

HUNT'S

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

## COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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### Art. I.—COMMERCE.

THE interchange of commodities, either directly by barter, or indirectly through some medium of exchange, must have arisen among mankind at the very first remove from a state of nature. Even before the flood, according to the Mosaic account, the pursuits of men had that diversity, out of which commerce necessarily arises. Enoch builded a city; Abel was a keeper of sheep; Cain was a tiller of the ground; Jabal was the father of such as dwell in tents, and of such as have cattle; Jubal was the father of all such as handle the harp and organ; Tubal Cain was an instructor of every artificer in brass and iron. Money, as an instrument of commerce, was known in the days of Abraham. When he bought of Ephron the Field of Macphelah, wherein to bury his wife Sarah, he paid for it four hundred shekels of silver—"money current with the merchants." The Phœnicians were the first people, who, to manufactures and the arts, united the navigation of the seas. Their chief cities were of great antiquity. Some accounts place the foundation of Sidon twenty-two centuries before the birth of our Saviour. Tyre was in its glory in the time of David; of whom, and of Solomon, Hiram, king of Tyre, was the firm ally. When Solomon built a navy in the Red Sea, the Jews, being little acquainted with navigation, Hiram "sent in the navy his servants, shipmen that had knowledge of the sea." The fleets of Tyre traversed the whole Mediterranean, and passing the Pillars of Hercules, even reached Britain, where they obtained tin from the mines of Cornwall. Eastward they trafficked on the Red Sea, the Arabian Gulf, and as far as India. The opulence of Tyre was the marvel of antiquity, and the Sacred Writers give us the most gorgeous descriptions of its wealth and splendors.

"O thou," says the Prophet Ezekiel, "that art situate at the entry of the sea, which art a merchant for the people of many isles; thy borders are in the midst of the sea, thy builders have perfected thy beauty. \* \* \* What city is like Tyrus? By thy great wisdom, and by thy traffic, hast thou increased thy riches." "Tyre," says the Prophet Isaiah, "the crowning city, whose merchants are princes, whose traffickers are the honorable of the earth."

This first seat of commerce, united with navigation, was destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, after a siege of thirteen years, but not until the Tyrians had retreated with their ships, merchandise, and people, to a neighboring island, whence they returned and rebuilt their city, to be again destroyed, and this time finally, by Alexander the Great, after a siege of seven months. That great man, perhaps irritated by this resistance, which seems long in his rapid career of victory, or more probably impressed by it with the power and wealth derivable from commerce, founded the city of Alexandria, to command that trade of the East which had principally sustained the opulence of Tyre. This new city, at the mouth of the Nile, first under the Ptolemies, and then under the Romans, surpassed for many centuries the ancient commercial renown of the Tyrians. It was also the seat of the arts and of learning. It was here that the seventy made that translation of the Hebrew Scriptures, known to us as the Septuagint. The Alexandrian library, consumed by the torch of Omar, has always been the regret of scholars. The duties on the imports and exports of Alexandria, under the Ptolemies, have been calculated by some writers to have reached the annual amount of two hundred and seventy-four millions of pounds sterling; but such figures are incredible. After the first devastation of its conquest by the Saracens, it regained something of its former trade, and never lost a certain degree of commercial importance. Should modern science, renewing the achievements of the Pharaohs, the Ptolemies, and the Caliphs, again reunite the waters of the Mediterranean and Red Seas, Alexandria, now the only remaining monument of the conquests of the "mad boy of Macedonia," may again revive its ancient splendor.

Carthage was a colony of the Phœnicians, and vindicated the noble stock from which it sprung, both by its endurance in war, and the splendor and extent of its commerce. Its population has been computed as high as seven hundred thousand souls; exceeding the present numbers of the greatest city on this continent. One of its enterprises in navigation, was the sending an expedition of sixty ships, under Hanno, to explore new regions on the Atlantic Ocean. The Canary Islands, the westernmost limit of ancient navigation, were reached by its seamen. Carthage yielded at last to the military genius and fortune of Rome, but not until it had given proofs, in two wars the most obstinate recorded in history, that the spirit of an enlarged and generous commerce fortifies, rather than impairs, the high qualities of courage, fortitude, and patriotism.

The ancient Egyptians were not navigators.

The Greeks were not specially a commercial people, and they did not addict themselves to distant voyages. This may be attributed as much, perhaps, to the maxims of their philosophers, as to any cast of national aptitude for commerce. Xenophon has recorded his serious doubts, whether communities are benefited by commerce. Plato excluded merchants from his imaginary commonwealth. It is certain, at any rate, that the colonies founded by Greece in the Mediterranean, exhibited more com-

mercial activity than the parent State; and the modern Greeks, scattered in many countries, control, at this day, no small share of the trade of the world. The ancient Greeks were, however, by no means ignorant of navigation. Homer has described the great fleet in which they sailed to the capture of Troy; although it will reduce our admiration of this naval force, to recollect that these ships were open boats, without decks, as were the ships in which the Greeks won, long afterwards, the famous battle of Salamis.

The Romans disdained commerce. No man of rank, or birth, was allowed to engage in it. No Senator was permitted to own any vessel, beyond the requirements of transport for his own corn and fruits. Arms, agriculture, and politics, were exclusively the avocations of that proud people. Commerce, the handicrafts, and even the higher arts, they left to slaves, freedmen, and the people of their conquered provinces. The Roman Empire was, through those agencies, the theater of a vast commerce, from which the Romans, although they did not themselves engage in it, extracted immense revenues. When, after the battle of Actium, Egypt was reduced to the condition of a Roman province, Augustus Cæsar cherished and protected the commerce of Alexandria, and that city was second only to Rome, in grandeur and population. The fleet from Egypt furnished bread for the Imperial City. Pliny states the commercial revenue derived by Rome from Alexandria at a sum equal, in modern times, to twenty-eight millions of pounds sterling.

During the interruption of the commerce of Alexandria, resulting from its conquest by the Saracens, Constantinople maintained a connection with the East, through the circuitous channel of the Indus, the Oxus, the Caspian Sea, the Volga, and the Don. The trade of the East still continued to be the great prize of commerce, as it had been from time immemorial. It has continued to be so down to a very recent period, and, in the estimation of many, is so at this day. To control its most direct channel, was the leading motive of the invasion of Egypt by Napoleon. To secure it to us, by a railroad across the American continent, has been one of the ideas associated with that great enterprise, which Col. Benton has made familiar to the public mind. It is a noble idea, suited to his large grasp, and which he has made palpable by that magnificent rhetoric, in which he has had no superior in our language since Burke. The rich spices, the gorgeous stuffs, and the sparkling gems of the Indies, have always inflamed the imaginations, as well as excited the cupidity of the Western nations. The "wealth of the Indies," is one of our proverbial expressions. Milton could find no illustration more impressive with his readers, of the splendors of the throne erected for Satan:—

"High on a throne of royal state,  
Which far outshone the wealth of Ormus or of Ind."

The commerce of the East, which had been transferred from Tyre to Alexandria, and from Alexandria to Constantinople, passed next to those famous Italian republics, Pisa, Genoa, Florence, and Venice, which emerged, during the Middle Ages, from the downfall of the Roman Empire. It was the foundation of their wealth and power, which declined, when a new passage to the Indies, round the Cape of Good Hope, was opened by the Portuguese, at the close of the fifteenth century.

Poetry has said of Venice:—

“Her daughters had their dowers  
From spoil of nations, and the exhaustless East  
Poured in her lap all gems in sparkling showers.”

The wealth and power of these republics have passed away, but their glory is imperishable. In contrast with the scantiness of their territories, the extent of their conquests seems fabulous. Genoa, without soil enough to feed her people, founded flourishing colonies in the Black Sea. The Crimea, since contested by great empires, was a Genoese province, and monuments of their occupation yet remain. It was from a Genoese tower, that the defense of Balaklava, against the British army, was maintained. Venice, reclaimed from the marshes at the head of the Adriatic, maintained victorious war with the Grand Turk, then the terror of Christendom. The genius of these republics, ascendent in war, in the arts, and in learning, has, however, left its most prominent mark upon the history and condition of mankind, by its direction to navigation. It was a Genoese, who, seeking a new passage to the Indies, discovered the New World. The Florentine, Americus Vesputius, and the Venetians, John and Sebastian Cabot, by their immortal voyages, completed the work which Columbus had begun.

Let us turn now to more northern climes, whose elements and characteristics were at work, which have given to commerce its last, and, probably, final development.

The Hanseatic League, embracing Lubeck, Brunswick, Bremen, Hamburg, Dantzic, and Cologne, existed in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. In the fourteenth century, Flanders was celebrated for its commerce and manufactures; and at Bruges, at that time, it is said that merchants from seventeen kingdoms had their settled domicils. In the contemporaneous literature of England, “Flemish account,” is a frequent phrase to express overreaching and extortion, which proves that the successful merchants of Flanders did not escape the envy of their times.

Edward III. induced large numbers of artisans and merchants from Flanders to come over and settle in England, and, for a long time, the English were merely the followers and pupils of the Dutch in commerce. Even as late as the reign of James I., according to Hume, there were employed in the trade between England and Holland, six hundred Dutch ships, and only sixty English ships. It was not until the commencement of the eighteenth century, that England obtained that pre-eminence in commerce which made her at length the mistress of the seas. Her destiny, always glorious, is most happy in this—that when she yields the scepter, it will not be to aliens, or to enemies, but to a people springing from her own loins, speaking her own language, and displaying her own high qualities on a wider theater, and under more fortunate auspices.

How, and why has it happened, that the control of commerce has passed from the Mediterranean to the Baltic and the North Seas? In the first place, because manufactures, the arts, and civilization, have a constant tendency to progress northward, and can only find in the North their fullest development; and, in the second place, because commerce has become more closely dependent upon navigation, than in former times, and is, therefore, the natural possession of those Northern races, who are best able to overcome the perils and hardships of the ocean.

The causes which transfer commerce and manufactures from one region to another, are numerous, and sometimes obscure. Religion, race, government, conquest, and emigration, are the most conspicuous and obvious. Under the operation of these causes, sometimes acting in conjunction, and sometimes in opposition to each other, the local changes of human civilization and power have been various and irregular. There are, however, two general movements of the arts and population, which have been observed during the whole history of our race. The one is from East to West.

“Westward the star of empire takes its way.”

This movement has been permanent, although fortuitous in its cause. The East being, as is often said, “the cradle of the human race,” its spread was necessarily towards the West. A different local origin would have given a different direction to its migrations. The second general movement from south to north, is not fortuitous, but depends upon causes the operation of which is inevitable. In the rude and early periods of our history it was only in warm climates, where the natural fruits of the earth are abundant, that population could attain a sufficient degree of density to give birth to cities and any considerable degree of civilization. Northern races, in a state of nature, or not far removed from it, are hunters, or at best pastoral in their pursuits, and their population is necessarily sparse. The discoverers of America found cities in the warm regions, but in the north only scattered and wandering tribes. It is so in Asia now, where Oriental civilization, such as it is, has its chief seats in regions favored by the sun. On the Mediterranean, the first seats of population were in Phœnicia and Egypt, whence the arts spread northwards, first to Greece and then to Italy, whence the great power of the Roman Empire carried them still further north. It is only in an advanced condition of the arts that man is able to provide himself abundantly with the shelter, the clothing, and the various comforts and conveniences of life, which alone render cold regions habitable by other than rude and barbarous nations. But when once the conquest of the north has been achieved, then the same cold which was the greatest enemy and evil of the race becomes its best friend. With the means and appliances to protect himself against its rigors, man finds in cold, when not excessive, the best preserver of health and the best stimulant to exertion. In the present age of the world, it is not cold but heat which the wit of man has not devised the means of escaping, with its debilitating lassitude and deadly influence upon life and strength, which seems to oppose to progress an insurmountable physical barrier. The civilized races of ancient times, without sawmills to cheapen the materials for habitations, without chimneys, without glass windows, without stoves, without coals, and with textile fabrics only obtainable by the expensive processes of manual labor, were confined to the lower latitudes. A more advanced civilization has carried our race into regions and climates too rough for its infant feebleness, but which are best adapted to develop the fullness of its matured strength. Thus most truly, and by no fortuitous accident, does *northward* “the star of empire take its way,” and this destiny can have no change and no reflux. Southern civilization was always in danger from northern irruption, and frequently fell a prey to its overwhelming force. Northern civilization, uniting strength with the arts, need fear no foreign violence, and the causes which will ac-

compish its downfall, if at length it must meet the fate of all things human, are deep hidden in the womb of time.

Navigation has been so much improved in modern times that it may be said to be a modern art. The use of rowers, indispensable with the ancients in the management, and much relied on in the propelling of vessels, would excite the ridicule of modern sailors. The ship of the ancients was furnished with but one mast, and the forward sail, or jib, to govern its movements, was square, as represented in paintings and on coins. They could sail within seven or eight points of the wind, but had no idea of working to the windward by successive traverses. Rudders, hinged to the stern-post, were not used until the thirteenth century. The mariner's compass, enabling the navigator to keep the open sea, instead of creeping along the coast, came into use about the year 1400, and was followed a century later by the discovery of the variation of the needle. In 1569, Gerard Mercator published his chart. The first account we have of the log, to ascertain the rate of a ship's sailing, is in a tract published at Leyden in 1599. Logarithms were invented in 1615, by Napier, a Scotch nobleman, and applied to navigation in 1620, by Edward Gunter. Mercator's map and Gunter's scale are still in use. The magnitude of the earth, and the length of a degree of a great circle upon it, were determined by Richard Norwood, an Englishman, with great accuracy, in 1635. There is no evidence that any mode of determining position at sea by astronomical observations was in use until the Middle Ages. The method of determining longitude by lunar observations is commonly ascribed to Dr. Maskelyne, appointed Royal Astronomer of England in 1765, and who died as late as 1811. This method, however, is founded upon the "Lunar Tables," published in 1755, by Tobias Mayer, a native of Wurtemberg. As late as 1817, it is stated to have been a matter of congratulation that a national armed vessel of the United States, on a voyage to Europe, had on board one man who understood lunar observations. Our navy officers are now better instructed. The construction of a chronometer of sufficient accuracy to determine longitude was achieved in 1765, by John Harrison, a Yorkshireman, a carpenter by trade. His instrument, tested on a voyage from England to Jamaica and back, fixed the longitude within eighteen miles, and he received the reward of twenty thousand pounds sterling, offered by Parliament on condition that he explained the bases of his invention, which were chiefly two; *first*, the principle of the different expansibility of different metals under the influence of heat, applied to the construction of pendulums and balance-wheels; and *second*, the going fusee, by which the movement of a clock, or watch, is not interrupted by the operation of winding up.

The mathematical problems connected with the motion of a ship upon the curves of the globe task the subtlest analytical powers of the human mind. The works published on that subject in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were numerous, learned, and ingenious, and exhausted that department of navigation as a matter of strict science. Our own Bowditch, however, in his "*New American Practical Navigator*," published in 1807, by the accuracy of his tables and the simplicity of his rules, deserved the credit which he has enjoyed. His work now, after the lapse of half a century, is still standard authority in our own marine, and is largely used by European navigators.

In other departments of navigation, the construction and working of

ships, the study of winds and currents, and the construction of charts, there is no limit to the improvements which are being made, and which are still possible. Prodigious advancements have been made during the present generation, and greater ones are, doubtless, in store for the future. It is not impossible, perhaps not improbable, that the construction of ships of such size as to be as little affected by the waves of the ocean as ships now are by the waves of rivers, about to be tested by the gigantic iron steamer now nearly completed in Great Britain, may prove as successful in practice as it seems to be flattering in theory. Should this happen, harbors now adequate to the draught of merchant vessels, would cease to be so. New York might sink to the rank of a second-class city, and Newport, upon Narragansett Bay, might again assert that maritime importance which it enjoyed before the Revolutionary War. One of the certain results of the success of this experiment would be to hasten that commercial development, which is the assured destiny of Portland, as the winter port of the great and rich valley of the St. Lawrence.

Commerce has no necessary connection with navigation. It may exist in countries entirely inland. Water carriage is only one mode of transport, although doubtless the best, and for the greater distances reached by modern commerce the only practical one. In the East Indies and in China exist great and opulent cities, in which the sound of the caulker is never heard. Palmyra, that "City of the Desert," half fabulous and half historical, through which the commerce of the East once found its channel to the countries of the Mediterranean, was an inland city. The trade of Asia and Africa has always been carried on by land transport; by the horse, the bullock, and especially the camel. The caravans of Oriental traffic are familiar objects of description. The eastern races have, many of them, great aptitude for mercantile pursuits; but for the most part, neither taste nor capacity for the navigation of the seas. This is true of that race best known to all the world—the Jews.

The ocean was the last and crowning conquest of our race. To the savage man an object of helpless terror—to all men an object of awe—it was to the ancients an unfathomable mystery, since they knew not whither led its world of waters. The hearts of the bold men who followed the fortunes of Columbus failed within them as they sailed westward day by day upon the trackless waste, leaving the world behind them. With infinite difficulty did he persuade them to proceed, now by entreaty, now by authority, and at last by a promise to return unless he reached land within a certain time. The alarm and terror which agitated his little fleet, three vessels, the largest of only ninety tons, surpassed description. The heart of the great admiral failed not. His notions of the magnitude of the earth, with the limited information of that period, must have been indefinite, but its form was clearly pictured in his mind. In the statue which adorns the eastern front of our national capital, he is represented as holding the globe in his hand—no unfit emblem of the firm grasp in which his intellect comprehended it. Bating no jot of heart or hope he still sailed towards the setting sun, until he was able to cheer, not himself, but his followers, with unmistakable signs of that new world, the discovery of which has opened the crowning era of the destinies of his race.

Only in modern times can commerce be truly said to be "the golden girdle of the globe."

Only in the fulness of time, only after nearly six thousand years of de-

lay, did man know the limits of the planet he inhabits, and thereby really acquire that dominion of the land and of the sea promised to him by his Creator. Requiring not merely great perfection in the mechanic arts but a knowledge of the abstruse sciences, the navigation of the ocean could only be possible at an advanced stage of human civilization. Requiring the highest combination of intelligence, moral courage, and physical hardihood, it could only be possible to superior races of men. Not only must it be confined to the superior races of men, but in its full development to such races inhabiting the colder climates. There only is found the sturdy muscle which can build the wooden leviathans which plow the deep. There only is found that bodily endurance which can brave the buffings of the ocean. The mastery of the winds and waves requires rougher training than is found under genial suns and on benignant soils. To the frozen north belongs the dominion of the seas, and in modern times the dominion of commerce follows the dominion of the seas. Nations without sailors and without ships may control their own trade, but the wealth and productions of any single country are small, compared with those of the great world which lies open to those to whom the ocean is a familiar highway.

Southern countries, under any tolerable organization of labor and government, far surpass Northern countries in raw productions. The imports and exports of Cuba exceed threefold the imports and exports of the United States, in proportion to population. Yet Cuba has no tonnage, and can have none. The staples of our own Southern States are transported in ships built in New England. This happens because they have comparatively no tonnage of their own, and because they can employ New England ships at more advantageous rates than other ships, taking into account the superior manner in which the service required is performed by them. It does not arise, in any appreciable degree, from the political connection of the States of this Union. With the exception of the coasting trade, a ship from Maine has no legal advantage at New Orleans over a ship from England or Norway, but obtains business there, as it does at Havana, upon the same principles which control other mercantile transactions.

The writers and orators of the Southern States have failed to perceive the true causes which have given a Northern direction to modern commerce. The fact of this direction they see clearly—and, indeed, it is impossible for anybody to be blind to it.

De Bow says:—

Almost all the great maritime and commercial people of ancient and modern times have been Southerners, and many under suns more burning than ours.

Col. James Gadsden, of South Carolina, says:—

It was the spirit of enterprise of these Southeastern and luxurious people which reared to greatness and power and wealth the Assyrian, the Egyptian, the Median, Persian, and Arabic empires; extended over Greece and Italy, passed the Pillars of Hercules, and explored more distant regions. It was Phœnicia which planted her Carthage on the burning sands of Africa. \* \* \* \* It was commercial enterprise in the South that reared Venice amid the very waters of the Adriatic, and made the silks of Persia and the spices of Arabia tributary to her luxurious grandeur. Alexandria, too, midway between the Indian and Mediterranean seas, once held its high place among the great commercial marts of the world. Its decline is to be attributed to the discovery of the

passage round the Cape of Good Hope. To adventurous Southern spirits, to Portuguese navigators, is the world indebted for that new avenue to the Eastern Ocean and the Chinese Seas. Genoa should not be overlooked in the enumeration of ancient Southern cities reared by Southern enterprise.

This is eloquence; as intended to prove the present capacity of Southern regions to contest the palm of commercial supremacy, it is, to a certain extent, logic; nevertheless, it is defective logic, because it omits the consideration of the circumstances which decisively distinguish ancient from modern times. History does prove that civilization, letters, and the arts had their origin in the rich regions of the lower latitudes—where nature is kindly, where the fruits of the earth are abundant, and where population, even in a rude condition of life, may become dense. Philosophy teaches how all this must necessarily be so; but both history and philosophy point to the Northward progress of the human race, as its fuller development multiplies the means by which cold is resisted, and even converted into an ally, and by which cultivation is made to supply the place of spontaneous fertility. History does prove that Southern nations may exhibit the finest genius in war and in letters; may found opulent cities; and may excel in both the luxurious and useful arts. History does not prove them to possess those more rugged characteristics, that rougher strength which command the ocean, and, through the ocean, command universal commerce.

The acute intellect of Italy discovered the New World; the fervid enterprise of Portugal circumnavigated the Old World; but where they sowed, others have reaped. The careers they opened have been entered upon, and at length monopolized, by more sturdy competitors. The Hollander, the Dane, the Norwegian, the Swede, the North German, the Englishman, and, finally, the Northern States of this Union, have become the masters of navigation, of the carrying trade, and of the world's commerce. This is not accident, but the result of those prominent principles which secure to Northern races the trident of the seas. It is not accident that the Russian empire draws its sailors from Finland; that the seat of the French whale fishery is at Havre, and not at Marseilles; that Cape Cod is the nursery of seamen, while Virginia is the mother of orators. The dangers, hardships, and privations of seafaring life, do not attract those who bask under genial suns, and receive, almost without labor, the abounding fruits of kindly soils. It is only a certain ruggedness of nature which drives men from the land to the ocean. In ancient times, it was not the Egyptians, enriched by the endless fertility of the Nile, but the Phœnicians, surrounded by sterile hills, who became the first navigators. In the middle ages, it was the Venitians, struggling for a foothold upon marshes rescued from the Adriatic—it was the Genoese, hemmed in upon a narrow strip of territory between the sea and the Appennines, who contended for maritime ascendancy. In our own times, from the gloomy and rock-bound coast of New England issue forth those swift and stately ships which carry the American flag into every clime. It is Nantucket, a desolate sand bar, with but a single harbor, and that a poor one, and without agricultural capacity exceeding the support of twenty families, which breeds that indomitable race, of whom Burke said:—

While we follow them among the trembling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits;

while we are looking for them beneath the Arctic Circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries—no climate that is not witness to their toils.

As between the two sections of our own country, there is another fact, besides the difference of climate, which disables the South from entering into commercial competition with the North. Its laboring population consists of slaves, and those slaves of an inferior race. The slaves of the Phœnicians, of the Greeks, and of the Romans, were equal, or nearly equal to their masters, in natural capacity. This difference is, in some respects, advantageous to our Southern States. The negro is easily subjugated, and not dangerous as a slave; but the same characteristics which make him less dangerous, make him less useful. White slavery is compatible with a high degree of perfection in the mechanic arts, in manufactures, and in commerce. Black slavery is fatal to it, as proved by the unvarying experience of every people which has tried it. It is quite certain that we shall never see ships built or sailed by negro slaves. The pursuits of our Southern States are, and always were, mainly agricultural. The era of their commercial prosperity and opulence, which they fix prior to the revolutionary war and down to the commencement of the present century, is only a pleasing fable, although reported so often as to be accepted as fact by the careless. Even Col. Benton pays a pious tribute to the past glories of the Carolinas, from which he sprung. A closer examination will show that in this case, as in many others, distance of time "lends enchantment to the view," as well as distance of place. The products of our Southern States were formerly, and still are, exported from their own ports. The whole change which has occurred within sixty years, is that the imports consumed by them, and which were formerly made principally at their own ports, are now made at New York—the difference being substantially this, that their factors, who are now Northern merchants, were then English or Scotch agents. In commerce or navigation they never themselves participated in any considerable degree, although furnishing, as the Cubans do, abundant commodities and employment for both.\* The holders of the public debt, at the close of the revolutionary war, were found north of the Potomac. During the war of 1812-15, while the North loaned to the government \$43,000,000, the South loaned only \$2,000,000; and this from want of means, and not from any want of patriotism or lack of disposition to sustain government in that struggle. These facts show clearly enough where mercantile capital was located at these periods.

Virginia and the Carolinas had their epoch of prosperity; but it was

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\* "Our last exports did not exceed £1,000,000. Our export trade is entirely in the hands of foreigners. We have no manufactures—depend for supplies on other nations, and so far are we from having any carrying trade, that, as I have already said, our exports are in the hands of foreigners."—GOVERNOR RANDOLPH, in the Virginia Convention, (1788.) "On the adoption of the Federal Constitution."

"From Virginia their exports are valued at a million sterling per annum; the single article of tobacco amounts to seven or eight hundred thousand. How does this come back? Not in money; for the Virginians are poor to a proverb, in money. They anticipate their crops; they spend faster than they earn; they are even in debt. Their rich exports return in eatables, in drinkables, and in wearables."—OLIVER ELLSWORTH, in the Connecticut Convention, (1788.) "On the adoption of the Federal Constitution."

in no just sense commercial. It was agricultural, and only lasted while they were wearing out the natural fertility of their lands by a wasteful and exhausting cultivation.

It is a common idea that commercial prosperity is fleeting and transitory beyond the degree of mutability incident to all human things. That idea inspired the poet, when he said:—

“Trade’s proud empire hastes to swift decay.”

