will not readily forego the opportunity of reading this last production of his prolific pen. In his narrative of Vesty and Redbud, (characters in this book,) he says he has not endeavored to mount into the regions of tragedy, but rather to find in a picturesque land and period such traits of life and manners as are calculated to afford universal entertainment.

12.—*The Early History of Michigan*; from the First Settlement to 1815. By E. M. SHELDON. 8vo., pp. 409. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

This work, or a large portion of it, is composed of the manuscripts of old French writers; but much research, it appears, was necessary to obtain corroborating testimony and connecting facts. The author wisely chose to embody in the work the manuscripts themselves, rather than give the facts in a more modern style, "partly because the unique mode of expression often used has attractions to most historical readers, who love that which has the savor of antiquity, and prefer the original of an old book to the most polished modern version." It is illustrated with a frontispiece portrait of Gen. Lewis Cass, the second Governor of Michigan, and with portraits of some of the early and distinguished settlers. We regard it as a most valuable contribution to the early history of a part of the great Northwest.

- 13.—*Married not Mated*; or, How They Lived at Woodside and Throckmorton Hall. By ALICE CARY, Author of "Clovernook; or, Recollections of Our Neighborhood in the West." 12mo., pp. 425. New York: Derby & Jackson.

The false estimate of wealth seems to be the moral of this story; and in this age, one is too apt to value another for the dollars he possesses, rather than for moral and mental worth. This evil is illustrated in the misery which ensues from the marriage relation, when it is entered into solely for wealth, without the true basis necessary for the happiness of such union. The tendency of the book is good, and may well be impressed upon the minds of the young, not to seek for wealth or social position merely for its own sake, but as a means of extended usefulness.

- 14.—*Confidential Correspondence of the Emperor Napoleon and the Empress Josephine*; Including Letters from the Time of their Marriage to the Death of Josephine; and also, Several Private Letters from the Emperor to his Brother Joseph, and other Important Personages. With numerous Illustrations, Notes, and Anecdotes. By JOHN S. C. ABBOTT. 12mo., pp. 404. New York: Mason & Brothers.

Mr. Abbott regards the authenticity of these letters as beyond all controversy. The French editor, to whom they were intrusted by Queen Hortense, who received them from her mother, says he "publishes them without change." They afford an exceedingly interesting chapter in the life of Napoleon. In the language of Mr. Abbott, "his heart is here revealed, with all its intense and glowing affections." The compiler has introduced such historical facts, and well-authenticated remarks of the emperor, as throw light upon the correspondence.

- 15.—*The British Essayists*; with prefaces, historical and biographical. By A. CHALMERS, F. S. A. In 3 vols., 18mo., pp. 412, 421 and 412. Boston: Little Brown & Co.

The "Rambler" of Dr. Johnson, in three volumes, forms the 16th, 17th and 18th numbers of this series of the British essayists, in progress of publication by the enterprising house named in the title. We have noticed the "Tatler," the "Spectator" and the "Guardian" in the order of their publication, in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, and expressed in terms of high commendation our appreciation of the style adopted by Little, Brown & Co. in the reproduction of this edition. Criticism touching the literary merits of these old essayists would be out of place here, neither is it necessary, for their character is established. We will only say that the classical essays contained in this series are fit companions of the "British Poets," issued by the same publishers, and that both are fit collections for the library of every "gentleman and scholar."

- 16.—*Practical American Cookery and Domestic Economy*. Compiled by ELIZABETH M. HALL. 12mo., pp. 410. New York and Auburn: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

We have many books on cookery, which are better in theory than practice. From their extravagant and elaborate recipes, they are almost wholly useless for reference for our daily meals. The present collection of recipes on cooking and domestic economy appears to be practical, and are the results of experience, and as far as we can judge, will be very useful to the young housekeeper.

- 17.—*Humorous Poems of Thomas Hood*. Edited by EPES SARGEANT. 12mo., pp. 468. Boston: Phillips, Sampson & Co.

It is a little remarkable that the English reader should be indebted to an American publishing house, Ticknor & Fields, for the most complete edition of De Quincey's writings, and again, as in the present instance, to another house of equal enterprise, for the most perfect collection of Hood's humorous poems. The present volume includes love and lunacy, ballads, tales and legends, odes and addresses to great people, and miscellaneous poems not contained in any previous English edition. It is a beautiful library edition, and one that will be duly appreciated by the admirers of the author.

- 18.—*Kertha*. By FREDERICKA BREMER. Translated by MARY HOWITT. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

This, we are told in the title page, is the "authorized American edition." The volume is dedicated "to the blessed memory of Mr. J. Downing, in love and grateful remembrance by the author." The dedication to her departed friend closes after this manner:—"At my parting with you, I promised to give the right of publication in America, of a work of mine, to a friend of yours, whose generous spirit even I had learned to know and appreciate. In now giving my *Bertha* into the hands of Mr. George P. Putnam, I am conscious that I intrust to him the work, which, of all my writings, has the deepest root in my own life and consciousness,—a work which sacred duty commanded me to write, and I am happy to fulfil my engagement to him with a wish of success."

- 19.—*Rollo's Tour in Europe*. By JACOB ABBOTT. Boston: William J. Reynolds & Co.

Four volumes of this series of books are before us, and embrace the tour of Rollo in Switzerland, on the Rhine, in Scotland and in London. Rollo on the Atlantic and in Paris were published some time since. The series now complete, comprised in six volumes, is beyond all question one of the most entertaining and instructive of its class ever published. Although adapted to the wants of the young, these books will be read with equal pleasure, if not profit, by more mature minds.