I am not satisfied that this idea is well founded. Commercial cities have flourished and decayed, and so have, and with quite as much rapidity, empires, kingdoms, and even races. Notable instances are not few, at any rate, where commerce, or superiority in some special manufacture, has clung to particular spots with wonderful tenacity. When St. Paul journeyed to Damascus, it was a city of immemorial age, and is a flourishing city at this day. Alexandria survives twenty-three centuries; Marseilles was an old and opulent city before the Christian era; London is older than the English language, and was a considerable town in the time of the Cæsars. Most of the towns composing the Hanseatic League of the twelfth century still hold an important commercial rank. Damascus excels in steel at this day, as it did during the Crusades; the laces of Brussels have delighted the fair during five centuries; the violins of Cremona and the silks of Lyons have been long famous, and are still unsurpassed. If the shoes of Lynn and the clocks of Connecticut enjoy a duration of prosperity to be measured by these examples, their career is yet only in its commencement.

In the history of Europe, the dominion of trade has exhibited more stability than either political or military power. During the centuries which witnessed only two transfers of commercial ascendancy—from the Mediterranean to Holland, and from Holland to England—what numerous and vast changes took place in dynasties, in the limits of kingdoms, and in the balance of political power!

Many changes, spoken of as such, are so only comparatively, and not positively. The commerce and wealth of the Dutch, the manufactures of Belgium, the Flanders of the middle ages, have undergone no decay. They are, indeed, greater than ever before, although now overshadowed by the more colossal proportions of British capital and British industry.

In the philosophy of things, commerce and the arts must be as prominent as the national characteristics out of which they spring; while military and political power, often the result of the genius or fortune of individuals, may be as fleeting and capricious as life or chance. “Trade’s proud empire,” the poet to the contrary notwithstanding, cannot be “swift,” either in its rise or in its fall.

The subject matter of commerce often changes, when there is no change in that national genius and aptitude to which material objects are only secondary. Consider the great part now performed in English commerce by cotton fabrics. They constitute one-half of the enormous aggregate of English exports. Yet the cotton manufacture is wholly the creation of the last eighty years. In the reign of James I., little more than two centuries ago, nine-tenths of English commerce was in woolen manufactured goods. Yet the commerce of England does not consist of cottons or woollens. It would have existed without either. It has its substantial and enduring basis in her national genius and enterprise, in her well-

defined personal liberty, in the character and local combination of her mines, in her accumulated capital, in her climate, and in her insular position.

The commercial spirit of New York existed in full vigor two centuries ago. But consider to what different objects it was directed. "New York," says a writer of that day, "sends fewer ships to England than some other colonies do, but those they do send are richer, as dealing more in furs and skins with the Indians." Within a century New England has changed her exports from furs, ashes, and provisions, to manufactures of cotton, wool, iron, and leather; but there has been no change in those elements of character of which physical substances are only the objects and instruments.

Let us suppose that in navigation steam supplants sails, and iron wood. How many arts in the construction and working of ships would be changed, superseded, or called into being, to meet the new condition of things? Yet, I doubt not, New England skill would be as prominent in the iron steamer as in the wooden ship. The soldier who can make good use of a musket, will know how to use a Minnie rifle; and the ingenious artisans of our seaports will easily exchange the ax and the adze for the foundry and the rolling-mill. The art will remain, although all its processes are changed.

The general advance of the commerce of the world, within the past few years, is immense; the proportion of our own participation in that advance is absolutely amazing. Our tonnage is eleven times what it was when Hamilton made his report upon navigation in 1790; it has doubled within the last nine years. The tonnage of our registered ships engaged in foreign trade has trebled within the last fifteen years; our tonnage now surpasses that of Great Britain and all her colonies, and is double the amount at which British tonnage stood only seventeen years ago. Our tonnage is double that of all the European nations together, exclusive of Great Britain. The tonnage of Maine alone is equal to that of the French empire; the tonnage of Maine alone is equal to that of all the Baltic powers combined. The united tonnage of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, is not equal to the tonnage built in the United States in the single year ending on the 30th day of last June.

If this is the present, what is to be the future of commerce? Consider how large a proportion of the surface of the globe has as yet made no contribution to commerce, because waste, or occupied by barbarous tribes, or inaccessible; consider what vast countries are now being brought, for the first time, under the dominion of civilized man; consider, finally, how wonderfully production is being augmented by machinery, by the subjection to human control of newly-discovered powers of nature, and by accumulating capital. The progress of the past has been great, and the capacity for progress in the future is indefinitely greater. The field for enterprise is not yet even fully explored; it stretches boundless on every hand; and each step forward only gives new points of vision and more extended prospects.

Art. II.—MONTREAL: ITS TRADE AND COMMERCE.\*

MONTREAL, the largest and most populous city and chief seat of commerce of British America, is situated at the head of the ship navigation of the St. Lawrence, and near its confluence with the Ottawa, 142 miles in a direct line S. W. from Quebec.

The population of the city is steadily increasing, and it is believed that at no former period was its trade and general business on a more healthy footing. The building of dwelling-houses and warehouses is going on with great energy, and to a very large extent. Within the year ending 31st October, 1856, there were 543 dwelling-houses, warehouses, and shops of substantial character, being all brick or stone, erected or in course of erection, exclusive of stables, sheds, and out-buildings. In a single short street, it may be mentioned, that the increase to the revenue of the city, from the erection of new warehouses this year, is £250. Of the present position of the city, in its various interests, some general idea may be formed from the following reliable figures: In 1800 the population was 9,000; 1816, 16,000; 1825, 22,000; 1831, 27,297; 1851, 57,715; 1856, 75,000, at a very moderate estimate.

THE REVENUE OF THE CITY.

From the assessments imposed on real estate was, for the year 1850.....	£15,220
“ “ “ “ “ “ 1855.....	26,740
“ “ “ “ “ “ 1856.....	28,761
The aggregate value of the real estate of the city for 1856 was .....	6,391,333
The total revenue of the city, from all sources, in 1856, exclusive of Water Works, was.....	60,758
The revenue of Water Works was.....	10,500
Total revenue of the city.....	£71,258

The cost of the principal Market-house, the Bonsecours, a stately building, was £71,825, but it yields 6 per cent per annum upon its cost.

The city is well lighted with gas, and, with a proper foresight, the corporation, with a due regard to the requirements of its growing population, has constructed most extensive new water works in addition to those formerly in use.

From a very early stage of improvement in the art of navigation, it must have become evident that water carriage was that which presented the cheapest and most easy mode of transporting merchandise from place to place. If goods were in some cases carried in caravans upon the backs of animals, it was either because they were of great value in proportion to bulk, and therefore because the charges of conveyance added little to their cost at the market where they were sold; or else, because water routes were wholly unknown, or extraordinarily circuitous. We need give no examples in proof of that which, during many centuries down to our own days, was considered less an axiom to be stated than a

\* We have compiled the present article chiefly from data furnished to our hands by EDWARD G. PENNY, and a pamphlet containing a sketch, prepared for the celebration of the opening of the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada, by a sub-committee of the Celebration Committee, in 1856. We shall probably give, in a future number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, some account of the manufacturing and other industrial pursuits of that city, including, in a separate article, the railroad and other connections.—*Ed. Mer. Mag.*

self-evident truth. Accordingly, with some exceptions such as occur to all rules, we find that great cities have always arisen either upon convenient ports of the sea, or upon large navigable rivers and inland waters. The manufacturing city is a modern form of the aggregation of men; but inasmuch as a manufacture can rarely be perfected with a single material, it is essential even for the establishment of a manufacture in a locality, where the chief material is found in great abundance, that there should be easy and cheap means of bringing to the same spot the secondary materials. Besides, when the manufacture is completed, if the article be heavy or bulky, facilities are required for its distribution to the consumer.

If these rules are universally true, they must have been especially felt by the settlers in a new world, where there were but two means of traveling from place to place—the feet of the pedestrian or the canoe of the voyageur. “Hence, the vast importance which, in the early history of this continent, was imputed to the possession of the St. Lawrence and Hudson, the two rivers by which access was obtained from the sea to the great freshwater lakes, and thence, by overcoming a few portages, to every part of the vast American wilderness east of the Rocky Mountains, from Hudson’s Bay to the Gulf of Mexico.”

The French, during a long occupation, held the possession of the most direct outlet; and the warlike and often-repeated struggles which took place about Lake George, and again in the Mohawk country, show how intently they desired to exclude their rivals from the inferior route of partial navigation between the seaboard and the lakes, and how vigorously these rivals strove to make their way in that direction.

No wonder that the spot on which Montreal now stands was early chosen for the foundation of a commercial town. It is true, that the commerce of Canada in its first days was not such as to employ many hands in the intellectual or manual operations which we now see going on around us. Peltry was, for a long period, the only traffic to which importance was attached. In collecting the skins, which made the object of that trade, many men—red or white—must have been employed. But the cargo of a few canoes, rich though they were in value, required little labor for their transfer to the hold of the European merchantman; and the market was managed by a very few agents of the great houses in France. Still, such as the trade was, Montreal presented a most favorable site for carrying it on.

On one side of the island were to be found the lowest rapids of the Ottawa, and on the other the lowest rapids of the St. Lawrence. The painful inland navigation, in some places wholly interrupted by portages, and in others for long reaches capable of being conducted only with the most toilsome labor, ended at this island. On the other hand, vessels arriving from the eastern side of the Atlantic could reach this point, but could ascend no higher. Never was place for shipment and transhipment more plainly indicated by natural laws. From hence, more or less navigable water-courses spread out, like a fan, over hundreds of thousands of miles in the interior, and permitted the canoe of the Indian trader to penetrate in all directions; while, on the other hand, a broad and safe river led to the great ocean, whose farther waves washed the walls of all the seats of established civilization.

When the vagabond labors of the voyageur and native hunter gave way before the more steady toil of the agricultural settler, the advantages which had at first prompted the selection of the Island of Montreal as the site of a city, were by no means diminished. The articles of export had become changed, and needed no longer to be searched out in widely-extended journeys; but the timber, and ashes, and breadstuffs, which began to take the place of skins in the exchange with Europe, could reach the *entrepot* only by water, and could be sent only thence by the same means. Farms, if they were to send their produce abroad, must be situated on or immediately in the neighborhood of navigable waters. The St. Lawrence and its tributaries, even while Niagara still closed the passage westward, bathed more wheat-growing and more timber-producing lands than any river in America, except the Mississippi. Hence, there was high promise

that the most convenient port for the meeting of inland with sea-going vessels must continue to be a point of great commercial importance for all the northern part of North America.

The St. Lawrence, however, with all its acknowledged capacity, was not without its drawbacks. Foremost was the long winter, which sealed its waters during six months of the year; and next may be classed the dangers of a navigation of 700 miles between Belle Isle and Quebec. There were other circumstances which threatened that commercial prosperity which once appeared to be the undoubted appanage of the most convenient port of this large river—using the term “most convenient” in reference to breadstuffs, the chief produce of the West, and to manufactured goods, the chief article in demand by the West. The principal of these was the discovery that the most fertile lands lay beyond the barrier formed by Niagara. Hence, the population which would otherwise, in the natural order, have filled up the nearest land first, was tempted to the shores of Lake Erie and the country lying between that lake and the head waters of the Mississippi. It has been in this region that the great emigrant population has chiefly established itself, leaving the less fruitful shores of the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario comparatively bare of inhabitants.

But for the Falls of Niagara, it is probable that all the inhabitants westward of that great break in the navigation, would have transacted their business by the St. Lawrence. Niagara cut them off from the ocean, and they were compelled to seek a new exit. Hence, the construction of the Erie Canal, which, by the subsequent addition of a branch to Oswego, has even encroached upon the natural rights of the waters of the St. Lawrence. The Erie Canal not only gave the Western population an outlet, but it gave them an outlet not beset by the difficulties which are every winter renewed in the St. Lawrence; for though produce can reach the seaport from the West via this river as late as it can reach New York via the Erie Canal, yet once arrived at the point of shipment by sea, it was liable to be detained by ice in the St. Lawrence, while it was free to depart at New York.

The enterprise of the people of Canada would not, however, submit tamely to the destruction of their own channel of trade. They sought to rival the Erie Canal, by the construction of the Welland Canal upon so large a scale as to render available the general advantages of the St. Lawrence navigation throughout all the regions watered by the lakes, which form the head waters of that river. In this struggle, they had on their side the superiority which large vessels always have in rivalry with small ones. By the construction of the Welland Canal and the canals on the St. Lawrence, the Canadians secured throughout their waters a passage for ships, instead of for barges only. Against them they still had the long winter; the dangerous, while unlighted navigation, below Quebec; and last, but perhaps more important than all the rest, the never-ceasing demand for an amount of tonnage outward largely in excess of that which could be required inward. The chief articles of produce which could be expected to pass the canals were wheat and flour. But the wheat and flour, arrived at a St. Lawrence seaport, must compete for ocean shipping with lumber, whose demands were far more imperative. It is plain that under these circumstances the freight of breadstuffs could never be permanently much lower than the equivalent freight which exporters of timber could afford to pay, and exporters of timber have always had to pay rates that would cover the voyages out and home. This is not the normal and usual condition of the trade at Atlantic seaports, and hence another reason why they have attracted more of the export of breadstuffs than it would seem, from geographical considerations merely, should have fallen to their share. It is to be remarked, that for a considerable period prior to the change in the British Corn Laws, legislative enactments, the precise details of which were altered more than once, but which always tended in the same direction, afforded a protection to the colonial exportation which greatly favored its progress; but since the repeal of the Corn Laws, this has been, of course, withdrawn, and there is now no artificial stimulant.

In spite of all these drawbacks, the victory—even if we had still to do only

with the ancient modes of propelling ships—must be considered as doubtful. The dwellers on the lakes and the St. Lawrence are, perhaps, only beginning thoroughly to understand all that they gain by improvements which must be still called recent; and the latest developments seem to show that by making use of all ameliorations in the art of navigation, we should still snatch our share of the traffic from our rivals. Perhaps it would be more correct to say, that the whole traffic promises to be so immense, that all routes may expect to have full occupation, without those interested in the one envying those concerned in the other. It appears, indeed, that in the cycle of harvests there will be years when the demand for breadstuffs by Europe will almost cease, and in such seasons the export by sea from the St. Lawrence will probably fail, as—except for some of the fisheries in the Gulf—the St. Lawrence does not offer the same facilities as Atlantic ports for shipment to other than European consumers.

In imports there has been a steady progress, the trade of the river keeping pace with the growth of wealth and population in the country. It is true, however, that Montreal, which once had the entire population of Western Canada for customers, has that monopoly no longer. This is partly owing to the repeal of the differential duties, which formerly gave a small but probably an overrated advantage to the Montreal importer. It is almost impossible, however, to overrate the relative gain of his rivals on the seaboard, from another cause—we mean the extension of the system of railways. The true protection enjoyed by the St. Lawrence import trade, say as lately as twelve years ago, was not only the 5 per cent additional duty levied on merchandise entering the province through the United States, but also the far more efficient check to the trader from the South, found in the immense tract of land, or of inferior water carriage, by which he had to pass from the seaboard to reach the lake. In imports, too, the peculiarity of position arising from the immense shipments of lumber at Quebec was inoperative as against the Canadian merchant, or rather it was favorable to him in certain coarse, cheap, and heavy goods; for some classes of freights to the St. Lawrence were lowered by the fact of large fleets being bound thither twice in the twelvemonth, of which the majority would always be in ballast. The rivalry of the Atlantic ports of the Union was, however, most unfairly encouraged in the import trade by the subsidy bestowed upon the Cunard steamers. These vessels, though running to foreign ports, nevertheless received from the British government aids which enabled them to fix their rates of freight so low as to exclude fair competition in certain classes of goods by vessels coming to Canada—to say nothing of the fact, that these aids caused the establishment of steamers to Boston and New York, while Canada could pretend to nothing but sailing-vessels.

The invention of railroads, however, introduced a new element into the question of routes, and the creation of a system of iron highways between the seaboard and the lakes, opened fresh commercial prospects in some respects not very flattering to the hopes of the mercantile and shipping interests of Canada. Not only did these railways tend to equalize the cost of conveyance by land with that of conveyance by water, but by opening practicable channels for merchandise, at a period when the Erie Canal and the St. Lawrence were alike frozen, they enabled the inhabitants even of Western Canada to receive spring dry goods just at that period when they were most in demand. Obstructed as the navigation was by ice till late in May, spring fashions arriving by the river could hardly be opened west of Montreal much before June, and some longer time was of course required before they could be distributed in the interior. The American government, to secure all the benefits promised by this change, established a system of bonding, which, relieving goods passing that way to Canada from all charges not absolutely necessary to protect the revenue of the United States, raised the facilities by that route to the highest possible pitch. These circumstances, joined perhaps to the stimulus of novelty, for a short time turned a large portion of the Western Canadian buyers from Montreal to New York, and it was by some believed that the import trade of the St. Lawrence must be annihilated. The panic, however, was short, and it has been followed by a strong conviction that this great river

must have maintained its supremacy in general trade, even without the improvements to be shortly noticed.

This conviction has prompted renewed exertions on the part of the merchants of Montreal, and these few years we have had cargoes from Holland, France, Spain, the Mediterranean, and China; and the East Indian branch of our commerce is likely to be pushed with a great deal of vigor. All these trades were, till lately, entirely unknown. The West Indian and Lower Provinces' trade, too, has greatly revived. When Montreal is spoken of here, it is not that she is to have a monopoly of any of these branches. The Upper Canadian importers will, no doubt, share in these, as they have done in the old-established lines of trades.

Before describing these improvements, let us look for a moment at the position of affairs at the close of the year 1855. During the nine years which had elapsed immediately before, everything that could depress the trade of the St. Lawrence and augment that of its rivals, had been done—

1. The Corn Laws had been repealed by the British government, and the protection afforded to the Canadian exports in breadstuffs had been abolished.
2. The incidental protection on the import trade of the St. Lawrence arising from the differential duties levied on goods coming from the United States, and which was imposed for the protection of British commerce, was repealed.
3. The American bonding system had been perfected.
4. The American lines of railway had been pushed from the seaside to all parts of the Canadian frontier.

Against these many injurious influences, the St. Lawrence trade had gained only in two directions. The last stroke had been put to canals, so as to secure a draft of water in every part of the navigation between the head of the lakes and Montreal of ten feet at the lowest; and the shoals of Lake St. Peter had been successfully dredged, so as to obtain sixteen feet of water, summer level. Nevertheless, it will be seen from the following figures that though the import trade fell off relatively, that is to say, ceased to be wholly transacted in one direction, it increased positively—the demands of the country being so augmented, that the business of supplying them partially had become greater than that of supplying them wholly, had formerly been:—

IMPORTS TO THE PORT OF MONTREAL.

1845.	1846.	1855.	1856.
£2,614,911	£2,203,908	£3,093,145	£3,993,145*

The export trade generally has received a great impetus during the past year, owing in part, no doubt, to the establishment of the ocean steam line. The exports from Montreal for the first three quarters of the year 1855 were but £333,610; for the year 1856 they have amounted to £716,475, or more than double.

This is, perhaps, the proper place to note one other circumstance in the business of Montreal, which, though not bearing directly on either her import or export trade, is yet likely to exercise a powerful influence on her future prosperity. The city, having its foundation and whole principle of life in commerce, the Lachine Canal was constructed to aid that commerce. But it has happened, in this instance, as in many others, that the perfecting of one purpose has given birth to new projects, and the head of water on this canal has been rendered available for the creation of water powers, which have been applied successfully to the move-

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\* This estimate is made thus. The returns are already made up from the beginning of the year to the 5th of October, 1856. This shows a total of imports of £3,576,550, against £2,612,573 in the corresponding period of 1855—an increase of £963,977. The month of October in 1856 is known to have been again largely in excess of that in 1855. If, therefore, in the remaining two months of the year there should be a slight falling off, which is not probable, there can be no doubt that the estimate of £900,000 increase for the whole year will be greatly within the true line.

ment of extensive machinery over a large extent of ground. Thus, a step intended to promote the business of exportation and importation, has led to the establishment of a considerable manufacturing interest, which is likely rapidly to increase. As a chapter will be especially devoted to that subject, it is unnecessary to do more here than to mention that the origin of large manufactures in Montreal is to be found in the attempt to satisfy the wants of trade.

We come now to the improvements which have taken place since the commencement of the present year. In the first place, we rank the establishment of the Canadian steamships, which, by the regularity and shortness of their trips, have incontestably established that the most speedy route between Europe and the largest part of North America, embracing all New England, the State of New York, part of Pennsylvania, and most of the Western States, and the valley of the Mississippi, is through the River St. Lawrence, at all seasons of the year when its waters are navigable. Two instances may be mentioned in proof of this statement. It is understood that cotton has been already conveyed from the uplands of Tennessee via the St. Lawrence to New York, and passengers from Liverpool to New Orleans have selected the St. Lawrence as the shortest route to the place of their destination. It is obvious that the shortest route must have vast advantages for all kinds of conveyance, and that for many descriptions of trade, as well in goods as in passengers, no other consideration can weigh against speed. The success of these experiments brings us back to our first statement of the superiority of water carriage<sup>1</sup> over all others, and enables us confidently to lay down the proposition that steam has restored to the St. Lawrence, during the summer months, all that supremacy which the establishment of the Railway system in the United States seemed to have taken away. The very circumstances which have hitherto prolonged voyages of sailing vessels, and heightened the insurance upon them, will, for the future, shorten the voyages of, and reduce the insurance upon steamships. The sailing vessel requires plenty of sea-room, in order that she may continue to stand upon that tack on which she gains most, until favored by another slant of wind. In a river she must stand almost as long on her losing tack as on her gaining one. Besides, a sailing vessel in a land-locked navigation is always exposed to the risk of becoming embayed, and the discovery of her peril is frequently made only after the time for a remedy has passed. With a steamer, on the contrary, except in the very worst of weather, a danger once discovered is already avoided, and the shore which threatened the sailing vessel at every moment, merely serves to secure smooth water to the steamer. The fact that nearly one-third of the distance between Liverpool and Quebec is made in smooth water, has, no doubt, powerfully contributed to the success of the Canadian steamers. The same considerations will, of course, eventually reduce the insurance on St. Lawrence voyages to a parity with that charged upon other voyages across the Atlantic. This change has already begun with respect to steamers, but it will no doubt go further with them, and even apply to sailing vessels, as a consequence of the establishment of powerful steam-tugs to aid ships in the lower St. Lawrence, and of the perfect lighting of our coasts, now resolved on by the government.

It must not be forgotten that if Montreal reaps the full benefit of the establishment of this line of steamers, it is due to the enterprise of her citizens, and especially to the energetic efforts of one of them. But for this enterprise and these efforts, no vessels approaching to the size of the Canadian steamers could have reached the city. The deepening of Lake St. Peter, however, at local charges, under the direction of the Harbor Commissioners, headed by their chairman, the Hon. John Young, from 11 feet water to 18 feet, has secured this gain to the city of Montreal. Following close upon the experiment of vessels having steam for their principal motive power, has been the trial of sailing vessels, with steam power as a mere auxiliary. Ships of this class are, of course, much less speedy than those which have formed the line contracted for by Messrs. Edmonstone, Allan & Co., but they are, on the other hand, economical and sure. They can carry large cargoes, especially if they call at Sydney to re-coal, in voyages on which they meet with much adverse weather, and one of them has reached Mon-

treal from London in 21 days, equal, probable, to 18 days from Liverpool. This class of vessels promises much for the future of Canadian importations, and the hopes founded upon the success of both classes of sea-going steamers will be more certainly realized, if the design now on foot for creating a line of first class propellers between Montreal and Chicago, shall be carried out in an enterprising and vigorous spirit.

Subjoined is a statement of distances, tending to show the superiority of this route over all others between Europe and North America:—

Distance from Montreal to Liverpool by the St. Lawrence and the Straits of Belle Isle is.....	2,750 miles.
Distance from New York to Liverpool by the shortest sailing circle across the Atlantic.....	2,980 “
	<hr/>
Difference in favor of Montreal.....	230 “

The next improvement in our channels of trade is the establishment of that Canadian system of railroads, whose completion has given occasion for this pamphlet. This new mode of communication by land will not be rightly understood if it be regarded as a substitute for, or a rival of the water route. We consider it as subsidiary to, and as the complement of that which must always be the chief highway from the ocean to the interior—the great inland chain of lakes and river. It has been already shown that the effect of the establishment of American railways from the sea-coast to the frontier, was to divert to Atlantic ports a great portion of the business of which nature seemed to have conferred a monopoly on the St. Lawrence. And it has been pointed out that this change arose from two circumstances. First, that with regard to some classes of goods, the object to be chiefly achieved in their carriage is speed. Second, that during a part of the year, the navigation being completely sealed by ice, any conveyance which approaches in facility that by water, must secure a considerable portion of the traffic in goods which would otherwise lie over till the thaws of spring. It happened that in an important branch of trade, both these reasons concurred to favor the overland route. Dry goods for the early spring trade are in demand in the West at a time in the year when the ice still forbids the entrance of vessels to the ports of Quebec and Montreal. The introduction of railways, therefore, while they continued to be wholly in the hands of our rivals, had placed us at every possible disadvantage. *But all that Canadian commerce has to gain from railways has yet to come*, and is, it is to be hoped, on the eve of being realized. Hereafter the goods which arrive at Montreal in from twenty-four to forty-eight hours earlier than they can reach New York, will be at once put upon the railroad, and forwarded to their destination in a less number of hours than would be required to lay them down in the warehouse of the consignee, if the commencement of their inland journey had been from one of the seaboard cities. The following comparative table of distances from Montreal, and from New York, will show the truth of this proposition:—

DISTANCE FROM HAMILTON TO NEW YORK.

New York to Albany.....	150 miles.
Albany to Rochester.....	229 “
Rochester to Suspension Bridge.....	74 “
Suspension Bridge to Hamilton.....	43 “
	<hr/>
	496 “

DISTANCE FROM HAMILTON TO MONTREAL.

Grand Trunk to Toronto.....	333 miles.
Toronto to Hamilton.....	35 “
	<hr/>
	378 “

Thus during the period of navigation, the opening of the Grand Trunk, and the connections it affords, must secure to Canadian merchants the supply of all the goods of which the choice of routes depends on speed.

## THE CANADIAN INLAND AND OCEAN NAVIGATION.

Montreal, at the head of sea navigation proper, is the port for the great chain of river, lake, and canal navigation, which extends westward to Fond du Lac and Chicago, a distance of about fourteen hundred miles, embracing the largest extent of inland water communication in the world. The following table exhibits this in a condensed form:—

	Length in miles.	Breadth in miles.	Depth in feet.	Elevation over sea.	Area, square miles.
Lake Superior.....	420	120	600	600	32,100
“ Michigan.....	320	70	1,000	573	21,900
“ Huron.....	270	145	350	578	18,750
“ St. Clair.....	25	18	20	570	300
“ Erie.....	250	45	70	564	9,300
“ Ontario.....	190	40	500	234	7,300
River St. Lawrence.....	700	...	...	...	.....

## CANALS.

	Length in miles.	Depth.	Size of locks.	Lockage.	No. of Locks.	
Lachine.....	8½	10	200 x 45	44¾	5	
Beauharnois.....	11¼	10	200 x 45	82¾	9	
Cornwall.....	11½	10	200 x 55	48	7	
Farrand's Point.....	}	10	200 x 45	4	1	
Rapid Plat.....		10	200 x 45	11½	2	
Point Iroquois.....		9¾	10	200 x 45	6	1
Galops.....		10	200 x 45	8	2	
Welland.....	28	10	150 x 26½	330	27	

## SHIPPING.

It may be of interest to the readers of this chapter to be informed of the average passages of vessels between Quebec and Montreal, long ago. We have had access to an old memorandum-book kept by the late W. Hall, Esq., the former collector of customs at this port during the years 1820, 1821, and 1822, giving the average passages between the two ports during each month of the open season. In 1820, the average passage in May was 5 days; in June, 14 days; in July, 16 days; in August, 17 days; in September, 25 days; in October, 22 days; general average, 16½ days. In 1821, the average passage in May was 7 days; in October, 23; and the general average almost 14 days. In 1822, in May, 6 days; and in October, 25 days; general average, 15½ days. In 1824, a tug steamer was put upon the route. The passage is now made, with the aid of tug steamers, in about 30 hours.

In 1812, four vessels were built in Montreal, viz.:—

The ship George Canning, 470 tons, by James Dunlop.		
“ Sterling 370	Hart Logan.	
“ Harmony 300	David Munn.	
And the brig Hunter	“	

In that year 53 vessels were entered, with an aggregate tonnage of 9,127. The largest vessel entered here from ports beyond the sea, was the ship Eweretta, from London, of 342 tons, (carpenter's measurement;) the smallest, the brig Mary, from Ayr, 70 tons.

In 1813, (during the war with the United States,) there were but 9

vessels from sea, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,589; the largest being again the Eweretta, the smallest the brig Hamilton, of 151 tons.

In 1814, there were but 13 vessels from sea, with an aggregate tonnage of 2,341; the Eweretta still being the largest; the smallest, (excepting coasting schooners from the Lower Provinces,) being the brig Sunbury, of 110 tons, from Barbadoes, and the Ann and Elizabeth, of 140 tons, from Aberdeen.

In 1815, there were 52 vessels entered, with an aggregate tonnage of 10,123; of which the largest was still the Eweretta, the smallest the schooner Industry, of 84 tons, from Liverpool.

In 1816, there were 63 vessels; tonnage, 12,056; largest vessel the Eweretta; smallest, the schooner Mary and Jane, of 87 tons, from Lisbon.

In 1817, 46 vessels came; tonnage, 9,215; the Leander, of Liverpool, 360 tons, the largest.

No larger vessel visited the port for the next two seasons, the number of vessels and aggregate tonnage being much the same. In 1819, two vessels were built in Montreal; the ship Nancy, of 400 tons, sent to London, and the brig Harriet, of 245 tons, to Demerara.

In 1820, the number of vessels rose to 66, with a tonnage of 13,052. Two new vessels were built, names not given. Duties collected that year were £19,412, and the value of dutiable imports £248,357. The largest ship that year was the Juliana, of 396 tons. In a foot note to this year's report, it is said:—N. B. The Atalanta came through the lake with 10.2 feet draft of water. As if that were a note-worthy fact.

The 53 vessels that came in 1821 had a tonnage of 19,064, and, in 1822, 56, with a tonnage of 11,694. One new vessel was built this year. Two vessels left port on the 19th November. Mild weather. In 1823, there were 43 vessels, tonnage 9,069; two new vessels were built. In 1825, 77 vessels arrived, with a tonnage of 14,338. Next year 50 vessels, tonnage 11,251. In 1827, 64 vessels, tonnage 13,533. It will be observed that the average tonnage in any one year was never far from 200 tons. The maximum never exceeded that of the Juliana, which seems to have made more than one voyage; and, after 1821, the Eweretta, of 352 tons, disappears from the list, and is replaced by no vessel of so large capacity. The large vessels built here, seem to have been sold abroad, or employed in the Quebec timber trade.

Now with the increased water in the channel through Lake St. Peter, we have vessels coming here of seven or eight times the capacity. The Anglo Saxon, ocean steamer, has a capacity of 1,782 tons, and the Sardinian, of 1,380 tons, cleared at this port with a cargo of grain during the present season.

The following is a table of the average tonnage of vessels trading between Montreal and Transatlantic ports during the past five years:—

AVERAGE TONNAGE OF VESSELS FROM GREAT BRITAIN FOR THE FIVE YEARS, 1852 TO 1856.

Vessels.	Tons.	Average Tonnage.	Build's Measurem't
454	202,833	450	514

STEAMBOATS.

Turning now to steam navigation, we find that Montreal claims an honorable position in its history. In 1807, Fulton first launched his first steamer on the Hudson. In 1809, his example was followed on Lake Champlain and the St. Lawrence.

The first movement towards the steam navigation of the St. Lawrence, was made by the late Hon. John Molson, in conjunction with David Bruce, a ship-builder, and John Jackson, an engineer.

The vessel built by them was the *Accommodation*. She was but a small boat, 72 feet in length, with 16 feet beam, propelled by an engine constructed by Mr. Jackson, of not more than six horse-power.

In 1811, the new vessel called the *Swiftsure* was launched and at work, and in 1812 "did the state some service" in the transport of troops and stores, during the unhappy interruption of our relations with the United States. The boat had nearly five times the power of the *Accommodation*.

Her length was 120 feet; her beam 24; the engine was rated at 28 horse-power, and she was fitted up and equipped, in all respects, in a superior manner.

The *Malsham* was the next boat placed on the line, still superior to the *Swiftsure*; and after her the *Lady Sherbrooke*, vessels, at that time, of considerable tonnage and power.

At this period the river was not lighted and buoyed as at present; it was therefore thought unsafe to run after dark. The pilots, too, were less experienced than at present; it was therefore usual, as we have said, to anchor at night. Frequent and expensive delays were also caused by strong southerly winds, in getting up the current St. Mary; more especially when the boats were heavily loaded, as they generally were at that time. Oxen and horses were sometimes employed to tow the vessels up this very powerful current.

In a few years later than the period referred to, we find the St. Lawrence Steamboat Company, and their competitors, (afterwards their co-adjutors,) the Montreal Tow-boat Company, running their boats during the night with perfect safety, and ascending the current in any state of the wind, triumphing over all the former difficulties of the navigation.

To the late founder of the St. Lawrence Company, the Hon. John Molson, the celebrity of being the first to establish steam traffic on our noble river, must be accorded—a traffic, which, by the enterprise of Upper Canada, and that of our neighbors in the adjoining States, is now made to enter from Superior City, on Lake Superior, and Chicago, on Lake Michigan, to the ocean—aye, and across the ocean, also.

To the late Robert Hamilton, Esq., Upper Canada is indebted for the first steamer on Lake Ontario, the engine of whose boat was constructed from the model of the *Malsham* engine.

In contrast with the dimensions, power, and speed of the little *Accommodation*, we subjoin those of the *John Munn*, the largest steamer now plying between this city and Quebec:—Length, 312 feet; breadth of beam, 29 feet; cylinder, 72 inches; stroke, 11 feet.

She makes the downward trip easily enough in 10 hours, and the upward in from 11 to 12 hours.

The ensuing notice of the Montreal Canadian Steamship Company, contains valuable information, and affords a striking contrast:—

The Anglo Saxon, 1,782 tons, Captain McMaster; North America, 1,782 tons, Captain Grange; Canadian, 1,764 tons, Captain Ballantine; Indian, 1,764 tons, Captain Jones.

These vessels were built in Dumbarton, in Scotland, of iron, in seven compartments each, but they are chiefly owned in Montreal. Their ca-

capacity enables them to carry 8,000 barrels of flour, or 40,000 bushels of wheat, in addition to passengers, stores, and coal for the ocean voyage. They have made fourteen voyages this year, from Liverpool to Montreal and back, and have carried 805 first class, 294 second class, 1,581 third class; in all, 2,680 passengers, and about 10,500 tons goods. From Montreal to Liverpool, 581 first class, 243 second class, 900 third class; in all, 1,724 passengers; besides 186,900 bushels wheat, 52,400 barrels flour, 5,500 barrels ashes; and a large quantity of butter, lard, beef, pork, apples, and India-rubber goods.

The average passage of these vessels has been: From Liverpool to Quebec, 11 days 19 hours; Quebec to Liverpool, 10 days 17 hours.

The shortest passage from Quebec to Liverpool, was that of the Anglo Saxon, 9 days 23 hours. The same vessel made the passage from Liverpool to Riviere de Loup, the telegraph station below Quebec, in 10 days and 2 hours; beating the Asia and Atlantic, which sailed to New York, nearly 2 days, on that passage.

BANKS CONNECTED WITH MONTREAL.

Montreal being a large commercial center, as might be expected, the banking facilities afforded to the business community are on an extended scale. The banks of Canada have been, on the whole, prudently and judiciously managed, and have proved remunerative to the shareholders, while there has yet been no instance of the stoppage of a Canadian bank. The names and capital of the banks carrying on their business in Montreal, is here given, selected from the official statement, with a statement of whether the office be a Head Office or Agency.

These banks all, with one exception, transact business under Canadian charters, and their stockholders are liable in double the amount of their shares. The Bank of British North America holds a royal charter, the Head Office being in London, but the principal British American Colonial Office being in Montreal.

EXTRACT FROM THE OFFICIAL STATEMENT OF BANKS ACTING UNDER CHARTER FOR THE MONTH OF SEPTEMBER, 1856—FROM THE AUDITOR GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT.

Name of Bank.	Capital authorized by act.	Capital paid up.
City Bank of Montreal, principal office.....	\$1,200,000	\$1,047,144
Bank of Montreal, principal office.....	6,000,000	5,273,520
Commercial Bank of Canada, agency.....	4,000,000	2,976,940
Bank of Upper Canada, agency.....	4,000,000	2,698,470
Banque du Peuple, principal office.....	800,000	795,590
Molson's Bank, principal office.....	1,000,000	324,680
Bank of British North America.....	5,000,000	5,000,000

**Art. III.—REMOVAL OF YELLOW FEVER QUARANTINE TO SANDY HOOK.**

THE recent introduction of yellow fever to the shores of Long Island and Governor's Island, by vessels riding quarantine, has awakened the public mind to the necessity of removing the yellow fever quarantine from Staten Island to Sandy Hook; the latter is distant 17 miles from the city of New York.

Sandy Hook is about 5 miles in length, and contains, by survey,  $1,394\frac{1}{2}$  acres.

In the month of October, I visited Major Richard Delafield, United States Engineer, Commandant at West Point, to inquire of him as to the fitness of Sandy Hook for a quarantine. He informed me that in 1849-50 he had been directed by the President of the United States to examine that locality, with a view to its use for that purpose. He assured me that he considered it the very best location for a quarantine that could be had for New York; the soundings good, and the harbor ample and sufficient for the commerce of the world.

Major Delafield has long been engaged in the building of fortifications in the harbor of New York, and is better acquainted with its localities than any other officer of whom I have any knowledge; he is an officer long in the service, and of very distinguished abilities. His opinion, therefore, is entitled to very great consideration.

Sandy Hook is now owned by the government of the United States; and Major Delafield, in his report to the President, has recommended a cession of so much of it as is required by this State for quarantine purposes, for the consideration of \$10,000.

Sandy Hook is within the jurisdiction of the State of New Jersey, and the consent of its Legislature is deemed necessary to give the State of New York jurisdiction.

An act was passed by Congress in 1799, authorizing the President of the United States to direct that warehouses be built wherever a State fixes quarantine.

It is well ascertained by experience and observation, that the yellow fever goes nowhere in climates where frost exists a part of the year, except to ports and places visited by sail or steam vessels—it follows, therefore, as a certain conclusion, that it can be quarantined.

It is not a matter of controversy, as heretofore, between the inhabitants of Staten Island, who have settled about the hospitals since they have been built there, and the people on the shores of New Jersey, near Sandy Hook, but it is a matter that concerns the great public—the life, the happiness, the well-being, the public health—the welfare of a million-and-a-quarter of people residing within ten miles of the City Hall of the city of New York, embracing the inhabitants of the city of Newark, Jersey City, and Hoboken, in the State of New Jersey, and the residents of New Jersey who do business in New York; the people of the city of New York, of the towns and villages in Westchester county bordering the city, of Astoria, Ravenswood, Williamsburgh, Brooklyn, Gowanus, and the settlements at and around Fort Hamilton, on Long Island; the villages on Staten Island bordering the Narrows and New York Bay; and the commercial and mercantile world having commerce and trade with New York.

If the yellow fever should enter the great city of New York, as it did the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth, Virginia, in 1855, New York would become a ruin, and New Jersey would become of necessity a large participator in the woe, and misery, and calamity, and desolation which would follow in the train of the pestilence.

We need only to look at the records of the pestilence in the city of Portsmouth in 1855, to be convinced of the danger which threatens New York; for of 4,000 persons who remained in Portsmouth during the fever period, 3,800 sickened; of that number, 2,200 were whites and 1,800 blacks. Of the whites, 2,100 sickened, and 890 died, or 42½ per cent; of the blacks, 1,700 sickened, and 95 died, or 5¼ per cent. Of 40 physicians who went to Norfolk and Portsmouth from the North, 26 died; and of 16 resident physicians, 10 died; 40 physicians in all died, and 7 clergymen. The sexton of one of the burying-grounds, after burying his wife, was himself consigned to the same grave. One family of eight persons were all, in less than two weeks, consigned to the tomb. At one time coffins could not be obtained for the dead, and 40 bodies were buried in one grave. In two adjoining houses in Norfolk, containing 36 inmates, 34 sickened. Such woe, such misery, such suffering, as was there experienced sickens the mind to dwell upon. Their lot may be ours. The fever was brought to Portsmouth by the steamer Ben Franklin, from St. Thomas, where it had been epidemic ten months. This ill-fated steamer was only quarantined twelve days, and then came into port, and broke hold. Her sad visitation consigned near 4,000 of the people of the two cities, including those who went to their aid, to the tomb. So much for neglect of quarantine.

We have not language at command to speak of that calamity, but there are those who have, and who in what they say of the visitation of the scourge illustrate the force of the words of Scripture, which are these: *Out of the multitude of the heart, the mouth speaketh.* I quote from memory, and therefore will not place the quotation marks. The language of the editors of the Norfolk *Argus*, on resuming their editorial labors, after the pestilence had done its work of death, in an address to their readers, says:—

We have never before resumed duty, after an interval of cessation, with as heavy a heart as we now feel. For nine-and-thirty days have our editorial labors been suspended. To us it has been no interval of holiday, but of participation in the miseries of as dire a visitation as was ever made by the plague-spirit, in fulfillment of the Almighty behest to a region of doom and devastation. We have looked death full in the face in its most hideous form. We have seen the proud, the humble, the young, the aged, the lonely, the unseemly, the timid, the weak, the strong, the foe, the friend—alike fall by the swoop of the destroyer. We have seen a population melt away, like snow before the noontide sun. We have seen science at fault, and triumphant pestilence claiming relentlessly its chosen spot.

We have seen—But why bring to light the sire deserting the infectious bedside of the son of whom he once boasted? Why speak of the daughter leaving the imploring mother who gave her being, to yield up her forlorn spirit amid the revolting filth of the plague? Why awaken the memory of the unutterable horrors of a calamity that *cannot* be realized in description? There is a brighter side to this dark picture, to which we can and *will* often recur; there is a ray of mercy tempering the night of agony which makes us feel that man—and angelic woman—has that in his nature which, when called forth, assimilates to the mighty Heaven from which he derived existence.

Long will the day of visitation be remembered in the afflicted cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth. They are now sisters in sorrow, as they have always been in interest and prosperity. The present generation will ever retain sad reminiscences of the plague among us; and the page of history that will contain the record of our sufferings must be melancholy for the unmitigated rage of pestilence which it will recount.

The editors of the *Norfolk Herald*, on resuming their labors after the fever had ceased, commence with these appropriate words of Scripture:—

“How doth the city sit solitary that was full of people; how is she become as a widow!”

With thankfulness to a merciful Providence, by whose permission we have been spared unscathed by the terrible pestilence that has wasted and afflicted our community, we to-day resume our labors which inexorable necessity had caused to be suspended since the 5th of September.

We have, in truth, passed through the valley of death, and been made spectators, not of its “shadow,” but of its dread realities in their most terrific aspects, and partaken our full share in the affliction which it has brought home to every fireside. There were dear relatives in whom we and ours had garnered up high hopes and unspeakable happiness; there were friends beloved and esteemed, upon whose generous sympathies the mind could safely repose when harassed by visions of adversity; and there were hundreds of warm-hearted citizens and neighbors, with whom we had daily exchanged kindly greetings for many long years, who wished us well, and in whose welfare we felt a lively interest. But, alas! all are stricken down by the relentless tyrant in the brief space of two months, never more to be seen by us on earth.

But this sad lot is not ours alone. Indeed, whom shall we name that has been exempt from it? Those who fled the pestilence and those who remained to brave its terrors are alike overwhelmed in the general vortex of crushed affections, withered hopes, and blighted prospects. No pen can adequately portray the horrors of the dark period which, brief as it was, has sufficed to produce an age of misery and woe unprecedented in the records of similar visitations. Yes, those who were safe from the pestilence have, in numerous instances, been made to feel, not less keenly than those who were exposed to its terrors, the effects of its desolating ravages.

But they who were not present, can form but a faint idea (if any) of its startling, its unearthly horrors, during the worst period of its career. The sick, with few exceptions, were far too numerous to be reported; and before it could be known beyond their immediate neighborhood that they were sick, the tidings of their death were spread abroad. Consternation, hurry, and confusion were visible everywhere. The great anxiety at one period—from the 29th of August to the 4th of September—was to procure coffins for the dead, though the mortality had not then reached its maximum of sixty to seventy a day. The undertakers, though constantly at work night and day, could not half supply the demand, and rough boards were made into boxes, and boxes that had been used for other purposes, were substituted for coffins. Into these the dead, whatever their character or condition in life, were huddled sometimes together, and hurried off in a common cart or wagon for interment in a *trench*, for want of time to prepare separate graves. Delicate and interesting women, aged matrons, and venerable sires, in the respectable walks of life, were among the number subjected to this summary and revolting mode of interment, giving cruel poignancy to the grief of their surviving connections. But it was unavoidable. Yet, in spite of all this urgent haste, many corpses were left unburied for twenty-four, and in some instances thirty-six and even forty-eight hours, thus adding fuel to the fire and augmenting the virulence of the disease.

A supply of coffins, fifty in number, was received from the Relief Committee in Baltimore, on the 3d of September, and eighty more from the authorities of Richmond, on the 4th; and coffins were continued to be sent by both in numbers sufficient for the demand; so that this painful exhibition on the drama of woe was

not repeated. There was enough without it, however, to have overwhelmed the sensibilities of the stoutest hearts in ordinary times; but to those who remained involuntary spectators of what was passing, repetition had almost blunted the senses of woe and events, the recollection of which is now doubtless wringing many a heart, made but little impression at the time of their occurrence. Such is the force of habit!

From the date of our last issue to the cessation of the epidemic, the city was wrapped in gloom. All the stores and dwellings of absentees were closed; few were seen passing on foot, and these on some errand of mercy or necessity, or led abroad by curiosity to see and hear what was passing. Most of the inhabitants present were either confined at home by sickness or in attendance on the sick, or, deeming it safe, preferred remaining within doors. Their disease was epidemic the length and breadth of the city; and though there was the perpetual din of carriages continually passing, from early dawn till a late hour of the night—the physicians' carriages, and hacks conveying nurses and members of the Howard Association, and the hearses, and the ever-moving "sick wagon," rattling to and fro in every direction and with unwonted velocity—there was no sign of wholesome animation; nothing betokening vitality in any of the occupations of life but those of the physicians and the undertakers. Every day brought with it fresh griefs and regrets for the heavy losses which the city was continuing to suffer in the removal of its most valuable citizens—men who had directed its affairs, and lent a helping hand in various ways to sustain its credit, promote its prosperity, and embellish its society. There was no need of the daily press to spread the melancholy tidings—the night's disasters ran through the city each morning with lightning speed.

When we look back upon our city as it was a little more than two months ago, in the enjoyment of more than its wonted share of health; smiling in the midst of peace and plenty; prosperous in all its various departments of business, commerce, and mechanical industry; looking into the future with high hopes and bright anticipations from its works of internal improvement; its inhabitants happy in themselves and in their families, and mutually happy in one another, as a community in which were combined the elements of reciprocal good will, social harmony, and a common interest; when we recall to mind this pleasing portraiture of the condition which our city so recently presented, and contemplate the scenes of horror and dismay which so suddenly followed it as with the rush of a whirlwind, appalling, bewildering, stupifying, and stunning all the faculties of mind and sense, and steeping them in a vortex of woe unutterable, we find it difficult to assure ourselves of the reality of what we have passed through in the brief space of time; and we feel as if it was all a frightful dream—a vision of woe, which still haunts and terrifies us, while we would fain persuade ourselves that it is an unreal mockery. Oh, that it were so indeed! But no; we wake to a dread reality of all the horrors of a sweeping calamity which has spared neither sex nor age, nor condition; which has widowed and orphaned hundreds; swept whole families into the grave; torn asunder the strongest ties of kindred, love, and affection; stricken down the strongest and most ornamental pillars of our social fabric, and caused a general disruption in the frame-work which held us together as a business community. But the subject is too distressing to dwell upon here. May that mysterious Providence which has so fearfully scourged our city, deal with it as with holy Job, and bless its future with greater prosperity than its past; re-establish its health, calm its spirits, and renew its comforts.

The sketch here given represents with little variation the woes of our sister city of Portsmouth, which preceded us in the dreadful race of suffering, and has drank her full proportion of the cup of affliction with us.

Yet sad and gloomy as the picture is, Oh! how infinitely more so would it have been but for the prompt, the generous, the almost superhuman benevolence interposed in behalf of our stricken community by all portions of our beloved country; in every city, and in almost every county and village in our own State and in her sister states, from the seaboard to the interior, by their populous commercial marts and smaller communities, not only in pouring in upon us the means

of mitigating our sufferings, but in sending us their good Samaritans, their noble corps of medical volunteers and nurses—an immortalized host of moral chivalry—to battle with the destroyer at the bedside of the sick, and rescue its victims from its remorseless grasp. Would that it were in our power to rehearse the almost countless instances of these noble benefactions, and to command adequate language to express the sense of gratitude which they have indelibly impressed upon the hearts and minds of the people of both communities. To name even the most prominent agents in the merciful work of their preservation, might seem ungracious, and doubtless a full and detailed report of all the circumstances connected with this calamitous visitation will be made up and published hereafter, in which ample justice will be rendered to all; to individuals as well as committees.

Thus far we have quoted from those who felt as few in this world could feel. What has been their lot, we repeat may be ours, unless the State of New Jersey consents to allow us to occupy Sandy Hook as a quarantine. If they fear a mile or two is not distant enough, the State of New York will buy all the land within three or four miles of the proposed site for a hospital, and pay more than a full price for the sake of mere isolation.

I presume no one will attempt to dispute the well ascertained fact that yellow fever and frost cannot both exist in the same atmosphere at the same time. When the frost temperature gets possession, the yellow fever poison is destroyed. Hence it follows that the remedy for infected ships is *refrigeration*, a cheap, thorough, and speedy work, and a complete relief from quarantine.

Cargoes of infected vessels should be landed, well aired, and then placed in warehouses built of granite or gneiss rock, with walls three feet thick, and there kept for forty-eight hours in an atmosphere of zero temperature; and thus purified, can be sent to any place without in the least endangering public health.

The vessel having discharged her cargo, can be cleansed by refrigeration in forty-eight hours.

If it is deemed necessary to refrigerate the outside as well as the inside of the vessel, the construction of a refrigerating dock is as easy and as practicable as the construction of a dry dock.

The expense of refrigeration will be very small, compared with the importance of the result.

The question therefore arises, *can frost, or a temperature which will produce frost, be obtained by artificial means?*

We have recently made a journey to the State of Ohio to examine a machine lately invented for the freezing of water, and thus producing ice by artificial means, and put in operation at the Cuyahoga Iron Works, an establishment at Cleveland in that State for the manufacture of locomotives.