- 20.—*Lectures delivered before the Young Men's Christian Association in Exeter Hall*; from November, 1855, to February, 1856. 12mo., pp. 402. New York: Carter & Brothers.

For eleven successive winters lectures have been delivered in Exeter Hall, England, before the Young Men's Christian Association, by men of learning, and in several instances by individuals in high position, moral and social. We have noticed several of the collected series of previous years, reproduced in this country by the publishers of the present volume, which comprises the entire course for 1856-56, and contains lectures from Lord John Russell, divines, doctors and professors, on a great variety of topics, demanding more or less of earnest thought and sound scholarship, and all designed to promote the cause of "adult education."

- 21.—*Elmwood*; or, Helen and Emma. By CORA MAYFIELD. 12mo., pp. 350. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

The reader will be disappointed if he expects to find in this volume a highly wrought or thrilling romance; one that will keep the mind in a fever of excitement. It is a simple, agreeable domestic story, written with an "endeavor to compare the fading flowers of fancy with the evergreens of reason, illustrating the same in the characters of two young girls." It is published by a house that never put their imprint to books of doubtful tendency.

- 22.—*Green Peas*; Picked from the Patch of Junsoble Green, Esq. Illustrated by JOHN McLENAN. 12mo.; pp. 314. New York: Livermore & Rudd.

"Green peas! an odd title for a book, is it not?" asks the author. We have the "Rose of Sharon," "Sparrowgrass Papers," "The Daisy," "The Violet," "The Opening Rose," "The Withered Flower," and why not have a palatable dish of "Green Peas?" To be brief, the author is a reporter in one of our Western cities, and the sketches in this book were written, we take it, while performing his professional labors. Many of the sketches are clever, and all of them readable.

- 23.—*The Sparrowgrass Papers*; or, Living in the Country. By FREDERICK S. COZZENS. 12mo., pp. 328. New York: Derby & Jackson.

Mr. Cozzens is, we believe, a "wine merchant," and, while cultivating a *taste* for his occupation, has not neglected the more refined taste for literature. The papers embraced in this volume were originally published in *Putnam's Magazine*, where they met with much favor. The author has given them a *brush*, and in their collected form, we have no doubt, the circle of readers will be largely extended.

- 24.—*Wild Western Scenes*. A Narrative of Adventures in the Western Wilderness. New Stereotype Edition, altered, revised, and corrected. Illustrated with Sixteen Engravings, from Original Designs. By J. B. JONES. 12mo., pp. 263. Philadelphia: Lippincott & Co.

This book narrates the wonderful exploits of Daniel Boone; to which is added accounts of bear, deer, and buffalo hunts; desperate conflicts with savages; and fishing adventures. Forty thousand copies have been published. Those who are fond of adventure will find a fund of amusement in this exciting and interesting volume.

- 25.—*The American's Political Manual*; containing the Declaration of Independence, Constitution of the United States, and Washington's Farewell Address. 12mo., pp.

The title sufficiently explains the contents and character of this little manual. The documents are published in neat style; and it would be well for many who "croak" about the "Declaration" and "Constitution," to read them, and they won't find them in a cheaper or more accessible form, for that purpose or for ready reference.

- 26.—*Outlines of Physical Geography*. By GEORGE W. FITCH. Illustrated with Six Maps and numerous Engravings. 12mo., pp. 225. New York: J. H. Colton & Co.

A text-book for the use of schools and academies, devoted exclusively to physical geography. The author has endeavored to supply the want of such a treatise, as it has never been made a separate study in the schools of the United States. This is admirably arranged and prepared for that purpose, and is well calculated to incite in the minds of the young an interest in this important department of science.

- 27.—*The Poetical Works of Alfred Tennyson, Poet Laureate, &c.* 32mo., pp. 518. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

A pocket but complete edition of the poems of the greatest living poet of England. In a note to the American publishers, Mr. Tennyson says, "as I have received remuneration for my books, it is my wish that with you alone the right of publishing them in America should rest." We hope that "right" and that "wish" will be regarded.

- 28.—*More Truth than Fiction*; or, Stories for Little Folks at Home. By AUNT MARTHA. Boston: James French & Co. 1856. 18mo., pp. 110.

Here is another little volume, appropriate as a holiday gift for children, decorated with engravings illustrating stories, with gilt edges and gilded binding.

- 29.—*Monaldi*: A tale. By WASHINGTON ALLSTON. 12mo., pp. 278. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

This production, from the pen of our American artist, has before appeared. It is attractive in style, imaginative in character, and written with the power of a genuine artist. The scene is laid in Italy; the lives of Maldura and Monaldi wisely illustrate the workings of the human mind, the one shewing the misery of an undue love of praise, attended with jealousy and revenge; the other, the honor and truthfulness of a life who loved excellence for its own sake. The tale is one of thrilling and tragic interest; a story of love, revenge and despair.

- 30.—*Life Sketches from Common Paths*. By MRS. JULIA L. DUMONT. 12mo., pp. 286. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

A series of American tales, written for the young, and prompted by the affection of a mother to save her sons from the temptations of life. The author presents them to the public with the best of motives, designing to awaken in the mind of the young a love of all that is noble and good, and to strengthen by illustration the belief so salutary to the inexperienced heart, of the existence and reality of godness when surrounded by so much that is evil.