The proprietor of the works, on my informing him of the object of my visit to his place was with a view of ascertaining if this machine could be made available for producing a cold atmosphere sufficiently frigid to be effectually used in disinfecting vessels, their cargoes, and the clothing of passengers and mariners coming from ports where yellow fever prevails as an epidemic, so that the New York Quarantine could be made efficient for the protection of public health, and at the same time facilitate commerce, he at once said he would put the machine in operation, and afford me an opportunity of forming my own opinion, as to its efficiency. The machine was harnessed to a steam engine and put in operation. In less

than an hour, the temperature of the atmosphere which was  $53^{\circ}$  above zero, was reduced to  $24^{\circ}$  below that line within the machine; being a change of seventy-eight degrees. I cut an apple in two pieces, and placed the pieces on the outside of the cast iron pipe, through which a current of ether was passing, and in a few minutes it was frozen hard. A small copper vessel was filled with water and placed on the outside of the metal pipe, and a cloth thrown over it; the water in a few minutes became solid ice. Water dropped on the pipe immediately congealed, forming solid ice. The brass fixtures to the machine in a short time became covered with a profuse white hoar frost. The whole machine, and the process of making ice is very simple. The frame-work which holds the cast iron freezers is a structure of a dozen or more feet square, having a double casing, with a space of one foot between, which is filled with pulverised charcoal. Inside of the inner casing are six rows of cast iron freezers, twelve in each row; they are twelve inches deep, twelve long, and six wide, with flanges of one inch; these flanges touch each other, resting on iron frames, and on these the freezers are suspended. The freezers are half an inch thick; thus a flue of one inch in width is produced, which is made to extend entirely around and underneath each freezer. From these flues the air is withdrawn by means of an air-pump, worked by steam power. When a perfect vacuum has been formed, a current of ether is made to pass and repass through the exhausted flues, until all the water in the freezers is converted into solid ice. This is the whole process—plain, simple, and yet very economical. Each freezer presents a surface of metal to the cold current of 504 inches; each cake of ice weighs thirty pounds; the machine producing a ton of ice at one operation. The freezers are capable of improvement. As the machine is now constructed heat must be passed through the flues to the ice, so it can be taken out, as the freezer must be removed every time a ton of ice is made, and then the flues will be disturbed. This can be avoided by having loose freezers inside, which will open like a bullet-mold, and discharge the ice the same as a leaden bullet is freed after being run. As many tons of ice may be made as there are molds to freeze the water. One steam-engine will work a vast number of machines or freezers at the same time.

Ice formed on ponds produced by natural cold is thin or thick in proportion to the depth of water under it.

Deep ponds have thin ice; shallow ponds thick ice. It will take twenty hours to form ice six inches in thickness by this machine; the less depth of water the sooner converted the ice.

It will readily be seen from my description, that it is by the application of the ether to the metal surface, forming the flue through which it is passing, that the freezing is produced; precisely like the exposure of a metal surface in a flue through which heat is passing, to produce ebullition or the heating of a fluid, or the melting of a solid, which requires at less than a boiling heat; the one freezing, the other boiling.

This machine is intended for making ice in tropical climates.

Take, for illustration, a room twenty feet square, having thick granite or gneiss rock walls and stone floors, with close shutting doors; place around it 400 feet of metal pipe, in the same way as would be done to heat it by steam; exhaust the air from these pipes, until a vacuum is produced, and then force a current of ether through and through the pipes, until the temperature of the room is reduced as much below zero as it is

desirable to produce the result required. The clothing of passengers and mariners from an infected vessel hung up for a couple of hours in the zero temperature of such a room, would be completely disinfected in an hour.

Stone warehouses can be constructed at Sandy Hook of granite or gneiss rock, with thick walls, by virtue of an act of Congress of 1799, into which the cargoes of infected vessels could be transferred, and there exposed to a cold atmosphere produced by artificial means, and in a few hours so thoroughly disinfected as to be fit to send to market at once for sale. The vessel, after having discharged her cargo, could be frosted, and thus disinfected. The expense of disinfecting cargoes would not equal one week's interest on the amount of its cost.

This simple and easy process, it would be seen, would at once relieve quarantine of all its delays and detentions, and thus facilitate commerce, and, at the same time, protect public health. During the summer, vessels have rode quarantine for months, exposed to storms, and infecting other vessels at anchor near them.

Fumigating, whitewashing, and all that kind of remedy, is altogether ineffectual to destroy yellow fever infections. Nature has clearly pointed out the means of destroying the infection, and that is, frost, or an atmosphere so cold as to produce it.

It is said by some that a breakwater is needed at Sandy Hook; if so, the General Government should build one. This is the port in which they collect a great portion of the revenue from commerce, and the breakwater is for the better protection of that commerce, in which the General Government have a direct pecuniary interest, in the amount of the duties, and a general interest beside in the increased security to life and property of the citizens of this Great Republic.

I have collected together the records of the sickness and deaths during the yellow fever visitations to New York since 1790, and those of Norfolk and Portsmouth in 1855. Some of these embrace all the details of the daily reports of physicians to the Board of Health in New York in 1819 and 1822, copied from the official records; these have been printed, and will be presented to the Legislature of the State of New York and New Jersey.

E. MERIAM.

BROOKLYN HEIGHTS, Dec., 1856.

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#### Art. IV.—"THE ALMIGHTY DOLLAR:" OR MONEY AS A MOTIVE OF ACTION.

AMONG pugilists, no possession is so highly prized as pugilistic skill; and among anglers, no fame is so envied as skill in angling. In the degree that persons of any given taste preponderate thus in any community, their taste becomes the standard by which all social pursuits are estimated in the given community. We need not wonder, therefore, that the United States is the Paradise of millionaires, money pursuits engrossing the activity of nearly all its inhabitants—among whom the possession of a hundred thousand dollars confers a dignity equal to a baronetcy in England. Five hundred thousand equals an earldom; a million makes a duke; and two millions a prince of the blood royal, with power to confer knighthood by

the investiture of merely a passing recognition. When such a man dies at eighty, the event is deemed an inscrutable dispensation, and his last will is published as a precious curiosity.

But we are not a fawning people—indeed thrift would not follow fawning, our money passion not permitting us to part from money for so unsubstantial an exchange. Money sways us by rather a kingly right divine, originating in the complacency we feel thereto, irrespective of any selfish expectation therefrom, just as a man's love of female beauty commands his complacency towards it, how evanescent soever may be his meeting therewith.

The power over us of money results from our political institutions, which preclude titular distinctions. We are like men debarred from champagne and ortolans, and who substitute coarser stimulants and grosser meats. Hence, a Crimean medal with which a British soldier can solace his wounds we so little understand, that our warriors, on hearing of such a recompense, would probably ask, naively, what metal the medal is composed of and its value in dollars. We understand no better the red or blue ribbon for which a British general deems a leg or an eye well lost; and when we read the memoirs of Cardinal De Retz, of France, we are mystified at the elaborate court intrigues he instituted, to procure from the Pope a white cloak wherewith to deck his shoulders.

SEC. 3. The money motive dictates what is lucrative to the actor, irrespective of its effects on other persons; while the honorary motive dictates what is reputable, irrespective of its effects on the actor. Hence, from its unselfishness, the honorary motive has always been deemed morally superior to the pecuniary. Miss Nightingale, in volunteering to nurse gratuitously the sick and wounded in the Crimea, is a good type of the honorary motive; while the Crimean contractor, who supplied the troops with medicine, arms, and ammunition, on terms the most advantageous to himself that could be procured, is a fair type of the money motive. The two motives may, however, be contrasted as to their relative social consequences—and this contrast has never been attempted, the consequences never having been fully known till they spontaneously developed themselves in the United States.

The two motives differ most fundamentally in the universality with which the money motive acts, giving to all persons in the United States the same impulse for activity; while the titular motive, the highest of the honorary, operates only on a comparatively small portion of any community. Nor is this quite all. The honorary motive, where it is prevalent, withdraws the elite of society from the ordinary utilitarian pursuits of life, and even relatively discredits them; while the money motive knows no distinction of employments but lucrative and unlucrative—and providentially the lucrateness of any occupation is usually commensurate with the magnitude and universality of its utility. The United States accordingly excels all nations in utilitarian instrumentalities—in the swiftness and tonnage of its navy—in commercial enterprise—in the invention of machinery to save labor, increase production, facilitate locomotion, expedite intelligence, diffuse information—and, generally, in restlessness of personal activity and disregard of personal ease and luxurious relaxation.

The next important difference between the honorary motive and the pecuniary, relates to the patrons which the motives respectively invoke.

"Patronized by her Majesty and all the aristocracy," is a common announcement in England, and accordingly whatever instrumentalities such patrons desire, the nation excels in—as palatial residences, splendid libraries, gorgeous equipages, furniture, statuary, paintings, apparel, retinue, &c.; while our patrons being every man who possess a dollar, we cater for the multitude, by magnificent taverns in every thoroughfare and magnificent steamboats on every river. In nothing is an American traveler more surprised than at the meagerness of board and lodging he finds at the best hotels of London or Paris, and at the shabbiness of steamboat accommodations in any part of Europe—the magnates of Europe not thus living and traveling in sufficient frequency to induce an adaptation of the means to aristocratic tastes. Our telegraphs, too, are for the multitude, and proportionably numerous, accessible, obliging, and cheap, ramifying also in every direction; while in Europe they are erected for only the government—or, at most, for a class—and hence, are stately in their regulations, limited to important points, few in number, and costly in their ministrations.

A like influence affects journalism in our country and in Europe. The newspapers there are designed for a part of the people, while ours are for all; consequently England, which possesses the most extensive newspaper circulation in Europe, issues not a hundredth part the newspapers that we issue.

The contrast exhibited by the United States and Canada results from the foregoing causes. In Canada, money pursuits are inferior in dignity to officialism—civil, ecclesiastical, military, and naval—consequently the toiling masses stagnate from conscious inferiority; from the sad feeling that Dr. Johnson designated as *scoundrelism*, and are active to only the degree necessitated by their animal wants. Population hardly keeps from diminution, and immigrants arrive there only to comprehend that the palsy which afflicted the land they left, afflicts Canada also, and to pass through it to the States, where they at once become vigorously active in a scramble for a common object.

SEC. 4. And now, if we turn from the effects on productions of our money motive to its effect on our people, we shall find that it nourishes personal independence and self-respect. In the published travels of a German prince, we learn that at Utica he hired a carriage whose driver said to him, "I understand you are the *man* who hired this coach; I am the *gentleman* who is to drive it." The anecdote is colored; but none of us feel any degradation from being hired, knowing that we give an equivalent for all we receive, and are only struggling in a given vocation for the object that engrosses all of us. The Romans required their lawyers by the personal homage of clients. The system exalted a few advocates into Ciceros, at an expense of debasing the multitude of litigants; while our pecuniary compensation saves clients from degradation, and only keeps advocacy on a level with other pursuits. The apostles of Christianity increased the reverence towards them of their disciples by "working with their own hands" for their subsistence; and some subsequent spiritual teachers entered into vows of perpetual poverty. Our reverence for the clergy we expend in pecuniary contributions, rather than in personal obsequiousness that leads to spiritual tyranny—money operating with us as a sort of safety-valve, by which we can "let off" any amount of steam

that is necessary to the tranquilizing of our feelings when unduly excited; and custom renders the operation as satisfactory to the donees as it is preservative of independent self-respect to the donors. In England, when military enthusiasm becomes rampant towards a Nelson or a Wellington, the multitude remove from his carriage the horses and substitute themselves; while in France, the population "bow down" and become the servants forever of a Bonaparte.

In these, or some other way, the honorary motive can consummate its intention by only relatively depressing the masses; while we, under the like effervescence of our feelings, give a Lafayette some townships of land, or the conqueror of Mexico some thousands of dollars, and the treasury depletion allays the tumult of our admiration, without derogating from any person's liberty or importance. But many people may judge that the best effect of the money motive is its tendency to peace, in contradistinction to the honorary motive, which tends to war. The French have stigmatized the English as a nation of shopkeepers, in contempt of the supposed occasional honorary sacrifices of England for the preservation of peace; but while this recognizes the money motive as operative in England, its effect is more pervading in the United States than in any other nation that ever existed.

SEC. 5. The money motive possesses, however, its disadvantages in contrast with the honorary. Our devotees of the fine arts are so infected by the prevailing influence of money that laurel crowns are disregarded; and our sculptors labor only on busts for those who will pay therefor, as shoemakers make shoes. Our painters design only portraits to order, as tailors make coats; while our authors expend their efforts in compiling and imitating, rather than in originating—in traveling over beaten paths instead of opening untried ones—in constructing elementary, class, and school books, and generally in producing the easy literature which is easily produced. But we exceed all people in coarse humor, (Brother Jonathans, Yankee Notions, Negro Minstrelsy, &c.,) and for the reason that it will pay for the time bestowed thereon. It evinces that we are not deficient in originality, but that slop-goods and furbished old cloths suit our market better than better articles that are "caviare to the million." The same cause operates with us disadvantageously to the clerical profession, whose pecuniary compensation being small, under our voluntary system, the profession rarely attracts to its ranks youth of much intellectual vigor, except when connected with a body too feeble for the masculine efforts of more wealth-procuring occupations; while in England, where lordly distinctions are open to the clergy, the profession has ever included men of the highest intellectual organization. The medical profession depends in England on the money motive as in this country; hence the profession is more alike in the two countries than the clerical, except that the medical is disadvantageously influenced among us by the money motive which repels from the profession to more lucrative employments the shrewdest intellects, though in no department of knowledge is shrewdness of intellect so advantageous as in medicine and surgery. The State of New York has abolished nearly all the lucrateness of the legal profession, and the youth who now become lawyers, are, as a class, especially in the interior of the State, much inferior, intellectually, to those who entered the profession formerly, when its lucrateness equalled the most favored pursuits. In no country so certainly as here will a deterioration of employees follow a diminution

of emolument, and thus we have banished from all our legislatures, national and State, nearly all the most intelligent of our citizens, for they can employ themselves more lucratively than in political stations.

But the worst aspect of the money motive is its tendency to a low state of morals. A sovereign's social position is but little influenced by the means that procured his elevation; so we overlook in a rich man the means by which he obtained his riches. Morality approves this where wealth is untainted with ill desert, but we make no marked difference in our conduct towards wealth, whatever may have been the vileness of its obtainment.

The Jews of Europe exemplify some of the results that the money motive is eliciting here. Being debarred by law or prejudice from obtaining titular honors, they seek riches as the highest permitted distinction, and naturally subordinate thereto much that the honorary motive rejects. What a loss to the world has been their eighteen centuries of debasement! if, as is affirmed, they are more intellectually acute than any other race—an affirmation they have, however, not verified here, where they suffer no legal disabilities, and are continually vanquished at their own game of pecuniary accumulation, though probably time enough has not elapsed to wean them from the petty traffic to which oppression originally crushed them, and to give their aspirations a higher aim.

Among the specific evils which the money motive is developing in our country is a corruption in legislation, if we may at all believe what is openly alleged of both Congress and our State Legislatures; so that private gain supersedes national honor, utility, and justice; while even the perpetuity of our confederacy seems secondary to the spoils which its wreck may supply to individuals. How long our electors will remain pure from the influence of money is doubtful. Votes are said to be now purchasable in some localities, especially Congressional votes, for in Congress the opportunity is great for corrupt gains, and the motive consequently large for admission thereto; hence, in some districts a canvass for Congressional representative is thought to be hopeless without a profuse employment of money, the victory being sure to the candidate who will expend the most, and who ordinarily is he who expects to make from the office the most in illegal gains; and thus the election seems to be decided on a principle that insures subsequent venality. A like evil is sadly apparent in our management of private corporations, and it ramifies through all fiducial positions. Our judiciary is believed to have, as yet, escaped the bad influences to which other establishments have yielded, though the economy we practice in the compensation of judges tends to turn from the bench the best organized intellects, and who generally are best also for the conception of duty, purity, and integrity.

I have thus stated the relative national value and tendency of the two motives which ordinarily govern society—the honorary and pecuniary; but I have said only enough to call attention to what has been hitherto overlooked. I believe the money motive to be, in the aggregate, more beneficial to the whole of mankind than the honorary; as witness our unexampled physical achievements, personal enjoyments, and national prosperity; and when our defects are perceived, the good sense and good intentions of our citizens are, I trust, sufficient to correct the evils of the money motive and enjoy the good unalloyed. Thus believing I have probed the defects with no faltering hand, not to rankle what is painful, but to lay bare what ought to be cured.

## Art. V.—HIGH PRICE OF CAPITAL AND LABOR.

THE high rate of interest, and corresponding high price for almost all products of labor, which we have had for some five or six years past, seem to most persons quite incompatible, and hence there are all manner of speculations offered as to the cause of such a state of things.

I have watched carefully for some communication from your financial correspondents which should furnish us with a solution of the enigma with which we are puzzled, but have as yet found none, nor do I often meet with business men who can give us any light upon the question, though it is one with which they, of all others, have to do, and ought to understand.

There are some, however, who, rising above theories which had their origin long since, and under quite different circumstances, view things as they are, and not as they are supposed to be. These persons say that the higher rate of interest is a necessity, growing out of the diminished value of gold, as determined by the amount of labor required for its production; and that while labor gets, in all its branches, an increased amount of that metal for a given service, the capitalist must bear his addition or starve. That the cost of living, or conducting any branch of business, has advanced since 1850 at least one-third, is a fact so notorious that I suppose no well-informed person pretends to deny it. What then must the capitalist do, but say that his capital, or the result of his past labor, must bring him eight instead of six per cent, and he gets eight per cent, all the laws to the contrary notwithstanding. If he purchases a good sound seven per cent stock like that of the Boston and Worcester Railroad, he does it at a price which will pay him eight per cent, and he is right. It is true that there are persons who will give par for six or even for five per cents; and in England sometimes par for three per cent consols. And they are right, because certainty is the first element with them, and such persons are sufficiently numerous to create a demand for all such securities, and thus keep up the price.

But we are dealing now with ordinary commercial paper, such as by its price, from day to day, determines the current rate of interest, or the price paid for the use of capital. On such paper, even the best of it, the rate is eight per cent at least, which is certainly one-third more than was formerly paid on the same paper.

Now, we say that the diminished value of gold, while the legal price is unchanged, has been the cause of all this. Let us suppose, that when the true relation between labor and the production of gold had been ascertained originally, it was, that to get one ounce of that metal into shape for use would require sixteen days labor of one man, while in the same time he could produce sixteen ounces of silver or sixteen bushels of wheat. Now, if after a series of years there should be new discoveries of the metal, or facilities for its production which should enable the same labor to produce twice as much as before, what would happen? Clearly, unless the government should so change the price as to conform to the diminished value, then the price (though not the value) of all other products of labor would rise. And is not that just what we see? Is it not just what we ought to expect? And if so, why is there so much *noise and confusion* about it.

When President Jackson and his Cabinet found that the production of gold did not keep pace with the consumption, and that the *value* had increased, he procured an act of Congress by which the price was increased, and the effect was legitimate. Now, we have precisely the same state of things, and by the same rule the price should be reduced. If not, then the price of all other products of labor, as a general rule, must be increased, and the rate of interest equally. Let this great, but simple truth be recognized, and our business men would once more be able to say with some certainty what a day might bring forth. The several State Governments, as well as the General Government, should then provide for the issue of bank bills which should truly represent and be based upon the pure commercial notes in the hands of the bankers, though measured by and redeemable in gold and silver, or their equivalents, at the will of the holder, either at the place of issue or the center of trade for each particular section, as is now done in New England. The amount of all such paper should not only be determined by, and known to the government, but such security should be taken of the banker, for the bills placed in his hands, that in case of his temporary failure to redeem them the holder could apply directly to the State.

There have been repeated attempts to secure the people against loss from non-redemption of bank bills, and the general laws of New York and Massachusetts are considered by some to be quite well adapted to that end. But the legislature, in both cases, have committed a grave error in requiring, or even permitting the banker to invest his live capital in government securities or real estate, which is to be immediately taken out of his hands to secure the redemption of bills which he loans or issues in exchange for commercial notes. This capital is just what he most needs to meet the redemption of the bills first issued, and which will, in all ordinary experience, return upon him in part before his notes fall due. We say, let his capital alone, after providing that it shall in all cases be held, first, to redeem the bills issued; and, instead of tying his hands and destroying his power, say to him, invest your capital in good commercial paper, together with the notes we put into your hands for circulation. Then, under ordinary circumstances, there will be no failures. But, to provide against the possibility of mismanagement or dishonesty, let the government take into its possession good productive property belonging to the banker, worth at a fair valuation double the amount of bills intrusted to him, with a bond conditional that for every dollar which he fails to redeem upon presentation, and which shall in such case be paid by the State Treasurer, he shall forfeit two dollars for the benefit of the government. With such a provision, and a preferred claim on the capital, no bank could afford to loan its funds on stocks or real estate speculations, but would be obliged to confine itself to loans on legitimate business paper, which its notes would represent and be based upon, as we before said. We should then have what we want; and that is a paper currency, varying in amount according to the business of the country, founded upon purely commercial transactions, but measured by and convertible into specie, as all paper ought to be, at maturity, unless otherwise provided and agreed. Such a currency would enable us to dispense with still more of our gold, on which we should save interest and loss, and at the same time enable our people to feel as they ought to do, that there never could be such a thing as loss, or even difficulty in the use of paper. When

we shall have such a currency, or one that approximates to it, is quite uncertain; for the first step towards it would involve the complete destruction of that class of banks which live by loaning their circulation, and that comprises so many, especially in the country, that there would be a deadly struggle before they would submit. But such a currency we shall have when the people understand their own true interests, and will send men to make laws who not only *know*, but are willing to *do*, what is right and just. Then this great country, which prospers in spite of what we do, will go on in its career as it has never yet done, and its resources be developed in a way such as the world has never yet seen. W.

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## Art. VI.—THE LAW MERCHANT.

### NUMBER VII.

#### INTEREST.

THE cases contained in the books, respecting the subject of interest, are very numerous and diverse; and many of them are complicated and anomalous. But there are a few general principles which govern the whole subject. These principles are very simple, just, and in the main very easy of application to the numerous questions that arise; so that one who understands them clearly, will not find it very difficult to determine what his rights and duties are in regard to any question concerning interest which may come up in the course of business. It is the object of this article to explain these principles.

Interest is a compensation for the use of money. Perhaps the most familiar instance of a claim to interest, is that on which the creditor is entitled to it because the debtor agreed to pay it. Cases of this sort are usually simple, and will not require much explanation here. But these are not the only, nor perhaps the most numerous class of instances. There are two ways in which interest may accrue. It may be paid under a voluntary obligation, as an agreed remuneration for a loan, or it may be paid compulsorily, as damages for the wrongful detention of money. The one is the case of compensation due by reason of a contract to pay it; and this contract may express or merely imply, as we shall afterwards see; the other is the case of compensation due, not by reason of any agreement, but simply by the obligation of a rule of law.

This distinction was very well illustrated in a law case that arose out of a wager upon a horse-race in the State of New York, a few years since.\* A Mr. Ruckman had joined with four others in contributing six hundred dollars each to a bet of three thousand dollars, which they deposited with Mr. Pitcher, the defendant, as a stakeholder, to await the result of a race between the horses "Lady Suffolk" and "Americus." The law of the State declares such wagers illegal, and provides that, in such a case, "the person depositing the money may sue for and recover the same." In this case, the horse upon which Mr. Ruckman and his friends staked their mo-

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\* Ruckman vs. Pitcher, 13 Barb., (N. Y.), 556.

ney having lost the race, Mr. Ruckman changed his mind about the bet, and wanted his money back again. "No," said the stakeholder, "it was a fair bet, and you lost it. Of course, you cannot have it back again." Whereupon, Mr. Ruckman brought an action against him under that statute to recover his stakes. Mr. Pitcher contested the claim hotly, and the litigation which ensued was prolonged for some ten years. At last, however, a verdict was rendered in favor of the plaintiff, and thereupon he claimed that he was entitled to have interest from the date of the commencement of the suit. As this was a very long period, the amount of interest involved was nearly as large as the original claim. Now, in this case there was no agreement to pay interest; there was not even any agreement to pay the principal; but the court decided that, although this was so, and moreover the statute, by authority of which the stake-money was reclaimed, merely authorized the recovery of "the same," saying nothing about interest, and therefore interest, as for the use of the money, could not be recovered, yet damages for the unjust detention of the money ought to be paid, the measure of those damages being the amount of interest which Mr. Ruckman might legally have received if he had loaned it during that time.

Ekins' case\* shows this too, for he recovered from the East India Company 12 per cent interest, when not only he had no agreement with them, but it would not have been lawful for them to agree to pay such a rate in England. Ekins' case was tried before Lord Chancellor Cowper in London, in 1717. It was in substance as follows:—

He had, some thirteen years previous, sent a ship to the East Indies; there the agent of the East India Company bought the ship and cargo from the commander, who, as the agent probably knew, had no power to sell them. There was some proof that the commander did this in treachery to the owner, Mr. Ekins, and that the agent who bought them, did so knowingly, and was thus a party to this fraud, though it seemed to have been done without the privity of the company, but yet for their benefit and profit.

Mr. Ekins brought this action against the company to recover the value of the ship and cargo. The jury found their value to have been about £3,600. Mr. Ekins' counsel insisted that he ought to have interest upon that sum for the thirteen years, and that the interest ought to be Indian interest. At that time, English interest was about 5 per cent; while Indian interest was about 12 per cent. After the defendants' objections were heard, the court said:—"If a man has my money by way of loan, he ought to answer interest; but if he detains my money from me wrongfully, he ought, *a fortiori*, to answer interest. And it is still stronger, where one by wrong takes from me either my money, or my goods which I am trading with, in order to turn them into money. Therefore, let the defendants pay interest, and this being transacted in the *Indies*, where the person who acted by authority under them, and for their use, must be presumed to have made the common advantage that money yields there, the company must answer the interest of that country; but in consideration this money is now to be paid *here*, the charge of returning it from the *Indies* ought to be deducted."

As we shall more fully see, when we come to consider the cases in which

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\* Ekins vs. the East India Company, 1 P. W., 396; 2 Bro. P. C., 72.

a creditor is entitled to interest, this principle of computing damages in the way of interest is applied to a great variety of instances, both of withholding another's money directly, by refusing to pay it over, or indirectly, by neglecting to account for it, or wrongfully using it.

Interest, therefore, may become due under a contract or as damages. Now, nothing is more common than that a case of interest should depend upon both of these two points. A case very frequently arises where the creditor may claim interest for one portion of the period, during which a debt has been due, because it was agreed for, and for the remaining portion of the period, not because it was agreed for then at all, but as damages. If a man makes his note in Boston on the 1st of January, 1855, for \$100, payable in one year, with interest, the meaning of that promise is that he would, in January, 1856, pay \$106. This is no agreement to pay \$112 in 1857. Still, if he does not pay his note till it has been overdue for a year, he will have to pay interest for that year as damages, for neglecting to pay as he agreed.

This distinction is an important one, although not always well understood. The case of *Watkins vs. Morgan*, which was decided in 1834, at Westminster Hall, by the Court of King's Bench in England, shows this. It appeared, upon the trial, that on the 15th day of June, 1832, Morgan had given Mr. Watkins his bond for the payment of "£270, with lawful interest, on the 15th day of December then next following." When the day of payment came Morgan made default; and after waiting a year and a half in vain in the hope of a payment, Watkins brought this action to recover it.

The reader who understands the distinction here illustrated, will now perceive that Mr. Watkins' claim consisted of three elements:—

1. The amount of the principal, £270.
2. The six months' interest which Morgan had agreed to pay, £6 15s.
3. The eighteen months' interest which the agreement had not contemplated, but which he was bound to pay as damages, £23 5s.

Mr. Watkins' lawyer, however, did not understand the distinction between the second and third grounds of the claim; and in his declaration, which is the name given to the paper in which the plaintiff "declares" his cause of action against the defendant, after describing the bond, and stating that Morgan failed to pay it, he claimed on behalf of the plaintiff, that in consequence "there was due and owing from the defendant to the plaintiff, on account of the said sum of £270 and interest, the sum of £300, for which he brought his action." The declaration further claimed £10 damages for the injury sustained by the plaintiff by the defendant's neglect to fulfill his agreement.

On the trial, the lawyer stated to the jury that he sought to recover the sum of £300, being the principal sum and interest up to the time of the suit. "No," said the judge, "I cannot allow a verdict to be taken for that amount. The contract in the bond was simply to pay £270, with six months' interest. That amounts only to £276 15s. That is all the interest you can recover."

The lawyer urged that the plaintiff was entitled to interest for the remaining time as damages.

"Very well," said the judge, "but you cannot recover more than you claim in your declaration. Your declaration claims only £10 as damages. You cannot recover more than that."

As there was no defense, a verdict was given for the £276 15s., debt and interest, and £10 damages. The plaintiff thus lost £13 5s. from his judgment, by reason of his attorney's not understanding that interest agreed to be paid is one thing, and damages calculated by way of interest another and a very different thing.

OF THE RATES OF INTEREST.

It is obvious that it is necessary for the law to fix upon a rate of interest, both where interest is agreed for, but no rate specified in the agreement, and where interest is recoverable as damages. In addition to this, most governments pursue the policy of limiting the rate of interest which may be agreed for. This limit is set at a percentage which the law adopts as a reasonable compensation for the use of capital. The operation of the rule limiting the rate of interest will be considered more particularly under the head of *USURY*. It is spoken of here for the purpose of pointing out that the rate which the law supplies in the absence of an agreement is not necessarily the same as the rate beyond which it declares agreements shall not go.

As might be expected, in different communities a different standard will be fixed, because differences in the supplies of capital and of labor, and other elements of commercial operations, affect largely the value as well as the risk of loans. In the case of interest recovered by way of damages, one would think it to be more just to fix a rate for each case as it arises, according to the circumstances which may have made the use of the principal valuable to one party, or its detention inconvenient and harrassing to the other. To attempt this, however, would involve endless perplexity, by raising every question of interest as a fresh one, and thus attaching to many an easily-adjusted contest for the principal a complicated controversy about the rate of interest.

When a contract is made, or a liability incurred, in one State, and the creditor attempts to enforce in another State, the question often arises as to which law is to govern the case. Contracts are to be construed in this respect upon the same rules as they are in all other respects. The rule is this:—the case is to be governed by the laws of the place where the contract was entered into, unless the contract was to be performed, or the property which it respected was situated, in a different State, in which case the law of the latter State should govern.

*Bodily vs. Belamy*\* was an action brought in England upon a bond given at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by Mr. Belamy to the plaintiff. When the bond was given, both parties resided in Calcutta; but when this suit was brought, the defendant was in England. It appeared upon the trial that the allowed rate of interest in Calcutta was 9 per cent, which was the rate payable according to the condition of the bond. The rate of interest in England was 5 per cent. Lord Mansfield, before whom the case came, decided that interest ought to be calculated upon the bond at the rate of 9 per cent until the entry of judgment, from that time till the actual payment of the money at the rate of 5 per cent upon the amount of the judgment, for from that time the defendant owed no longer the bond but the judgment. The bond was an Indian obligation, and should bear

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\* 2 Burr, 1094.

Indian interest; but the judgment, which absolved the bond, was an English obligation, and ought to bear only English interest.

In 1818, Consequa, a native merchant of Canton, in China, brought a suit in equity\* against a New York firm, claiming to recover the amount of various consignments of teas, &c., and of promissory notes given upon various accounts of such consignments, amounting in all to over a hundred and fifty thousand dollars. A very large item in this sum was interest, which the plaintiff calculated, according to the Chinese rate, at 12 per cent. In deciding this case the chancellor said, in reply to the defendant's objection that interest should be calculated at the lawful rate in this State:—"It is an acknowledged rule that interest must be paid according to the law of the country where the debt was contracted and is to be paid, and not where it is sued."

Where a contract is made with a view to performing it in another State, and no rate of interest is fixed, it is to bear interest according to the law of the place set for the performance. For instance, in one case,† a firm, doing business in Montreal, Canada, made a promissory note to an English firm, payable to them or their order, "with interest until paid in England," and this note, not having been paid at maturity, was sued upon in the State of New York. Here the law of the place where the contract was made gave 6 per cent interest; the law of the place where the contract was to be formed gave only 5 per cent; while the law of the place where it was attempted to be enforced gave 7 per cent. The court decided that the plaintiffs could recover only 5 per cent, England being the place where the contract was to have been performed.

There is, however, an important qualification to this rule. Where a loan or debt is secured by real estate, a new element is introduced, and in such case respect will be had to the law of the place where the real estate is situated. This will be done, too, even though the parties resided, the contract was made, and was to be performed, in another State. The reason of this qualification arises from the principle that while the persons are to be governed by the law of the place where they act, or contemplate acting, real property must be governed by the law of its locality. The case of Chapman *vs.* Robertson will serve to illustrate this.‡ Mr. Robertson, who was a resident of New York, owned a lot of land in the city of Hudson, in that State. Being in England in the summer of 1833, he applied to Mr. Chapman, who resided there, for a loan. Mr. Chapman agreed to loan him £800, upon condition that Robertson, upon his return to this State, should make a bond and mortgage on his lot to secure the debt and 7 per cent interest, have the mortgage recorded, and send them to England. The securities were accordingly executed and sent to Mr. Chapman, who, upon receiving them, paid the money to Mr. Robertson's bankers, according to the arrangement. Mr. Robertson refused to pay the mortgage when it became due, insisting that inasmuch as the original agreement was made in England, and the money received there, the contract to pay more than 5 per cent rendered the bond and mortgage usurious. The chancellor said, in deciding the case, that it presented a very nice question, arising out of the conflict of laws in this State and Eng-

\* Consequa *vs.* Fanning, 3 Johns. Ch. R., 587.

\* Scofield *vs.* Day, 20 Johns. R., 102.

‡ 6 Paige, 627.

land, relative to the legal rate of interest. He said that if Mr. Robertson's bond had been the only security his defense would have been good, because, as no place of payment was mentioned, the legal construction of the contract was that the money was to be paid to Mr. Chapman where he resided. "It is an established principle," said the chancellor, "that the construction and validity of a contract, which is purely personal, depends upon the laws of the place where the contract was made, unless it was made in reference to the laws of some other place or country, where, in the contemplation of the parties, it was to be carried into effect. On the other hand, it appears to be equally well settled by the laws of every country that the transfer of lands, or the creation of any interest in, or lien or incumbrance upon, lands, must be made according to the local law of the place where the lands are situated." The court accordingly made a decree in Mr. Chapman's favor.

In all such cases, however, as will appear more fully when we come to consider *USURY*, the contract to be upheld should be honestly made, and not a contrivance to make the law of one place a mere cover to an evasion of the law of another.

If the rate of interest has been changed since the liability upon which interest is claimed was incurred, the interest must be calculated according to the law previously existing.

The question has arisen, where interest was due for a long time at a low rate under an agreement, and the agreement being broken, it became due after that time as damages, whether the debtor was bound to pay damages at the full legal rate, or only at the rate stipulated in the contract?

A case which occurred in South Carolina a number of years ago will serve to illustrate this.

Mr. John Gaillard was appointed as a trustee for receiving some legacies, which had been bequeathed to certain children, to keep for them until they became of age. When the money was put into his hands he gave a bond, that when each child became of age he would pay to him or her the proportion of the legacies assigned to them, and that meanwhile he would pay 4 per cent interest. One of the children having become of age, Mr. John Gaillard failed to pay the amount due according to his contract in the bond. He meantime died, having appointed Mr. Theodore Gaillard his executor. Mr. Ball, the person whose legacy was unpaid, applied to the executor for its payment, and demanded interest, at the rate of 7 per cent, since the time when it ought to have been paid over according to the undertaking of Mr. John Gaillard. The executor admitted that the principal was due, but he said that only 4 per cent interest could be claimed, and he refused to pay any more than that. Mr. Ball then brought a suit against him, to compel him to pay 7 per cent interest from the time he came of age. The reader who understands the distinction between the two grounds of claim to interest will anticipate the decision. This suit was successful. The court decided that the agreement to take 4 per cent expired at the time when the money ought to have been paid. "The law which the parties had made for themselves having ended at that time, the contract was governed by the law of the land afterwards."

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LIENS UNDER GENERAL MARITIME LAW OF THE UNITED STATES—JURISDICTION OF OUR COURTS.

In United States District Court, (Missouri.) In Admiralty—September adjourned term, 1856. Decision of Judge Wells:—

In this case certain of the libelants had liens under the general maritime law of the United States, and others had liens under the statute of Missouri, entitled "an act concerning boats and vessels," (Digest laws of Missouri, 1845, page 180.) Those having liens under the general maritime law furnished supplies in Cincinnati, Ohio, where they resided at the time, and whilst the boat was owned in Missouri; others resided in Missouri, and furnished supplies whilst the boat was owned in Ohio.

Those having liens under the State law resided in Missouri, and furnished the supplies there, the boat at that time being also owned in Missouri.

After the supplies were furnished, the boat was sold under the provisions of the above-cited statute of Missouri; and the question now raised for the consideration of the Court is, were these material men divested of their several liens by not intervening in the State Court, or by the proceedings in the State Court? It is a question of delicacy, as the decision of it may conflict with State laws; but I am compelled to decide it.

The provisions of the statute of Missouri make no distinction in terms between vessels owned by citizens or subjects of foreign nations, or citizens of other States of the Union, and those owned by citizens of Missouri.

They apply to "every boat or vessel navigating the waters of this State;" see the act, section 1, and to "contracts made within this State with boats used in navigating the waters of this State." See the case of *James*, respondent, *vs.* the steamboat *Pawnee*, 19 Missouri Rep., 517.

If I understand correctly the language of Judge Story, he entertained the opinion that similar provisions in the statutes of the State of New York, could not properly be construed to apply to any but domestic boats or vessels—that is, those owned in New York. (The bark *Chusan*, 2 Story's Reps., 461-2.) But the Supreme Court of Missouri makes no distinction between foreign and domestic vessels. (*James vs. the Pawnee*, *supra*.)

The case now under consideration differs from that of the "*Henrietta*," decided by this Court at the March term, 1856. In that case the boat was owned in Missouri, and the supplies were furnished in Illinois. I held that the case did not come within the provisions of the steamboat law of Missouri, because the vessel was not, at the time the contract was made for the supplies, "navigating the waters of this State;" nor was the contract made or supplies furnished "within this State," and, therefore, the lien, obtained in Illinois under the general maritime law, was not divested by the sale in Missouri. But much of the reasoning in that case is applicable to this case, and will not be here repeated.

Is the admiralty and maritime jurisdiction *in rem.* exclusively in the United States Courts? When I wrote the opinion in the case of the *Henrietta*, I had never known it questioned; but in a recent decision by the Supreme Court of Ohio, it is questioned and denied. (See *Thompson vs. steamer G. D. Morton*, 2 *Warden's Ohio State Reports*, 26.) That Court appears to think that the provisions of the 9th section of the judiciary act of Congress makes the jurisdiction of the District Courts exclusive only as relates to the Circuit Courts of the United States. In that opinion I cannot concur.

The 9th section of the judiciary act (1789) declares that the District Courts of the United States shall have, in certain cases specified—1st. Jurisdiction (or cognizance) exclusive of the Courts of the several States. 2d. In other cases, jurisdiction concurrent with the Courts of the several States, or the Circuit Courts

of the United States, as the case may be. 3d. And in other cases, exclusive original cognizance, without mentioning any other Courts, either Federal or State; and this last includes all civil causes of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, including certain seizures on water, "saving to suitors, in all cases, a common law remedy, where the common law is competent to give it;" and a like cognizance in other cases of seizure, without any saving.

In the first class of cases, as I have arranged them, the jurisdiction is not declared to be exclusive, except as to the State Courts; and there is, therefore, an implied exception as to the jurisdiction of the Circuit Courts of the United States.

In the second class, the grant is not declared to be exclusive, but concurrent, and the jurisdiction both of the Courts of the several States and the Circuit Courts of the United States is excepted.

In the third class there is no exception of the exclusiveness as to either the Courts of the several States or the Circuit Courts of the United States, except as to the common law remedy in the first branch of that class, and without that exception as to the other branch.

So that, in the third class, which includes the admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, there is no exception, except that of the common law remedy, as to the exclusiveness of the original jurisdiction in the District Courts. It is absolute, unconditional, and exclusive. But the grant of exclusive *original* jurisdiction to the District Courts does not exclude the *appellate* jurisdiction of the Circuit Courts, which is also provided for in the 21st section of the same act. This seems to me conclusive.

Again; as to all other matters mentioned in the third class, there never has been any doubt as to the jurisdiction being exclusive as to the State Courts. Why, then, is it not exclusive as to the admiralty and maritime jurisdiction? The same language is used as to all.

The Supreme Court of the United States, (Judge Marshall delivering the opinion,) in the case of *Slocum vs. Mayberry*, 2 Whea. R., 9, expressly decided that the jurisdiction of the United States Courts, as to seizures on land and water, is exclusive of the Courts of the several States; this is embraced in the second branch of the third class above. In the case of *Galston vs. Hoyt*, (3 Whea. R., 246,) the question in the Supreme Court of the United States is put beyond all dispute. The Court is discussing the question of the exclusive jurisdiction of the United States Courts as it regards the State Courts, and declares that "by the judiciary act of 1789; ch. 20, sec. 9, the District Courts are invested with exclusive original cognizance of all civil causes of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, and of all seizures on land and water, and of all suits for penalties and forfeitures incurred under the laws of the United States."

Similar phraseology is used in the 11th section of the judiciary act, which gives the Circuit Court "exclusive cognizance of all crimes and offenses cognizable under the authority of the United States, except where this act otherwise provides, or the laws of the United States shall otherwise direct"—without mentioning the State Courts; yet no one has ever doubted that the jurisdiction here given was exclusive of the State Courts. See also 1st Conklin's Ad., 349.

The opinion (excepting so much as regards the effect of the 9th section of the judiciary act) given by the Supreme Court of the State of Ohio in the case above cited, and the opinion expressed by that Court in the case of *Keating vs. Spaik*, (3 Warden & Smith's Ohio Rep.) do not apply to the case I am considering, although they deny exclusive jurisdiction *in rem.* to the United States Courts in admiralty causes. The cases in which those opinions were delivered arose and had to be decided under the act of Congress of the 26th February, 1845, (5 Lit. and B., 726,) which applies only to the lakes and their connecting rivers, and which not only saves the common law remedy, but also "any concurrent remedy which may be given by the State laws."

1st. Let us now see how the matter stands. The Courts of the United States have cognizance of all civil causes of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, and

have it exclusive of the Courts of the several States, except as to the common law remedy.

2d. This is a civil cause of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction.

3d. The libellant has a lien given by the general maritime law of the United States; it is as much a vested right as that of a mortgage. It is a contract which the Legislature of a State can pass no law to impair. (*Bronson vs. Kinzie*, 1 How. R., 311.)

4th. The party having this lien is entitled to sue in the United States Court, in admiralty, to enforce it. This right is given by the laws of the United States.

5th. The laws of the United States are supreme over State laws.

6th. A State law comes in and declares that the party having this lien shall either sue in the State Courts, under the "act concerning boats and vessels," or lose his lien.

Can it be possible such State law is valid? The United States law and the State law cannot both be enforced. The first gives the party a right to sue in United States Courts, and there to establish his claim and obtain the enforcement of his lien; the second declares that if he does not sue in the State Court—that is, if he sues in the United States Court, he shall get nothing.

I refer to the case of *Shelby vs. Bacon, et al.*, (9 How. R., 69, 70, 71.) to show that where a person has a right to sue in the Courts of the United States, no State law, and the proceedings of no State tribunal, can deprive him of that right. It is substantially as follows:—The Bank of the United States, after obtaining a charter from the State of Pennsylvania, failed. It made assignments of its assets under the laws of that State. The assignees, according to those laws, were to receive and collect the assets, and allow debts and pay creditors; all under the control and jurisdiction of the Court of Common Pleas of that State. If creditors did not exhibit their claims and get them allowed, they obtained no part of the assets of the bank.

A creditor who resided in Kentucky brought suit in the Circuit Court of the United States. The assigness pleaded to the jurisdiction of the Court. The case went to the Supreme Court of the United States. That Court held that the plaintiff, as a citizen of another State, had a right to sue in the Courts of the United States, and the State law could not deprive him of that right. The Court says:—"To establish this claim as against the assignees, the complainant has a right to sue in the Circuit Court, (of the United States,) which was established chiefly for the benefit of non-residents." "On the most liberal construction, favorable to the exercise of the special jurisdiction, the rights of the plaintiff, in this respect, could not, against his consent, be drawn into it." "Citizens residing, perhaps, in a majority of the States of the Union, are debtors or creditors of the bank. It is difficult to perceive by what mode of procedure the State of Pennsylvania can obtain and exercise an exclusive jurisdiction over the rights of persons thus situated."

It appear to me that if a person, having a lien under the general maritime law, cannot resort to this Court—a Court of exclusive jurisdiction in admiralty cases—because of the provisions of the State laws and proceedings under them, then the whole subject is reversed, and the State Courts have the exclusive jurisdiction; and in that way the entire jurisdiction, in all cases, of the Courts of the United States might be absorbed by the State Courts. I am speaking of the effect of such laws, not of the motives or intentions of the Legislature in passing them; for, to do the Legislature of Missouri justice, the steamboat laws were enacted some sixteen years before it was understood that the United States Courts had jurisdiction of cases arising out of our inland navigation upon the public rivers of the United States.

The act of Congress, section 9, above referred to, saves to suitors the right of a common law remedy, when the common law is competent to give it. It is a *common law remedy*, as distinguished from a remedy in the Admiralty or in Chancery.

This common law remedy existed before the constitution and act of 1789, and is, by the latter, *saved*, not *given*. (2 *Brown's Civil and Admiralty Law*, 111, 112.)

But a common law *remedy* is a remedy by *action* at common law, and is not a proceeding *in rem.*, or against the vessel itself. (*Ibid.*, and note, 53 to page 111.)

Courts of common law do not proceed *in rem.* (*Percival vs. Hickey*, 18 Johns. R., 292; *Waring vs. Clarke*, 5 How. R., 461; *Clarke vs. New Jersey Steam Navigation Company*, 1 Story's R., 538-9; 1 Kent's Com., 378, 2d edition.) Opinion of Mr. Justice Catron in *Waring vs. Clarke*, *supra.*, and therefore a proceeding *in rem.* cannot be a common law remedy.

The common law is competent to give a remedy in many cases which are cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction. Thus a metrical man may proceed in admiralty either against the vessel *in rem.*, or against the owners *in personam*, or against the master *in personam*. He has also his remedy at common law, which would be an action of debt or assumpsit against the owners, or a like action against the master for the value of the supplies furnished.

In some, if not all cases of collision, where a party injured could maintain a suit *in rem.* in the admiralty, he could also maintain an *action of trespass* at common law. (*Percival vs. Hickey*, *supra.*)

So an action of trover will lie in many cases of a wrongful dispossession of vessels, although there is a remedy also in the admiralty.

Why are suitors, not suing in the admiralty but in the State Courts, limited to a common law remedy, and are not authorized to proceed *in rem.*?

The proceedings against ships and vessels affect the citizens and subjects of foreign nations, as well as the citizens of the several States; and it is important that the principles and rules for determining rights and injuries, and the courts to administer them, should be those known to the law of nations; and those principles and rules should be uniform throughout the United States—so also of the remedies.

If the courts and officers, including justices of the peace and constables, of the several States can proceed *in rem.* against the vessels of other States, so they can against foreign ships and vessels, and thus ships would be seized, voyages would be broken up, the United States involved in difficulties and reclamations with foreign nations; a multiplicity of laws, rules, and proceedings, contradictory and inconsistent with each other, in the several States, be introduced; and thus the exclusive right and jurisdiction of the United States over our foreign relations, and over the commerce and navigation of the United States, both foreign and domestic, would be interfered with and rendered impracticable. And the States themselves would soon get into conflicts of jurisdiction and laws, and resort to laws retaliatory and vexatious upon the shipping of each other, as was the case before the adoption of the federal constitution.

It must be remembered also, that the navigable rivers of the United States are not the exclusive property of any State or States, but are common to all. (*Benedict's Ad.*, 114.) And that vessels navigating those rivers are enrolled and licensed by the United States, and that such license imports full power and authority to navigate them; and no other authority is necessary.

In relation to the authority of the United States Courts and the State Courts in admiralty cases, see the *Spartan*, (*Wares' Reps.*, 147.) *Certain logs of mahogany*, (*2 Sumner's Reps.*, 592.) *Wall vs. the Royal Saxon*, (*2 American Law Register*, 324.) (*1 Haggart's Ad. R.*, 298.) *The Flora vs. the Globe*, (*American Law Journal* for February, 1851.)

I do not find any reported case in which is satisfactorily discussed and decided the question how far, under the 9th section of the judiciary act, the Courts of the several States have jurisdiction to proceed *in rem.* against ships and other vessels enrolled or registered and licensed under the laws of the United States. I find cases decided, which arose under the act of 1845, extending a quasi admiralty jurisdiction to the lakes and their connecting rivers; which are, as already shown, not applicable to the commerce and navigation on other rivers. Some other cases speak of a concurrent remedy at common law, and say that the jurisdiction of the Courts of the United States is not exclusive.

This is all true, because the common law remedies are saved; but they do not

discuss the legality of a proceeding in the State Courts *in rem.*, and how far it is affected by the 9th section of the judiciary act.

It was said in the case of the ship *Robert Fulton*, (1 Payne's Rep., 420.) that under the law of New York, a somewhat similar statute to that of Missouri, the State Courts proceed *in rem.*, and have a concurrent jurisdiction. After a most careful and, I may say, laborious investigation of the subject, I cannot discover on what principle that opinion can be maintained. The Court merely says:—"That the State tribunals had authority also to enforce the lien (given by the statute of New York) in the present case, is very certain, from the express provisions of the law (of New York.) There was, then, a concurrent jurisdiction in the two Courts, and the proceedings under the State authority were, in the nature of proceedings, *in rem.*"

Now, with the greatest respect for the opinions of the learned judge who delivered the above opinion, it appears to me that the concurrent jurisdiction *in rem.* of the United States and State Courts cannot depend on the statutes of the State, but on those of the United States.

Let us examine carefully and critically the language used in the Constitution of the United States, and also that used in the 9th section of the judiciary act. It will aid us in the investigation.

The Constitution declares that "the judicial power shall extend to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction." The 9th section of the act declares that "the District Court of the United States shall have exclusive original cognizance of all civil causes of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction." "Saving to suitors, in all cases, the right of a common law remedy where the common law is competent to give it."

It has been said that, perhaps, there has never been in the United States a law more carefully and ably digested than that of 1789. In this opinion I fully concur. It has remained almost untouched for sixty-seven years. It originated in the Senate, which then possessed men of eminent ability, several of whom were distinguished members of the Federal Convention. Oliver Ellsworth, afterwards Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, was chairman of the committee to whom the subject was referred, and who is said to have prepared the bill.

Observe, the only exception to the *exclusive cognizance* is, *not* a remedy in the common law Courts, but a common law remedy. The remedy is to be the *common law remedy*, no matter in what State Court it may be sought, or what may be the system under which the court may proceed. There is also a qualification of this saving of a common law remedy. It can be only in a case "where the common law is competent to give it." This qualification was doubtless intended to cut off new remedies which might be devised, but which were unknown to the common law. For, if the common law was not competent to give the remedy sought, then the party could not resort to any other, but must sue in the United States Court in Admiralty. A suitor cannot therefore say "a common law remedy is saved to me, and if there be none to effect my object, (the seizure of a vessel.) I can use any the Legislature may have devised for my case."

What, then, is the common law remedy spoken of in the 9th section? In my judgment, it can be only common law *actions*—actions of debt, assumpsit, case, trespass, trover, &c., as known and practiced at the common law. Such are the only common law remedies then, or indeed now known; and these, in many cases, are proper remedies, and such as the common law is competent to give. But a proceeding by bill in equity is unknown as a common law remedy, and a proceeding *in rem.* is unknown as a common law remedy. What lawyer ever knew or heard of a proceeding *in rem.* as a common law remedy? Even the actions of detinue and replevin have in them nothing of the nature of proceedings *in rem.* Each requires a plaintiff and defendant who are *persons*, and the judgments bind no one but parties and privies. True, a proceeding *in rem.* may be used in common law courts of the States, but in all such cases it is given by *statute*, or is a proceeding under the *civil law*. And the fact that it is given by statute, and did

not exist before the statute which gave it, in States where the common law prevails, shows that it had no existence as a remedy at the common law. I do not speak of modifications and improvements of actions at common law, which may doubtless be made by the Legislature, and still be within the meaning of the 9th section, but the proceeding *in rem.* is given originally and entirely by statutes, where it exists in common law courts, and is not merely modified and improved.

When a court has jurisdiction to proceed *in rem.*, and does so proceed, its judgments are binding and conclusive on the whole world, and this is so whether the tribunal be foreign or domestic. *The Mary*, (9 Cra's R., 126.)

Not so with judgments at common law; they bind only parties and privies.

If the State Courts can have jurisdiction in admiralty cases conferred on them by State statutes to proceed *in rem.*, so they can to proceed in equity, and this would constitute them, to all intents and purposes, Courts of Admiralty; and this jurisdiction can be, and in many cases is, given by the State laws to justices of the peace and to constables, as their ministerial officers. If there is an average of fifty counties to each State, and twenty justices of the peace to each county, we should then have in these United States thirty-one thousand Courts of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, to say nothing of the Courts of Record. These courts, proceeding against and seizing and selling vessels of foreign nations, and those of sister States, and although they would have all the powers of Courts of Admiralty, yet they would, in but few instances, proceed according to the maritime law, which is part of the law of nations, nor according to acts of Congress, (for Congress can pass no law regulating proceedings in the State Courts,) but they would proceed according to the statutes of the several States, and usages that would there prevail—each State having a different system. The effect of this must be, it appears to me, to embroil the United States with foreign nations, and the several States with each other, and to produce retaliatory laws and proceedings, and endless conflict, uncertainty, and mischief. And this, I repeat, would render nugatory the provisions of the 9th section of the judiciary act of 1789, and the power of Congress to regulate commerce (and navigation as incident thereto) with foreign nations and among the several States. If I am right in the views above expressed, there can be no concurrent jurisdiction *in rem.* in admiralty cases between the United States Courts and the Courts of the several States.

I do not, however, consider the proceeding in the State Courts of Missouri against boats and vessels as strictly a proceeding *in rem.* It is, it appears to me, a proceeding devised for suing the owners; but instead of using the name of the owner it uses that of the boat. In some cases, arising under the act, a judgment is rendered against the boat for the demand of the plaintiff only, execution thereupon issues, and only enough is collected to pay the plaintiff's judgment and costs, and there is consequently nothing to distribute among other creditors or claimants. In no case can creditors, material men, and others, although having valid liens, intervene and have their claims adjudicated and get any part of the proceeds, unless the contract for supplies, &c., was made within this State, and the boat at the time navigating this State. (*James vs. the Pawnee*, 19 Mo. R., 517.) So I presume it would be as to the other contracts, and as to injuries specified in the act. Such proceedings do not look much like proceedings in admiralty, or proceedings *in rem.* See the opinion of this Court in the case of the *Henrietta*.

Be this as it may, I could not give to those proceedings the effect which is given to proceedings strictly *in rem.*

I am, therefore, of opinion that the material man who has a lien under the general maritime law of the United States, has a right to enforce that lien by a suit in the United States Court; and that the State law and proceedings under it, given in evidence in this case, do not deprive him of that right. (The bark *Chusan*, 2 Story's Rep., 462; certain logs of mahogany, 2 Sum. R., 592.) But how is it with the material man who has no lien under the general maritime law, but has a lien under the State law?

The subject is not without its difficulties; but I think that as the lien is given

by the State law, the State law must divest it. If he *takes* under the State law he must *hold* under the State law. He takes his lien subject to all the provisions for divesting it contained in State laws passed anterior to his lien. He takes it *cum onere*, (*Bronson vs. Kenzie* and another, 1 How. R., 311; the bark *Chusan*, 2 Story's R., 462.) The statute which gives the lien—and which is the only law which gives him a lien—provides for certain judicial proceedings by which the vessel may be sold and the lien divested. The 13th section of the "act concerning boats and vessels," (*Dig. Laws of Mo., 1845, p. 183.*) declares that "when any boat or vessel shall be sold under the 11th section of this act, the officer making the sale shall execute to the purchaser a bill of sale therefor, and such boat or vessel shall, in the hands of the purchaser and his assigns, be free and discharged from all previous liens and claims under this act."

What the law gave, the law hath taken away. The libellant cannot complain, his lien is divested by the same same law and the same authority which gave it.

DRAFT DRAWN ON HOUSE IN SAN FRANCISCO "PAYABLE IN GOLD DUST."

In Superior Court, (New York city,) October 13th, 1856. *Ambrose Lanfear vs. Albert Priest.*

In October, 1850, Albert Priest, of the city of New York, executed a draft for five thousand dollars upon Henry M. Nagler, of San Francisco, payable to the order of Ward & Price, bankers in New York. Inserted in the draft were these words: "Payable in gold dust, at sixteen dollars per ounce." Immediately upon receiving it, Ward & Price transferred the draft, by indorsement, to Ambrose Lanfear, a banker in New Orleans, who forwarded it to his agents in San Francisco, who presented it for acceptance, and it was accepted. Subsequently it was protested for non-payment, and, after protest, was returned to Mr. Lanfear.

The indorsers of the draft, Ward & Price, after it was protested and returned to Mr. Lanfear, visited San Francisco, where they remained for a considerable length of time. Mr. Priest's agents in California were the Messrs. McAllister, who made two payments to Mr. Ward upon the draft on behalf of Mr. Priest, amounting to a little more than three thousand dollars. These payments were transmitted by Mr. Ward to Mr. Lanfear. Neither Ward & Price, or either of them, were the authorized agents of Mr. Lanfear to collect or receive money on the draft.

In the latter part of 1851 Mr. Ward left San Francisco for the mines. Previous to his departure, he called upon McAllister, and informed him that Mr. Lanfear was owner and holder of the draft, and requested him to forward the balance due thereon to him (Lanfear) at New Orleans, which McAllister agreed to do.

Some days later, however, the balance was paid by Mr. McAllister to Mr. Price, (of the firm of Ward & Price,) who retained the money, and it never reached Mr. Lanfear. Lanfear brought his action against Mr. Priest for this balance.

As matter of law, the judge decided that inasmuch as the draft was payable in gold dust, it was a simple contract, and not a bill of exchange; and, therefore, was not negotiable. That not being negotiable, payments to Ward & Price, or either of them, went towards the extinguishment of the draft, unless notice of its transfer had been given to Priest previous to such payments. That if this notice was in fact given to McAlister, the agent of Priest, it was sufficient notice to Priest; and that in this event, the payment to Price by McAlister, subsequent to the notice given by Ward, could not prejudice the claim of Mr. Lanfear. That if the jury believed the testimony, the plaintiff was entitled to recover the face of the draft and interest, less the two payments to Mr. Ward; but was not entitled to damages for nonpayment or protest.

The jury found for plaintiff.

## DEBTOR AND CREDITOR—ASSIGNMENTS.

In the Supreme Court of Ohio. Before Ranney, Chief Justice, Bartley, Swan, and Brinkerhoff, Justices. James N. Dickson, *et al.*, vs. L. & S. Rawson, *et al.*, Chancery.

RANNEY, C. J., delivered the opinion of the Court. Held—

1. An assignment of property by an insolvent debtor to certain creditors of his, for the purpose of paying debts due to them, and also other preferred creditors, is within the provisions of the third section of the act of March 14, 1838, (Swan's Stat., 717,) and enure to the benefit of all the creditors of the assignor.

2. It is immaterial whether such assignment is made for the benefit of the preferred creditor, not being an assignee, or to indemnify the surety of the assignor to such creditor.

3. In either case the assignment secures the debt, and entitles the creditor to compel an application of the fund to its payment.

4. The character and legal effect of such an assignment is determined at the time it is made, and is not changed by the fact that the property assigned turns out to be no more than sufficient to pay the assignees.

5. If, at the time it is made and accepted, it subjects the assignee to account to any other creditor of the assignor, the assignment is in trust, and the assignee a trustee within the meaning of that act. Decree accordingly.

## CONTRACTS—GUARANTY AND ORIGINAL CONTRACT.

Plaintiff having agreed with S and P, who were mail contractors, to keep their drivers and horses at a stipulated sum per annum, payable quarterly; and during the last quarter, on their becoming insolvent, having refused to continue the performance of his contract without security; thereupon defendant, at the request of S and P, wrote to plaintiff, saying, "I will see you paid for this quarter, as their time then expires, payable when due in Alabama bank notes." Plaintiff kept the drivers and horses until the expiration of the quarter, and the agent of S and P afterwards closed their account, by giving the note of the surviving partner, payable one day after date; which was filed as a claim against the estate of the deceased partner. *Held*, that defendant's promise was not a guaranty, but an original undertaking, upon a new and sufficient consideration which, upon its acceptance by plaintiff, discharged the debt of S and P, and bound defendant to pay, at the expiration of the quarter, in Alabama bank notes. *Jolley vs. Walker's Administrators*, Supreme Court of Alabama.

## CONTRACTS—MUTUAL MISTAKE OF FACT DOES NOT AFFECT VALIDITY—CONCEALMENT OF IMMATERIAL FACT NO FRAUD.

If the parties to a pending suit, under the mistaken impression that the costs have been adjudged against the defendant, enter into a verbal contract, by which the plaintiff binds himself to pay the costs in the first instance, and the defendant promises to repay them, and also to pay the note on which the suit is founded, and which he admits to be just, in good accounts due the first day of January next thereafter, the promise is binding, and its validity is not affected by the mistake; and if the plaintiff, on the verbal agreement being afterwards reduced to writing, fails to inform the defendant of the mistake, and conceals from him the fact (which he had himself discovered, and of which he knew the defendant was still ignorant,) that he had been compelled to take a non-suit, this does not amount to fraud, nor enable the defendant to avoid the written contract. *Eastman vs. Hobbs*, Supreme Court of Alabama.

## DAMAGES—IN CASES OF COLLISION WHEN BOTH VESSELS ARE IN FAULT.

The general rule of the common law is, that if both vessels are in fault, neither can recover damages for injuries caused by the collision; but this rule applies only to faults which operated directly and immediately to produce the collision. *Owners of steamboat Farmer vs. McCraw*.

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**COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.**

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PROGRESS OF THE MONEY PRESSURE—REVIVAL OF TRADE—CLOSING OF INTERNAL NAVIGATION—STOCK OF CEREALS—FRAUDS AND FORGERIES—REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—GOLD RECEIPTS FROM CALIFORNIA, WITH THE BUSINESS AT THE ASSAY OFFICE AND MINT—THE BANK MOVEMENT—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR NOVEMBER—EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE—COMPARATIVE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE LAST FISCAL YEAR, ETC., ETC.

THE money pressure has been felt, more or less severely, throughout all parts of the country, and there is no prospect of any amelioration until after the opening of the new year. There was a partial relaxation during the first two weeks in December, but nothing like returning ease has been realized in any quarter. This is owing in part to the high rates of interest paid for capital in the money centers of Europe, and especially in France and England. The balance due abroad upon the difference in value between our imports and exports has been liquidated, and much of the capital borrowed from thence returned; in addition to this, large advances have been made upon consignments of foreign fabrics, so that there has not been a period for many years when America owed less to Europe than at present.

Trade in our large cities has been more active than expected, especially in dry goods for export and for the spring consumption. About 6,000 bales of brown drills were sold at New York for China and other East India markets at  $8\frac{1}{2}$  c.; and 1,000 bales of heavy sheetings at  $8\frac{1}{2}$  c., and 1,500 bales of light sheetings at  $7\frac{1}{2}$  c., for South American and other markets. In prints, lawns, and other domestic fabrics for the Southern, Western, and Southwestern districts, there has been more activity. In other branches of trade there has been the usual business, and the prospect for the new year is brighter than before the election.

The Erie Canal closed on the 12th of December, shutting in a considerable amount of produce on the way, but not greatly disappointing any of the forwarders. The railroads have all increased their facilities for carrying freight, and a very active business is anticipated throughout the winter months. The stock of cereals at the seaboard, although underrated by speculators, is not as large as usual after a full harvest, owing to the steady demand for export. It is larger in flour and Indian corn than in wheat, and as the railroads can bring more than sufficient for the local consumption, a light export trade may be carried on throughout the season.

We gave some time since the details of a series of forgeries perpetrated by Huntington of New York. He has recently been upon trial for that offense, and his counsel enters a plea of insanity! Further frauds have come to light in various parts of the country since the stringency in the money market commenced. Most of these date their beginning a long time ago, and contain nothing new either in manner or principle. Some have argued that the Americans are a gullible race, but the developments of similar cases of breach of confidence in both France and England have kept pace with the discoveries here. So long as confidence is necessary to the prosecution of business, it will be occasionally

violated, and the most watchful jealousy cannot prevent it this side of the millennium.

Since our last issue Congress has assembled, and the report of the Secretary of the Treasury upon the state of the national finances has been published. It is a very elaborate and, in many respects, a very able document. It opens with a statement of the receipts into the treasury during the year ending June 30th, 1856, which amounted to \$73,918,141 46, exceeding the estimates of the last annual report by \$5,999,407 20, or in round numbers about six million dollars. The receipts were divided as follows: for customs, \$64,022,863 50; for public lands, \$8,917,644 93; and from miscellaneous sources, \$977,633 03. The expenditures for the year were \$72,948,792 02, divided as follows: for civil and diplomatic expenses, \$25,274,330 99; for interior, pensions, and Indians, \$3,872,826 64; for war department, \$16,948,196 89; for navy, \$14,077,047 12; and for redemption of the public debt, \$12,776,390 38. The balance in the treasury on the 1st of July, 1856, was \$19,901,325 45.

The total imports for the year ending June 30th, 1856, were \$314,639,942, and the total exports, \$326,964,918, showing an excess of exports over imports of \$12,325,066. In both totals are included the shipments of specie and bullion. Both the imports and exports are larger than ever before recorded in the history of the country, as will appear from the following comparison:—

Year ending June 30.	Imports.	Exports.
1852.....	\$212,945,447	\$209,658,366
1853.....	267,978,642	230,976,157
1854.....	305,780,253	278,241,064
1855.....	261,382,960	275,156,846
1856.....	314,639,942	326,964,918

This is a very gratifying exhibit, and is far beyond the most sanguine estimates.

The Secretary repeats the recommendations of his former reports in relation to a modification of the tariff, urging the reduction of the rates of duty, and the extension of the free list to include raw materials used in manufacturing. He would not confine the free list to raw materials not produced in this country, but argues that "there are several articles partially produced in this country, but not sufficient to meet the demand, which might be admitted to free entry without prejudice to any home interest; and among them are wool, silk, hides, &c." The argument in favor of admitting all grades of foreign wool to free entry is quite extended, embodying many important facts, and appears to us to be perfectly unanswerable. The report contains explanations of a long series of statistical tables, compiled to furnish information called for by certain resolutions passed at the last session of Congress, some of which we shall hereafter transfer to our pages.

One of these tables is designed to show that the production of iron and steel in this country has increased in a greater ratio than the population and consumption; and from this the Secretary argues that the country will be able ere long not only to supply itself with these necessaries, but also to export them to foreign countries.

The statement of the tonnage engaged in the foreign and coasting trade of the United States shows a decrease from the statement given last year of 340,349

tons, owing to a stricter examination of the returns, and the striking out of vessels which have been lost or sold to foreigners.

One of the most striking passages in the report is the illustration of the effect of free trade with the British North American Provinces, as shown by the increase of that branch of our commerce under the reciprocity treaty. In 1853, the imports from the Provinces were \$7,550,718, and the exports of American produce to the Provinces, \$7,404,087; while in 1856 the imports had increased to \$21,310,421, and the exports to \$22,714,697.

He urges a revision of the revenue laws, so as to avoid the present disputes, and the constant litigation between importers and the government.

The Secretary alludes to his former reports upon the substitution of coin for bank-notes of the smaller denominations, but sees no method of producing uniformity in the several States upon this subject, except by the slow process of a corrected public sentiment, unless the Constitution should be so amended as to give Congress the power to prohibit and restrain the use of small bank-notes.

In regard to the mode of fixing the amount to be collected, the Secretary considers the comparative advantages of specific and ad valorem duties, and of home and foreign valuation, and decides in favor of the present system as, on the whole, the most desirable. He recommends, for convenience and as a simplification of our system, the placing of all manufactures of silk, wool, hemp, flax, and cotton into one schedule and at one rate of duty. He alludes approvingly, in this connection, to a scheme (not original with him) for averaging the cost of goods abroad for three or four years previous to the importation, and charging the duty upon such value, instead of the actual value at the date of shipment. This plan is simply impracticable, and there is little danger of its ever being adopted by our government.

He recommends that the act of 1846, in relation to the importers' declaration of the foreign value, be made applicable to all imported goods, whether imported by the purchaser or the producer or manufacturer.

The Secretary gives the total par value of national, State, city, and corporate bonds and stocks throughout the Union, at \$1,407,518,894, of which only \$202,922,937 are held abroad or owned by foreigners. The system of requiring monthly settlements from all accounting and disbursing officers, has worked successfully, and the Secretary may well be pardoned for the complacent manner in which he alludes to it. On the whole, the condition of the country is highly prosperous, and the state of our national finances may well challenge the admiration of Europe.

The gold receipts from California show no diminution. The following is the business at the United States Assay Office, at New York, continued from our last:—

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

	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
Foreign coins.....	\$3,000 00	\$2,500 00	\$5,500 00
Foreign bullion .....	1,500 00	800 00	2,300 00
Domestic bullion .....	1,515,500 00	12,700 00	1,528,200 00
Total deposits.....	\$1,520,000 00	\$16,000 00	\$1,536,000 00

Deposits payable in bars .....	1,510,000 00
Deposits payable in coin.....	26,000 00
Gold bars stamped.....	1,760,568 04

The deposits at the Philadelphia Mint in November were \$147,580, and the coinage \$140,674. The denominations of coins on hand at the Mint were as follows:—

GOLD.		SILVER.	
Double eagles .....	\$716,000 00	Bars .....	\$7,157 67
Eagles.....	50,490 00	Dollars .....	10,783 00
Half eagles .....	11,015 00	Half dollars.....	354,378 00
Quarter-eagles .....	110,025 00	Quarter-dollars.....	431,257 75
Three dollar pieces..	21,042 00	Dimes .....	24,848 60
Dollars.....	176,328 00	Half dimes.....	27,541 40
Bars.....	3,059 34	Three-cent pieces ..	29,663 07
		Cents .....	751 25
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	\$1,088,769 34		\$886,898 74

Total amount of balance on hand..... \$1,975,168 53

The following are the operations of the Branch Mint at New Orleans for the month of November:—

## GOLD DEPOSITS.

California gold .....	\$13,722 00
Gold from other sources.....	2,345 00
	<hr/>
Total gold deposits .....	\$16,167 00

## SILVER DEPOSITS.

Silver parted from California gold .....	\$57 41
Silver from other sources.....	43,215 66
	<hr/>
Total silver deposits .....	43,273 07

Total gold and silver deposits .....

	\$59,340 07
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Coinage—none.

In consequence of very extensive repairs going on in the buildings of the Mint, all operations are for the present suspended; nor are there any purchases of bullion or gold made for the time being. It will take several weeks' time to complete the work and improvements now in progress.

The operations of the San Francisco Branch Mint for the month of October were as follows:—

## GOLD.

Deposits from 6th to 31st October .....	ounces	121,112.69
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## COINAGE.

Double eagles.....	\$940,000
Eagles .....	80,000
Half eagles .....	70,000
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Total.....	\$1,090,000

The bank movement has been a little irregular, but has generally shown a diminution of specie, without a corresponding decline in liabilities. The increase in loans, however, has been for the most part for accommodations payable on demand. We annex a statement of the New York banks, showing the weekly changes since the opening of the year:—

## 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	8,269,151	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
Aug. 23...	53,985,068	110,188,005	12,914,732	8,588,413	90,127,223
Aug. 30...	53,985,068	109,373,911	12,965,236	8,589,745	87,776,242
Sept. 6...	53,985,068	109,560,943	13,098,876	8,887,860	89,350,154
Sept. 13...	53,985,068	109,579,776	12,281,387	8,741,064	88,044,074
Sept. 20...	54,243,043	109,715,435	12,270,685	8,760,383	90,563,865
Sept. 27...	54,243,043	108,992,205	10,873,220	8,665,193	88,453,795
Oct. 4...	54,243,043	107,931,707	11,015,184	8,830,628	88,730,804
Oct. 11...	54,243,043	107,147,392	10,382,751	8,748,930	86,078,142
Oct. 18...	54,443,043	105,918,836	10,847,010	8,697,417	86,902,852
Oct. 25...	54,497,718	104,156,433	10,580,795	8,649,802	83,465,152
Nov. 1...	54,497,718	103,142,093	11,057,675	8,686,935	86,522,891
Nov. 8...	54,697,718	102,508,639	11,516,420	8,946,721	86,827,821
Nov. 15...	55,197,718	103,554,450	12,233,737	8,856,977	87,520,900
Nov. 22...	55,235,068	104,504,919	12,971,868	8,318,323	91,404,510
Nov. 29...	55,235,068	105,536,476	12,110,834	8,610,256	88,524,264
Dec. 6...	55,235,068	106,898,534	12,278,347	8,671,758	91,698,784
Dec. 13...	55,235,068	108,336,586	10,832,543	8,516,854	89,590,680
Dec. 20...	55,235,068	108,334,593	11,151,316	8,397,440	89,012,730

We annex our usual comparative summary of the weekly statements of the Boston banks :—

## WEEKLY AVERAGES AT BOSTON.

	November 17.	November 24.	December 1.	December 8.	December 15.
Capital .....	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000	\$31,960,000
Loans and discounts..	51,752,360	51,251,415	51,054,304	51,204,622	51,233,957
Specie.....	2,992,796	2,873,007	2,791,454	2,968,290	3,230,317
Due from other banks	7,459,203	7,326,205	7,671,142	7,736,474	7,115,994
Due to other banks..	4,137,387	3,743,488	3,886,834	3,826,294	3,847,252
Deposits .....	16,099,387	15,751,828	15,469,088	15,650,163	15,626,771
Circulation .....	7,337,240	7,285,734	7,889,354	7,602,793	7,176,377

The imports of foreign produce and merchandise at the port of New York for the month of November are \$2,521,357 greater than for the same month of last year, \$5,836,703 greater than for the same period of 1854, and \$1,883,618 greater than for November, 1853. This increase has been less the result of the orders from this side than the disposition manifested by foreign holders, under the pressure of the money markets abroad, to realize upon their stock by shipping it to the United States. We alluded to this cause in page 727 of our last month's review, but other writers did not give it the prominence to which we thought it entitled. We annex our usual comparative summary :—

## FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK IN NOVEMBER.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Entered for consumption....	\$9,239,007	\$5,746,538	\$7,654,782	\$9,730,429
Entered for warehousing....	2,864,350	2,864,350	2,547,741	3,318,842
Free goods.....	334,228	662,817	1,730,287	1,097,524
Specie and bullion.....	154,342	39,121	14,378	321,750
<b>Total entered at the port....</b>	<b>\$12,584,927</b>	<b>\$8,631,842</b>	<b>\$11,947,188</b>	<b>\$14,468,545</b>
Withdrawn from warehouse.	1,333,068	1,431,775	1,197,650	1,725,544

It will be seen that the warehouse movement has been a large one, both the entries and withdrawals having increased. The stock is now much larger than at the corresponding date of last year.

The total imports of foreign produce and merchandise at the port of New York for the eleven months ending November 30, 1856, are \$59,204,686 greater than for the corresponding date of the previous year, \$29,485,779 greater than for the same period of 1854, and \$21,372,045 greater than for November, 1853, as will appear from the following comparison :—

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

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Entered for consumption....	\$144,007,797	\$126,155,443	\$104,408,458	\$148,562,621
Entered for warehousing....	22,122,462	28,963,725	24,115,079	34,650,285
Free goods.....	11,721,200	14,867,342	13,065,406	16,760,950
Specie and bullion.....	2,317,901	2,069,116	747,776	1,567,549
<b>Total entered at the port....</b>	<b>\$180,169,368</b>	<b>\$172,055,626</b>	<b>\$142,336,719</b>	<b>\$201,541,405</b>
Withdrawn from warehouse.	14,204,069	21,006,567	22,266,546	24,097,168

It will be interesting to see what part of this difference in the total imports consists in receipts of dry goods; for this purpose we have compiled the annexed summary :—

IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR ELEVEN MONTHS.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Dry goods.....	\$87,224,654	\$78,230,289	\$60,695,919	\$87,886,802
Other foreign imports...	92,944,706	93,825,337	81,640,800	113,654,603
<b>Total imports.....</b>	<b>\$180,169,360</b>	<b>\$172,055,626</b>	<b>\$142,336,719</b>	<b>\$201,541,405</b>

The imports of dry goods at New York for November are \$403,869 larger than for November of last year, \$2,233,099 larger than for November, 1854, but \$330,606 less than for the same month of 1853, as will appear from the following comparison :—

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

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$1,012,335	\$320,267	\$924,069	\$834,527
Manufactures of cotton.....	654,878	204,445	489,752	746,138
Manufactures of silk.....	1,178,326	590,757	977,765	1,074,671
Manufactures of flax.....	512,680	234,050	397,225	543,868
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	217,279	253,712	274,889	274,144
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>\$3,575,498</b>	<b>\$1,603,231</b>	<b>\$3,063,700</b>	<b>\$3,473,348</b>

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$116,951	\$167,102	\$62,270	\$82,988
Manufactures of cotton.....	54,887	52,618	54,073	133,307
Manufactures of silk.....	123,471	102,254	29,439	155,945
Manufactures of flax.....	58,892	68,166	32,190	57,739
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	57,842	28,831	45,284	56,220
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>\$412,043</b>	<b>\$418,971</b>	<b>\$223,256</b>	<b>\$488,199</b>
<b>Add entered for consumption.....</b>	<b>3,575,498</b>	<b>1,603,231</b>	<b>3,063,700</b>	<b>3,473,348</b>
<b>Total thrown on the market..</b>	<b>\$3,987,541</b>	<b>\$2,022,202</b>	<b>\$3,286,956</b>	<b>\$3,961,447</b>

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$341,764	\$68,292	\$176,557	\$198,179
Manufactures of cotton.....	376,111	135,308	292,537	339,220
Manufactures of silk.....	316,871	196,909	289,766	195,326
Manufactures of flax.....	146,025	59,069	107,094	183,681
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	27,448	157,263	119,588	63,357
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>\$1,208,219</b>	<b>\$616,781</b>	<b>\$985,542</b>	<b>\$979,763</b>
<b>Add entered for consumption.....</b>	<b>3,575,498</b>	<b>1,603,231</b>	<b>3,063,700</b>	<b>3,473,348</b>
<b>Total entered at the port.....</b>	<b>\$4,783,717</b>	<b>\$2,220,012</b>	<b>\$4,049,242</b>	<b>\$4,453,111</b>

The total imports of dry goods at the same port for eleven months, from January 1st, were \$27,189,883 greater than for the same period of last year, \$9,656,513 greater than for the same period of 1854, and \$662,148, greater than for the same period of 1853. We annex the particulars of this comparison:—

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

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool .....	\$24,001,971	\$17,529,560	\$15,686,552	\$23,060,524
Manufactures of cotton.....	13,377,261	12,763,639	7,774,506	14,103,863
Manufactures of silk.....	30,100,877	23,989,516	19,856,354	27,335,024
Manufactures of flax .....	7,347,873	6,155,876	5,290,905	7,601,581
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	4,967,817	5,185,977	4,777,915	6,535,099
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>\$79,795,799</b>	<b>\$65,624,568</b>	<b>\$53,386,262</b>	<b>\$78,636,091</b>

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool.....	\$2,029,660	\$4,046,154	\$2,334,214	\$2,570,682
Manufactures of cotton.....	986,857	2,504,123	2,095,993	2,024,250
Manufactures of silk.....	1,340,906	2,882,257	2,514,650	1,979,346
Manufactures of flax.....	289,646	839,642	1,139,270	985,013
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	357,539	379,256	785,930	423,328
<b>Total withdrawn .....</b>	<b>\$5,004,608</b>	<b>\$10,651,432</b>	<b>\$8,870,057</b>	<b>\$7,982,619</b>
<b>Add entered for consumption ...</b>	<b>79,795,799</b>	<b>65,624,568</b>	<b>53,386,262</b>	<b>78,636,091</b>
<b>Total thrown upon the market.</b>	<b>\$84,800,407</b>	<b>\$76,276,000</b>	<b>\$62,256,319</b>	<b>\$86,618,710</b>

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Manufactures of wool ... ..	\$2,752,402	\$4,668,179	\$1,746,241	\$3,124,867
Manufactures of cotton.....	1,780,460	2,559,442	1,733,099	2,228,952
Manufactures of silk.....	1,931,540	3,554,952	2,105,529	2,133,144
Manufactures of flax.....	599,848	1,135,658	987,403	1,123,993
Miscellaneous dry goods.....	364,605	687,490	738,385	639,755
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>\$7,428,855</b>	<b>\$12,605,721</b>	<b>\$7,310,657</b>	<b>\$9,250,711</b>
<b>Add entered for consumption....</b>	<b>79,795,799</b>	<b>65,624,568</b>	<b>53,386,262</b>	<b>78,636,091</b>
<b>Total entered at the port ...</b>	<b>\$87,224,654</b>	<b>\$78,230,289</b>	<b>\$60,696,919</b>	<b>\$87,886,802</b>

The exports for the month have been large, but the total of produce for the corresponding month of 1855 was larger; being unusually heavy, especially in beef and pork. The shipments of breadstuffs this year are in excess, but there is a falling off in cotton, and meal provisions. The total exports from New York to foreign ports, for the month of November, exclusive of specie, were \$981,205 less than for November, 1855, and \$476,547 less than for November, 1853. The

shipments of specie were greater than for last year, but not as large as for the year previous. We annex our usual comparison :—

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

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Domestic produce.....	\$7,489,937	\$4,660,007	\$8,344,333	\$7,541,595
Foreign merchandise (free).....	48,088	116,884	129,405	55,662
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)..	739,872	323,389	306,817	202,093
Specie.....	3,855,775	3,538,001	1,011,900	2,955,839
Total exports.....	\$12,133,672	\$8,638,281	\$9,792,455	\$10,755,189
Total, exclusive of specie.....	8,275,897	5,100,280	8,780,555	7,799,350

The exports, exclusive of specie, from New York to foreign ports, for eleven months, from January 1st, 1856, are \$12,094,665 greater than for the corresponding period of 1855; \$16,411,443 greater than for the same period of 1854; and \$15,278,526 greater than for the corresponding period of 1853 :—

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR ELEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Domestic produce.....	\$53,374,056	\$52,557,868	\$54,766,778	\$71,007,627
Foreign merchandise (free).....	1,265,771	1,561,963	3,618,875	875,668
Foreign merchandise (dutiable)..	4,851,965	4,239,044	4,290,000	2,887,023
Specie.....	23,621,505	37,101,142	26,639,205	35,439,585
Total exports.....	\$83,113,297	\$95,460,017	\$89,314,858	\$110,209,903
Total, exclusive of specie.....	59,491,792	58,358,875	62,675,653	74,770,318

The receipts for cash duties show a greater increase for the month than the imports, owing to the large withdrawals from warehouse; the goods in bond being chiefly those which pay the higher rates of duty. We annex a comparative summary for eleven months of the year :—

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
First quarter.....	\$11,125,500 47	\$10,872,699 31	\$7,538,288 21	\$11,642,681 46
Second quarter....	10,041,829 03	8,864,261 45	6,711,651 50	10,898,464 29
Third quarter.....	13,613,105 14	12,699,868 05	11,601,517 60	14,430,078 08
In October.....	2,705,694 33	2,402,115 10	3,329,194 95	3,391,230 97
In November.....	2,642,985 92	1,751,023 45	2,171,707 76	2,774,845 63
Total since Jan. 1.	\$40,129,114 89	\$36,590,967 36	\$31,402,366 02	\$43,137,300 43

It would be idle to speculate in regard to the future, as the financial troubles in Europe have interfered with the ordinary currents of trade. The probability is, that the imports for the next few months will not be largely in excess of the total for the corresponding month of the previous year, but that there will not be such a falling off in the receipts as was anticipated a few months since. The exports continue large, and, for the calendar year, will show a large aggregate increase. The following is our usual comparison of the shipments of domestic produce from New York, from January 1st to December 15th :—

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST TO DECEMBER 16TH:—

	1855.	1856.		1855.	1856.
Ashes—pots . . . . .	bbls 13,080	8,573	Naval stores . . . . .	bbls 621,547	474,871
pearls . . . . .	2,188	1,440	Oils—whale . . . . .	galls 269,192	44,378
Beeswax . . . . .	lbs 169,616	206,180	sperm . . . . .	778,124	598,062
<i>Breadstuffs—</i>			lard . . . . .	101,928	55,063
Wheat flour . . . . .	bbls 930,142	1,859,416	linseed . . . . .	11,000	5,006
Rye flour . . . . .	20,137	11,890	<i>Provisions—</i>		
Corn meal . . . . .	49,690	76,533	Pork . . . . .	bbls 143,859	133,782
Wheat . . . . .	bush 2,920,946	9,167,489	Beef . . . . .	63,694	64,481
Rye . . . . .	479,236	1,238,828	Cut meats, lbs . . . . .	15,670,578	28,088,986
Oats . . . . .	32,064	17,032	Butter . . . . .	957,765	1,091,118
Barley . . . . .	1,184	305	Cheese . . . . .	6,881,877	3,606,855
Corn . . . . .	3,790,548	3,767,117	Lard . . . . .	8,143,901	10,491,591
Candles—mold . . . . .	boxes 52,998	44,509	Rice . . . . .	trcs 22,283	37,019
sperm . . . . .	10,288	4,751	Tallow . . . . .	lbs 1,310,282	1,161,939
Coal . . . . .	tons 13,486	7,222	Tobacco, crude . . . . .	pkgs 31,326	32,879
Cotton . . . . .	bales 272,277	188,118	Do., manufact'ed . . . . .	lbs 4,923,601	4,778,715
Hay . . . . .	5,734	4,415	Whaleb'ne . . . . .	2,089,311	1,858,405
Hops . . . . .	8,896	4,226			

Since writing the foregoing, we have obtained from the office of the Secretary of the Treasury a complete statement of the commerce of the United States for the last fiscal year, from which we have compiled the following particulars:—

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM FOREIGN PORTS.

Year ending June 30th.	Dutiable.	Free goods.	Specie & bullion.	Total imports.
1845 . . . . .	\$95,106,724	\$18,077,598	\$4,070,242	\$117,254,564
1846 . . . . .	96,924,058	20,990,007	3,777,732	121,691,797
1847 . . . . .	104,773,002	17,651,347	24,121,289	146,545,638
1848 . . . . .	132,282,325	16,356,379	6,360,224	154,998,928
1849 . . . . .	125,479,774	15,725,425	6,651,240	147,857,439
1850 . . . . .	155,427,936	18,081,590	4,628,792	178,138,318
1851 . . . . .	191,118,345	19,652,995	5,453,592	216,324,932
1852 . . . . .	183,252,508	24,187,890	5,505,044	212,945,442
1853 . . . . .	236,595,113	27,182,152	4,201,382	267,978,647
1854 . . . . .	271,276,560	26,327,637	6,958,184	304,562,381
1855 . . . . .	221,378,184	36,430,524	3,659,812	261,468,520
1856 . . . . .	257,684,236	52,748,074	4,207,632	314,639,942

It will be seen that the imports of free goods are larger than ever before, while the receipts of dutiable goods are smaller than in 1854. Included in the imports of free goods during the last fiscal year, were 217,154,759 pounds of coffee, valued at \$21,514,196, and 21,152,785 pounds of tea, valued at \$6,893,891. The following is a comparative table of exports:—

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO FOREIGN PORTS.

Year ending June 30th.	Dom. produce.	For'n produce.	Specie & bullion.	Total exports.
1845 . . . . .	\$98,455,330	\$7,584,781	\$8,606,495	\$114,646,606
1846 . . . . .	101,718,042	7,865,206	3,905,268	113,488,516
1847 . . . . .	150,574,844	6,166,754	1,907,024	158,648,622
1848 . . . . .	130,203,709	7,986,806	15,841,616	154,032,131
1849 . . . . .	131,710,081	8,641,091	5,404,648	145,755,820
1850 . . . . .	134,900,233	9,475,493	7,522,994	151,898,720
1851 . . . . .	173,620,138	10,295,121	29,472,752	213,388,011
1852 . . . . .	154,931,147	12,037,043	42,674,135	209,642,325
1853 . . . . .	189,869,162	13,096,213	27,486,375	230,452,250
1854 . . . . .	215,157,504	21,661,137	41,422,423	278,241,064
1855 . . . . .	192,751,135	26,158,368	56,247,343	275,156,846
1856 . . . . .	266,438,051	14,781,372	45,745,485	326,964,908

The total exports of specie are less than last year, but the aggregate of exports is greater than ever before recorded in a single year since the formation of the government.

We also annex our usual annual statement of the exports to foreign ports of breadstuffs and provisions, the shipments of cotton, both in quantity and value, with the average price of the cotton per pound.

Year ending June 30.	Breadstuffs and provisions.	COTTON.		
		Pounds.	Value.	Av. price. Cents.
1845.....	\$16,743,421	872,905,996	\$51,739,643	5.92
1846.....	27,701,121	547,558,055	42,767,341	7.81
1847.....	68,701,921	527,219,958	53,415,348	10.34
1848.....	37,472,751	814,274,431	61,998,294	7.61
1849.....	38,155,507	1,026,602,269	66,396,967	6.04
1850.....	26,051,373	635,381,604	71,984,616	11.03
1851.....	21,948,651	927,237,089	112,315,317	12.11
1852.....	25,857,027	1,093,230,639	87,965,732	8.05
1853.....	32,985,322	1,111,570,370	109,456,404	9.85
1854.....	65,941,323	987,833,106	93,596,220	9.47
1855.....	38,895,348	1,008,424,601	88,143,844	8.74
1856.....	77,187,301	1,851,431,701	128,382,351	9.49

The total shipments of breadstuffs and provisions are nearly \$12,000,000 larger than for any previous year; the exports of cotton also show a large increase, both in quantity and value. The average price of the cotton shipments is nearly three-quarters of a cent above the value for the preceding year, but about the same as in 1854. The number of bales of cotton shipped was 2,991,175, against 2,303,403 bales for the preceding year. This shows an average weight, during the last year, of 451 pounds per bale, while, during the preceding year, the average was only 437 pounds; a very important difference upon nearly three millions of bales.

#### NEW YORK COTTON MARKET FOR THE MONTH ENDING DECEMBER 26.

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

Our market, since the date of my last report, (November 28,) has been active, at advancing prices. The total transactions are estimated at 46,000 bales, inclusive of 12,000 bales in transitu. The advance for the past four weeks is fully  $\frac{2}{3}$  a  $\frac{1}{2}$  cent per pound, and on grades middling of all descriptions the improvement is most noticeable. The foreign advices received have been of a favorable character, and represent a state of trade abroad which, if maintained, is likely to absorb the amount of cotton which will probably be exported at prices highly beneficial to this country. At the South the almost general opinion as regards the crop being 3,000,000 bales, has caused much local speculation, which is not altogether without its influence upon growers, and tends to delay the forwarding of what is ready to be shipped from the interior.

The transactions in our market have been mostly for export and home consumption, shippers being confident of realizing a profit, while our own spinners find much trouble in obtaining but little more from their investment than a new

dollar for an old one. Holders for the past month have offered sparingly, and the market closes firm, with but a very meager supply to select from.

The sales for the week ending December 5th were 12,000 bales, at  $\frac{1}{2}$  cent per pound advance. Sellers were indifferent about offering, owing to advancing markets at the South. Our market closed firm at the following:—

## PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 5TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

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

For the week ensuing prices were again slightly advanced on sales of 10,000 bales—the quantity on sale being small tended to limit transactions. At the annexed the market closed steady:—

## PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 12TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

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

The transactions for the week ending December 19th were 12,000 bales, at a further advance of  $\frac{1}{4}$  a  $\frac{3}{8}$  cent per pound. Increased activity in the Southern markets, and favorable foreign advices, tended to the above improvement.

## PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 19TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10 $\frac{5}{8}$	10 $\frac{5}{8}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11
Middling.....	12 $\frac{3}{8}$	12 $\frac{3}{8}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{3}{8}$
Middling fair.....	13 $\frac{1}{8}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	13 $\frac{3}{8}$	13 $\frac{3}{4}$
Fair.....	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{5}{8}$	13 $\frac{7}{8}$	14

For the week closing at date the upward tendency in prices still continued, and the demand was alone checked by the small offerings and outside rates asked by holders. The sales were 12,000 bales, a part being in transitu. The market closed firmly at the following:—

## PRICES ADOPTED DECEMBER 26TH FOR THE FOLLOWING QUALITIES:—

	Upland.	Florida.	Mobile.	N. O. & Texas.
Ordinary.....	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	11
Middling.....	12 $\frac{7}{8}$	13	13 $\frac{1}{8}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$
Middling fair.....	13 $\frac{3}{8}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	14
Fair.....	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	14 $\frac{1}{4}$	14 $\frac{1}{2}$

Receipts to date..... bales	1,204,000	Decrease	47,000
Export to Great Britain.....	237,000	Decrease	178,000
Export to France.....	116,000	Decrease	59,000
Stock on hand.....	621,000	Increase	95,000

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

MASSACHUSETTS BANKS.

The annexed table indicates that nearly a dozen years have elapsed since the best conducted and conditioned banks of Massachusetts began to rise, in their dividend issues, above the dead level of the old legal interest rate, so generally prevalent before. Quite the majority of them, city or country, have by this time left that limit behind, so that a 3 per cent dividend may be held as rather the exception than the rule. Through the interval in question they have enjoyed an unchecked flow of prosperity, and been, without any doubt, the most popular and trusted of all funds in the market. The Boston banks, in the regular exhibit of them in our papers, April and October, verify the date specified, of their upward start. Of the hundred and fifteen to twenty others within the commonwealth, it may not be uninteresting to compare the half-yearly payments for the same period, made by some twenty of the number, whose palmy state, placing them in the foreground, leads to their selection here :—

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	Rec'd p'fts, Aug., 1855.	
Brighton....	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4½	4½ 5	5 5	4 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	0 0	8½
Dedham ....	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	5 5	0 16
Randolph ...	3 3	3½ 3½	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	21
Plymouth ...	3½ 3½	3½ 3½	3½ 4	4 4	4 4	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	4 4	3 3	7½
Old Colony {	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	4 5	4 4	4 4	16
Hingham ...	3½ 3½	3½ 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4½ 4½	4½ 4½	4½ 4½	4½ 4½	12
Pacific*....	2½ 2½	2½ 3	3 3	3 3	3 3	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	21
Gloucester..	3½ 3½	3½ 4	4 4	3½ 4	4 4	4½ 4	4½ 4	4 4	4½ 4½	4½ 4½	3½ 4	3½ 3½	22
Ocean*.....	4 4	4 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	22
Haverhill. }	4 4	4 5	4½ 5	5 5	5 4½	4½ 4½	4½ 5	4 4	4 4	4½ 5	4 4	4 4	613½
Merrimack }	0 3	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	69½
Lowell ... }	3 4	4 4	4 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	16½
Appleton. }	....	new	6z	4	5	4	4	4	4½ 4½	4½ 4½	5 5	5 5	11
Citizens'†...}	3 3	3 3	3 3	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 5	5 5	5 5	29
Leicester... }	3½ 3½	3½ 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 8	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5
Lee ..... }	3 3	3 3	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	5 5	5 5	5 5	10
Housatonic. }	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 5	4 4	4 4	5 5	6 4½	4 4	27
Agawam... }	new	4½ 4½	5 0	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 5	4 0	4 0	6
Chicopee. }	3½ 3½	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	5 5	4 4	8
Agricultural†	4 4	4 4	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 5	5 4½	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	4 4	8½

Beside those here enumerated, the Northampton Bank, which the last month paid 5 per cent, had made for eight years past the annual dividend of 9 per cent. The "Quincy Stone" has coincided so nearly throughout with the Hingham as to make it hardly worth while to swell the catalogue by giving it a separate record. For the last eighteen months, Lynn Mechanics' and Pyncheon (Springfield) Bank have paid successively 5 per cent, and the Powow River Bank (Salisbury) the same for a year. The L. M. Bank has 15 per cent reserve; the Quincy Stone, 12; Bunker Hill, 10.

EXTRAS. Brighton, 5 per cent, and Chicopee, 6 do., May, 1848; Ocean, 10, 1851; Central, (Worcester,) 12, and Gloucester, 15, July, 1853; Housatonic, 25, May, 1854, which exhausted nearly its whole surplus; Pacific, 5, November, 1855; Dedham, 4, in 1848, '52, and '55 severally. This last bank, for the twenty-four

\* Of Nantucket. † Of Worcester. | Of Springfield.  
 ‡ Of Newburyport. § Of Stockbridge. ¶ Of Pittsfield.  
 α For six months. β Denotes the surplus in these banks at this date, October, 1856.

years gone by. (1832-1855, inclusive,) has made thirty-five dividends of 4 per cent, and in but *three* instances has fallen to 3.

The current premium at which a few of the above stand can be stated:—Lynn Mechanics', 92-3, (for 80;) Haverhill, 116; Merrimack, 81, (for 75;) Bunker Hill, 107-8; Housatonic, 112½; Appleton, 113; Lowell, 116; Dedham sold in early summer at over 120.

Two or three blanks are left in the series of the Brighton and Agawam banks, which could not be, with confidence, supplied. The dividend periods of the Dedham are May and November; that recently made is probably the same as in May.

#### THE ORIGIN OF SAVINGS BANKS.

The origin of savings banks has been attributed to the Rev. Joseph Smith, of Wendover, England, in the year 1799.

Any sum, from two pence upwards, was received every Sunday evening during the summer months. The money was promised to be returned at Christmas, with the addition of one-third as a bounty upon the depositor's economy. The depositors were at liberty to receive their money before Christmas, if they so desired it, but without the promised bounty.

The next institution was established by Mrs. Priscilla Wakefield at Tottenham, in Middlesex. This was called the "Charitable Bank." This bank was opened in 1804.

Mrs. Wakefield kept the accounts, and was assisted by six gentlemen, who acted as trustees, each agreeing to receive an equal part of the sums so deposited, and to allow 5 per cent on all sums of 20 shillings and upwards to such depositors as agreed to leave their money for at least a year in their hands. As the deposits increased, a proportionate increase of trustees was made, in order to diminish the loss, which might otherwise have been considerable, owing to the high rate of interest allowed.

In 1808 a society was formed at Bath, managed by eight individuals, four of whom were ladies, who received the savings of domestic servants, and allowed interest thereon at the rate of 4 per cent.

"The Parish Bank Friendly Society," of Ruthwell, England, was formed in 1810, by Mr. Henry Duncan, who published an account of his institution, in the hope of encouraging the establishment of other similar institutions.

This was the first savings bank regularly brought before the public; and it is owing to the example thus set, that previous to the year 1817, there were 70 savings banks established in England, 4 in Wales, and 4 in Ireland.

In the year 1817, in England, legislative provisions were first made for the management of these institutions.

In 1828 an act was passed, entitled "An act to consolidate and amend the laws relating to savings banks." The money was invested in the Bank of England or of Ireland, in the names of the "Commissioners for the reduction of the national debt." The receipts given to the trustees of savings banks for money thus invested bear interest at the rate 2½d. per cent per diem, or £3 16s. ½d. per cent per annum, while the interest paid to depositors was not, in any case, to exceed £3 8s. 5½d. per cent per annum.

On the 20th November, 1833, there were 385 savings banks in England holding balances belonging to 414,014 depositors, which amounted to £13,973,243—being, on an average, £32 to each depositor. The total for England, Wales, and Ireland was 484 savings banks, with funds amounting to £15,715,111. The number of accounts open was 475,155.

We have compiled these statistics from the "Penny Cyclopaedia," and from Porter's "Progress of the Nation."

Elihu Burritt, in his "Year Book of the Nations," states that the capital invested in savings banks in Great Britain in 1840, was £23,471,050; and in 1850, £28,930,982. At this time the sum will exceed, in all probability, £30,000,000 sterling.

The number of depositors in England, Wales, and Ireland was as follows:—In 1830, 412,217 deposits, £13,507,565, including Scotland; in 1841, 841,204 deposits, £24,474,689. The amount paid by the government of Great Britain for interest on the sums due to the trustees of savings banks and friendly societies, from the 6th of August, 1817, to 20th November, 1841, was £13,086,472 16s. 9d.

A savings bank was established in the Island of Jersey in January, 1835, between which time and the 20th November, 1841, deposits were made therein by 3,206 persons, out of a population of 47,556, to the amount of £58,630.

The "Encyclopedia Americana" states that the first savings bank in America was opened in Philadelphia in November, 1816. In Boston, one in the same year. The first institution in New York, the Chambers-street Savings Bank, has the largest amount of funds of any similar institution in the country. The next largest amount is in the Seaman's Savings Bank; the Greenwich, Bowery, and Merchants' Clerks' come next—averaging from one to three-and-a-half millions of dollars each.

These institutions are universal all over the country, and are increasing rapidly. They have heretofore been managed with great integrity and propriety, and have been productive of great benefit to the poorer classes.

We have not intended to enumerate the savings banks of our State, and have merely named the most prominent in our city.

The value of these institutions is beyond question. They have encouraged a frugal spirit among the poor, and, in many cases, have been the means of saving capital sufficient to establish the depositor in business, and thereby advancing his fortune in life.

It is, however, a subject of great importance to a savings bank that its managers be composed of honest and careful men, who adhere strictly to the law in their investments, and who may never be tempted by any means to deviate from the strict line of their duty. Every trustee holds a most sacred trust, the savings of the poor, who are easily alarmed by rumors; and it is his duty to keep a faithful guardianship over the funds intrusted to his management.

In many of the savings banks in Scotland an annual meeting is held, of all the depositors, and the managers present their report at these meetings of the condition of their bank. This has a good effect. It enables the depositors to become better acquainted with those who have the charge of their money, and the interest excited in the minds of the managers in seeing their poor depositors around them, cannot fail to exercise a good moral influence upon them.

The conservative influence of savings banks is undoubted. In England par-

ticularly, where the poor man has all his savings in these institutions, which are by law invested in the public funds, he is directly interested in the permanence and stability of the government. In this country they are so, but not to a similar extent, as the funds of the banks are invested in the securities of the States generally, and on bond and mortgage—one-half of the deposits being usually in each class of securities.

Porter says the advantages of these institutions, considered only in their economical effect, are very great; but these advantages sink into insignificance, in comparison with the moral benefits they have conferred. On the other hand, the feeling of honest independence which must, to some extent, be felt by every depositor, cannot fail to have a beneficial influence upon his character; he is no longer forced, at the first approach of sickness or adversity, to become a candidate for the pauper's portion, but can draw upon a store of his own. On the other hand, every person who intrusts his savings to these institutions becomes by that means additionally and personally interested in the stability of the institutions of the country.

Savings institutions are the offspring of constitutional governments, and find a natural and healthy growth in the confidence which they inspire. In despotic or revolutionary countries, the principle of individual hoarding is acted upon, and thus vast amounts are abstracted from the active capital of the country, which otherwise would enter into the productive power of the nation. It will be remembered that when the last loan of the French government was paid in by the subscribers, great numbers of the old coins of France—that had hardly been seen since the first revolution—came into the possession of the government. They had been hoarded for half a century or more; and nothing would seem to indicate more clearly the confidence inspired by that government in the minds of the poorer classes of the provinces.

There are, we believe, but few institutions for savings on the continent of Europe.

Many of the governments have established institutions for the loan of money, on pawn or pledge of articles of value. The *Mont de Piete*, in Paris, lends four-fifths of the value on gold and silver articles, and two-thirds of the value on all other movable property. Goods pledged are sold at auction, (unless the interest, which is 12 per cent per annum and renewable for three years, be paid,) at the end of thirteen months.

There is a similar institution in Rome—the *Monte di Piete*—where the government loans on works of art. In this the poorer classes have no interest. It was established for the benefit of decayed noblemen and the poor of the upper ranks.

It is curious to wander through the galleries of this institution, filled with the finest works of art in the world, both of painting and sculpture. When a person owning a work of art is in want of money, he can here pledge it, and it is retained for a prescribed period. After the expiration of this period, it belongs to the government, on the payment of the balance of its assessed value. Here the spendthrift rake may pawn the portraits of his forefathers, painted by some master's hand.

It will be seen, however, that savings institutions are generally confined to

Great Britain and the United States, and that they have flourished most in these countries.

With us they have become very numerous, and are spread far and wide, particularly over the free States. We have not been able to find any account of them in the last census of the United States—a remarkable omission, considering their number and their great public and moral importance. It is of the utmost consequence that these institutions be well managed, as the misconduct of one affects the confidence of the depositors in all of them.

#### FIRST ESTABLISHMENT OF BANKS IN EUROPE, ETC.

The first established was in Italy, A. D. 808, by the Lombard Jews, of whom some settled in Lombard-street, London, where many bankers still reside. The name *bank* is derived from *banco*, a bench, which was erected in the market-place, for the exchange of money. The mint in the Tower of London was anciently the depository for merchants' cash, until Charles I. laid his hands upon the money, and destroyed the credit of the mint in 1640. The trades were thus driven to some other place of security for their gold, which, when kept at home, their apprentices frequently absconded with to the army. In 1645, therefore, they consented to lodge it with the goldsmiths, in Lombard-street, who were provided with strong chests, for their own valuable wares, and this became the origin of banking in England.

	Year.		Year.
Bank of Venice, formed.....	1157	Bank of Scotland, formed.....	1695
“ Geneva.....	1345	“ Copenhagen.....	1736
“ Barcelona.....	1401	“ Berlin.....	1765
“ Genoa.....	1407	“ Escompte, France....	1776
“ Amsterdam.....	1607	“ Ireland.....	1783
“ Hamburg.....	1619	Massachusetts Bank, Boston....	1784
“ Rotterdam.....	1635	Bank of St. Petersburg.....	1786
“ Stockholm.....	1688	“ in the East Indies.....	1787
“ England.....	1694	Branch banks in Great Britain..	1828

The Bank of England was originally projected by a merchant named Paterson, and was incorporated by William III. in 1694, in consideration of £1,200,000, the then amount of its capital being lent to the government. We have published in former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine* more elaborate accounts of this bank, and therefore only mention the fact of its establishment in connection with other banks in Europe, noted above.

#### JOINT-STOCK GAMBLING IN PARIS.

A company has been founded in Paris to facilitate gambling. The directors of the *Caisse Generale des Actions* state that having found by experience that Bourse speculation on a large scale only can succeed, they are desirous of extending the associative principle to small capitalists, clerks, tradesmen, widows, etc. They represent that during the last five months, they have distributed to their shareholders the enormous dividend of 27 per cent, over and above 9 per cent for expenses of management. They propose increasing their capital from 4,000,000*f.* to 25,000,000*f.*, by the issue of shares at 250*f.* each; so that now is the time, (if we believe them,) to realize great gains with no labor or risk.

## LAW OF ENGLAND RESPECTING THE PAYMENT OF CHECKS,

WHERE THE MONEY OF PRINCIPAL IS LODGED BY AN AGENT WITH BANKERS.

This subject, according to the Belfast *Mercantile and Statistical Journal*, is a subject of some importance to bankers, and is not clearly understood. The *Journal* says:—

The general rule is, that the banker looks only to the customer, in respect of the account opened in that customer's name, and whatever checks that customer chooses to draw, the banker is to honor. Therefore, where an agent lodged his principal's money at his bankers, in the agent's own name, and on his own account, it was held that the bankers were not justified in refusing to pay the agent's check, on the ground that the money was claimed by the principal. See Shaw on checks, page 233.

But although such is the general rule, yet the banker may become responsible to the principal, by participating, with knowledge of the fact, in a misappropriation of the principal's money by the agent.

This question was discussed in the case of *Bodenham vs. Hoskins*, 21 Law Journal, (Ch.), 864. The following is the condensed note of that case:—

"The plaintiff being the owner of an estate, employed an agent and receiver, who paid into the defendant's bank the rents of the estate, to an account headed with the name of the estate, to distinguish it from his private account. The receiver's private account being overdrawn, he transferred the balance of the estate account, to make up the deficiency due upon his private account. Upon a bill filed by the plaintiff against the bankers, to refund this balance so transferred, it was held that, according to the principles of a court of equity, a person who deals with another, knowing him to have in his hands, or under his control, moneys belonging to a third person, must not enter into a transaction with him, the effect of which is, that a fraud is committed on a third person; and it appearing, upon the evidence, that the bankers were aware that the money was the produce of the rents of the plaintiff's estate, a decree was made against the bankers for the repayment of the amount."

The same case is thus more briefly digested by another reporter:—

"A receiver of an estate, who had a private account at his banker's, opened another there under the name of the estate, under such circumstances as to inform the bankers that the money which would be paid into that account, would belong to the owner of the estate. The receiver drew a check on the estate account, and paid it into his private account. Held, that the bankers were liable to pay the amount to the owners of the estate." (See 2 De Gex., M & G., 903.)

This case does not interfere with the general rule. The bankers here both paid and received the check; they were thus fixed with the application of the money. Had they merely paid a check drawn for some improper purpose, of which they knew nothing, they would have incurred no responsibility. The court said:—"It was the account of the agent, and the bankers were to look to the agent, as the only person entitled to draw on the account." But that was not the question in the case.

After going through the evidence and arguments, the court said:—"I am constrained to arrive at the conclusion, that the bankers, although I must exonerate them from any deliberate intention to commit a fraud, still were not only parties to the simple fact of the transfer, but were parties to the fraud in question, in this sense:—that they were aware of the circumstances which made it a fraud in Parkes (the agent) to make the transfer to his private account, and, being cognizant of that, and having been cognizant of it before the time when the account was opened under the name of 'the Rotterwas Account,' and being cognizant of it throughout, they concur in a transaction, the effect of which is that, for their own pecuniary benefit, an act is done by Parkes, which is a fraud upon the plaintiff. Now, according to the plain principles of a court of equity, such an act never can be sustained. A party cannot retain the benefit which he has obtained from being a party to such an act, with such knowledge of the nature of the act."

THE CURIOSITIES OF COINAGE AT BRITISH MINT.

The number of pieces of silver money presumed to be in circulation, of those struck at the Royal Mint from the 1st of January, 1816, to the 31st May, 1856 :—

Denomination.	No. of pieces struck.	No. of pieces melted.	Presumed to be in circulation.	Value.
Crowns.....	2,320,027	.....	2,320,027	£580,007
Half crowns.....	39,397,943	1,881,600	37,516,343	4,689,548
Florins.....	7,394,592	20,232	7,374,360	737,436
Shillings.....	130,039,566	19,415,000	110,624,566	5,531,228
Sixpences.....	87,053,138	13,492,000	73,561,138	1,839,028
Groats.....	20,140,434	.....	20,140,434	335,674
Threepences.....	5,348,217	.....	5,348,217	66,852
Total.....	.....	.....	256,835,085	13,779,770

In thickness, the new shillings as they are issued from the mint, are 15 to the inch. The average of the shillings in circulation lies between 19 and 20 to the inch. The thinnest, such as are taken out of circulation for recoinage, are a trifle more than 21 to the inch. If they were all new, according to the following calculation, the shillings in circulation would form a pile 116½ miles in height; as they exist now, in their partly worn state, they would form a pile 87½ miles high; and laid edge to edge, they would extend 1,745 miles.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

MARITIME ADVANCEMENT OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

[FROM THE NEW YORK COURIER AND ENQUIRER.]

We doubt whether the progress of this country as a maritime power, and of this city as a commercial emporium—the pride of our people and the wonder of the world—can be more clearly demonstrated than in the subjoined simple tables; the first showing the tonnage of the shipping that entered this port from foreign ports for a number of years, commencing with 1821 :—

	Home.	Foreign.	Total.		Home.	Foreign.	Total.
1821....	155,733	16,240	171,963	1848....	657,795	367,321	1,025,116
1825....	259,525	20,655	280,180	1849....	734,009	414,096	1,148,105
1830....	255,691	25,821	281,512	1850....	807,580	441,757	1,249,337
1835....	373,465	90,999	464,464	1851....	1,144,485	479,569	1,624,052
1840....	409,458	118,136	527,593	1852....	1,231,951	478,037	1,709,988
1845....	472,492	140,858	613,350	1853....	1,321,674	491,581	1,813,255
1846....	496,761	185,404	682,165	1854....	1,442,278	477,035	1,919,313
1847....	605,483	333,537	939,020	1855....	1,310,257	202,000	1,512,257

The increase in the total tonnage from 1821 to 1851 (30 years) was nearly tenfold. The increase in American tonnage during the same period was more than sevenfold. The increase in foreign tonnage was nearly thirtyfold—about 2,900 per cent. This explains more clearly than any other fact the cause of the growing interest felt by European governments in the affairs of this country. The great falling off in the foreign tonnage in 1854, in comparison with several years immediately preceding, was doubtless mainly in consequence of the Eastern war, which employed not only the Cunard steamers running to this port, but a vast amount of British shipping of all descriptions, as transports. The inactivity in freights hence was also potent in influence. There is no reason to doubt that, with the return of peace, the foreign shipping entering this port yearly will equal, if not surpass in tonnage, any former year.

The above table shows only the extent of the trade of this city with foreign

ports. The coasting trade since 1847 is shown partially in the following. But it must be remembered that coasting vessels to or from ports north of the northern boundary of Georgia are not compelled to enter or clear, unless distilled spirits are of the cargo. It will at once be seen that this exhibit of the trade of this city coastwise, is far from being complete. The same fact will also explain the disparity between the tonnage entered and cleared:—

	Entered.	Cleared.		Entered.	Cleared.
1848.....	402,143	805,938	1852.....	497,540	1,373,702
1849.....	424,976	895,589	1853.....	507,531	1,310,697
1850.....	489,396	1,020,070	1854.....	543,482	1,499,968
1851.....	455,542	1,214,922	1855.....	614,045	1,378,889

But the increase in tonnage is not alone remarkable. It is a common observation that the largest ships of twenty years ago did not exceed in tonnage the ordinary coasters of the present day. Then, a vessel of 700 or 800 tons was a wonderful achievement of capital and mechanism. Now, ships of more than 2,000 tons have ceased to be regarded as out of the ordinary course. The following is a statement of the number of vessels—foreign and American—that entered this port the years indicated, their total and average tonnage. The statement of the entries for 1855 shows a diminution in the average tonnage of foreign vessels to below that of 1840, which makes it quite clear that the diminished tonnage of the year was, as we have said, caused mainly by the use of a great number of large ships for purposes incident to the war between the allies and Russia. From 1835 to 1854 the American tonnage increased about fourfold, but the number of ships increased only about 70 per cent, the average tonnage about 117 per cent, exceeding the average foreign tonnage about 60 per cent:—

	AMERICAN.			FOREIGN.		
	No. of vessels.	Total tonnage.	Average tonnage.	No. of vessels.	Total tonnage.	Average tonnage.
1835.....	1,544	373,465	245	471	90,999	193
1840.....	1,447	409,458	280	470	118,136	253
1845.....	1,484	472,492	319	526	140,858	267
1850.....	1,892	807,680	427	1,451	441,757	304
1854.....	2,636	1,442,278	547	1,411	477,035	338
1855.....	2,487	1,310,257	527	904	202,000	223

#### IMPORT OF FURS AND SKINS INTO LONDON.

The following table, furnished by David Samuel & Son, Philadelphia, comprises the entire collection of the Hudson's Bay Company, and all the collections in the United States of America, except shipments made direct from the United States to Germany, and such as are used for home consumption, which cannot be ascertained, imported into London from the 1st of September, 1855, to the 1st of September, 1856:—

Description.	Hud. B. Co.	U. States.	Total.	Description.	Hud. B. Co.	U. States.	Total.
Beaver skins.	70,915	11,894	82,809	Fox, grey...	.....	29,539	29,539
Muskkrat....	258,790	909,460	1,168,250	" kitt....	3,370	1,774	5,144
Otter.....	15,064	5,131	20,195	Black bear.	7,216	3,364	10,580
Fisher.....	5,187	2,827	8,044	Grey "	992	.....	992
Marten.....	179,260	16,082	195,342	Raccoon...	1,794	438,401	440,192
Mink.....	61,510	69,294	130,804	Wolf.....	7,568	98	7,666
Lynx.....	11,844	1,555	12,899	Wolverine.	1,131	10	1,141
Fox, silver..	605	896	1,501	Skunk....	11,318	487	11,805
" cross....	1,909	2,158	4,067	Wild cat..	500	8,823	9,323
" red....	7,346	26,881	34,227	Opposum.	.....	83,817	83,817
" white...	10,390	2,800	13,190	Brown bear	1,226	29	1,255

**EXPORT OF BREADSTUFFS, PROVISIONS, ETC., FROM THE U. STATES.**

The following table, compiled from data furnished to our hands by the New York *Shipping List*, shows the exports of the under-mentioned articles for the years ending 31st of August, in 1855 and 1856 :—

	Gt. Britain and Ireland.		London.		Liverpool.		Glasgow.	
	1855.	1856.	1855.	1856.	1855.	1856.	1855.	1856.
Flour, bbls. . .	164,579	1,498,588	56,136	298,013	82,870	958,291	13,446	108,581
Wheat, qrs. . .	38,412	924,002	4,991	53,157	27,816	719,029	4,582	51,712
Corn. . . . .	817,891	802,291	1,193	5,257	670,799	742,764	26,299	7,828
Rice, trcs. . . .	1,610	5,533	690	1,059	877	3,810	43	564
Beef. . . . .	71,712	53,213	29,759	10,827	35,468	36,791	6,579	4,535
Pork, bbls. . . .	60,718	32,664	27,907	14,477	30,994	17,666	1,517	521
Bacon, tons. . .	11,464	14,457	2,776	2,396	8,162	11,160	491	844
Cheese. . . . .	2,785	3,937	765	1,183	1,812	2,400	151	350
Tallow. . . . .	2,216	971	134	10	1,612	908	223	52
Lard. . . . .	4,589	5,959	342	218	3,484	4,652	674	1,093
Sperm-oil, tons	3,290	2,008	2,475	1,368	668	553	143	83
Rosin, bbls. . .	291,137	190,021	63,669	53,455	176,209	105,085	24,777	24,728

**COMMERCE OF THE LAKE PORTS.**

During the past fifteen years the value of the trade of the lakes has swelled from \$65,000,000, in 1841, to \$608,310,320, in 1856; and the whole of this grand aggregate, with the exception of \$42,260,000, set down for Sackett's Harbor, Cape Vincent, Oswegatchie, Genesee, and Niagara, came through the following ports :—

Buffalo . . . . .	\$303,023,000	Milwaukie. . . . .	\$35,000,000
Chicago . . . . .	223,898,000	Maumee. . . . .	94,107,000
Cleveland . . . . .	162,185,640	Sandusky. . . . .	59,966,000
Detroit . . . . .	140,000,000	Oswego . . . . .	146,235,000

With the exception of Buffalo and Oswego, these are all ports of the North-west, whose trade has been the result of its development during a very brief period; and the great bulk of the trade of Buffalo and Oswego is derived from the same source.

**DIRECT EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM RICHMOND.**

The following is a comparative statement of the exports of tobacco from Richmond, Virginia, *direct* to foreign ports, during the tobacco commercial year ended September 30th, 1856, as compared with the previous year :—

	1855-6.	1854-5.		1855-6.	1854-5.
Bordeaux . . . . .	511	1,457	Leith . . . . .	304	....
Bremen . . . . .	4,218	2,857	Liverpool . . . . .	3,968	3,992
Bristol . . . . .	487	421	London . . . . .	2,117	1,549
Genoa . . . . .	466	....	Marseilles . . . . .	750	1,149
Glasgow . . . . .	....	397	Rotterdam . . . . .	822	478
Havre . . . . .	1,852	3,021	Venice. . . . .	3,266	3,245
				18,756	18,456

We are indebted to the Richmond *Whig* (good authority) for the preceding statement.

The Belfast (Ireland) *Commercial Journal and Statistical Register* of September 26, 1856, "congratulates" the citizens of that port on the arrival of a large assortment of tobacco, especially selected to suit that market, direct from Nor-

folk, Virginia. The *Register* says:—"The fine ship containing this valuable freight is the *Allen Ker*, the property of James Barnett, Esq., of this town. We understand that it is upwards of twenty years since direct importations of tobacco have ceased. We hope the present cargo will prove the commencement of a regular direct supply of this valuable article, which must add considerably to its original cost by being imported via England or Scotland."

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PRICES OF PRODUCE AND MERCHANDISE AT CINCINNATI.

In the *Merchants' Magazine* for November, (vol. xxxv., pages 608, 609,) we published the average prices of butter, cheese, and coffee, on the last day of each week of the year, commencing with September 5, 1855, and ending August 27, 1856. Also, in the December number, (vol. xxxv., pages 748-749,) we gave the average prices of flour, corn, wheat, and rye, for the same time. In continuation, we now subjoin the average prices of star candles, tallow candles, lard-oil, and barley:—

The following table shows the price of star candles at the close of each week during the year:—

|                  |    |                 |    |               |    |
|------------------|----|-----------------|----|---------------|----|
| September 5..... | 24 | January 9.....  | 26 | May 7.....    | 22 |
| 12.....          | 26 | 16.....         | 26 | 14.....       | 22 |
| 19.....          | 26 | 23.....         | 26 | 21.....       | 22 |
| 26.....          | 26 | 30.....         | 26 | 28.....       | 22 |
| October 3.....   | 26 | February 6..... | 26 | June 4.....   | 22 |
| 10.....          | 26 | 13.....         | 26 | 11.....       | 22 |
| 17.....          | 26 | 20.....         | 26 | 18.....       | 22 |
| 24.....          | 26 | 27.....         | 26 | 25.....       | 23 |
| 31.....          | 26 | March 5.....    | 24 | July 2.....   | 25 |
| November 7.....  | 26 | 12.....         | 24 | 9.....        | 25 |
| 14.....          | 26 | 19.....         | 24 | 16.....       | 25 |
| 21.....          | 26 | 26.....         | 24 | 23.....       | 25 |
| 28.....          | 26 | April 2.....    | 24 | 30.....       | 25 |
| December 5.....  | 26 | 9.....          | 24 | August 6..... | 25 |
| 12.....          | 26 | 16.....         | 24 | 13.....       | 25 |
| 19.....          | 26 | 23.....         | 22 | 20.....       | 25 |
| 26.....          | 26 | 30.....         | 22 | 27.....       | 25 |
| January 2.....   | 26 |                 |    |               |    |

The following table shows the price of tallow candles at the close of each week during the year:—

|                  |    |                 |    |               |    |
|------------------|----|-----------------|----|---------------|----|
| September 5..... | 15 | January 9.....  | 15 | May 14.....   | 13 |
| 12.....          | 15 | 16.....         | 15 | 21.....       | 13 |
| 19.....          | 15 | 23.....         | 15 | 28.....       | 13 |
| 26.....          | 15 | 30.....         | 15 | June 4.....   | 13 |
| October 3.....   | 16 | February 6..... | 15 | 11.....       | 13 |
| 10.....          | 16 | 13.....         | 15 | 18.....       | 13 |
| 17.....          | 16 | 20.....         | 15 | 25.....       | 13 |
| 24.....          | 16 | 27.....         | 15 | July 2.....   | 13 |
| 31.....          | 16 | March 5.....    | 14 | 9.....        | 13 |
| November 7.....  | 16 | 12.....         | 14 | 16.....       | 13 |
| 14.....          | 16 | 19.....         | 14 | 23.....       | 13 |
| 21.....          | 16 | 26.....         | 14 | 30.....       | 13 |
| 28.....          | 16 | April 2.....    | 13 | August 6..... | 13 |
| December 5.....  | 16 | 9.....          | 13 | 13.....       | 13 |
| 12.....          | 16 | 16.....         | 13 | 20.....       | 13 |
| 19.....          | 16 | 23.....         | 13 | 27.....       | 13 |
| 26.....          | 15 | 30.....         | 13 |               |    |
| January 2.....   | 15 | May 7.....      | 13 |               |    |

NOTE. Unpressed sell one cent per pound below the current rate for pressed.

The following table shows the price of lard-oil at the close of each week during the year :—

|                  |    |                 |    |               |    |
|------------------|----|-----------------|----|---------------|----|
| September 5..... | 80 | January 9.....  | 90 | May 14.....   | 80 |
| 12.....          | 90 | 16.....         | 90 | 21.....       | 80 |
| 19.....          | 90 | 23.....         | 90 | 28.....       | 80 |
| 26.....          | 90 | 30.....         | 90 | June 4.....   | 80 |
| October 3.....   | 90 | February 6..... | 90 | 11.....       | 80 |
| 10.....          | 90 | 13.....         | 90 | 18.....       | 80 |
| 17.....          | 90 | 20.....         | 90 | 25.....       | 80 |
| 24.....          | 95 | 27.....         | 85 | July 2.....   | 85 |
| 31.....          | 95 | March 5.....    | 85 | 9.....        | 85 |
| November 7.....  | 90 | 12.....         | 85 | 16.....       | 85 |
| 14.....          | 90 | 19.....         | 85 | 23.....       | 85 |
| 21.....          | 95 | 26.....         | 85 | 30.....       | 90 |
| 28.....          | 90 | April 2.....    | 85 | August 6..... | 90 |
| December 5.....  | 90 | 9.....          | 85 | 13.....       | 90 |
| 12.....          | 90 | 16.....         | 85 | 20.....       | 90 |
| 19.....          | 90 | 23.....         | 85 | 27.....       | 90 |
| 26.....          | 90 | 30.....         | 85 |               |    |
| January 2.....   | 90 | May 7.....      | 85 |               |    |

The following table shows the price of barley at the close of each week during the year :—

|                  |        |                 |        |               |        |
|------------------|--------|-----------------|--------|---------------|--------|
| September 5..... | \$0 .. | January 9.....  | \$1 35 | May 14.....   | \$1 45 |
| 12.....          | 0 ..   | 16.....         | 1 50   | 21.....       | 1 30   |
| 19.....          | 0 80   | 23.....         | 1 40   | 28.....       | 1 45   |
| 26.....          | 0 80   | 30.....         | 1 40   | June 4.....   | 1 45   |
| October 3.....   | 0 80   | February 6..... | 1 35   | 11.....       | 1 40   |
| 10.....          | 1 00   | 13.....         | 1 35   | 18.....       | 1 45   |
| 17.....          | 1 25   | 20.....         | 1 35   | 25.....       | 1 45   |
| 24.....          | 1 30   | 27.....         | 1 35   | July 2.....   | 1 45   |
| 31.....          | 1 50   | March 5.....    | 1 35   | 9.....        | 1 45   |
| November 7.....  | 1 60   | 12.....         | 1 35   | 16.....       | 1 45   |
| 14.....          | 1 55   | 19.....         | 1 30   | 23.....       | 1 45   |
| 21.....          | 1 60   | 26.....         | 1 30   | 30.....       | 1 25   |
| 28.....          | 1 50   | April 2.....    | 1 30   | August 6..... | 1 25   |
| December 5.....  | 1 40   | 9.....          | 1 30   | 13.....       | 1 40   |
| 12.....          | 1 40   | 16.....         | 1 35   | 20.....       | 1 40   |
| 19.....          | 1 30   | 23.....         | 1 45   | 27.....       | 1 50   |
| 26.....          | 1 30   | 30.....         | 1 40   |               |        |
| January 2.....   | 1 35   | May 7.....      | 1 40   |               |        |

BUSINESS OF GALENA.

The Chicago Press, on the authority of the Galena Advertiser, gives, as an index of the flourishing city of Galena, the following statement of freight and passengers leaving that place for the twenty-four hours ending May 2d, which will interest many of our readers :—

| Boats.          | Tons freight. | Pass. | Boats.          | Tons freight. | Pass. |
|-----------------|---------------|-------|-----------------|---------------|-------|
| Diamond.....    | 800           | 250   | Royal Arch..... | 300           | 350   |
| Golden Era..... | 350           | 400   | Brazil.....     | 200           | 225   |
| Oakland.....    | 200           | 150   | Henrietta.....  | 150           | 100   |
| War Eagle.....  | 300           | 550   | Maclay.....     | 200           | 150   |
| Total.....      |               |       |                 | 2,500         | 2,175 |

At the same time there were in port the Alhambra, Delegate, Golden Gate, and Greek Slave. It is no unusual occurrence for from six to ten steamers to be in that port at one time, receiving and discharging freight.

## EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS TO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1855, TO AUGUST 31, 1856:—

| From—                        | To date. | Flour.<br>Barrels. | Meal.<br>Barrels. | Wheat.<br>Bushels. | Corn.<br>Bushels. |
|------------------------------|----------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| New York, August 31.....     |          | 1,106,058          | 508               | 6,307,374          | 3,139,399         |
| New Orleans .....            |          | 95,366             | ....              | 688,591            | 2,429,512         |
| Philadelphis .....           |          | 199,258            | 4,195             | 478,633            | 593,478           |
| Baltimore .....              |          | 198,238            | 1,100             | 374,582            | 423,841           |
| Boston .....                 |          | 20,882             | 1,013             | .....              | 20,469            |
| Other ports .....            |          | 21,463             | ....              | 107,226            | 115,862           |
| Total from Sept. 1, 1856 ... |          | 1,641,265          | 6,816             | 7,956,406          | 6,731,161         |
| Same time, 1855.....         |          | 176,209            | 4,768             | 324,727            | 6,679,138         |
| “ 1854.....                  |          | 1,846,920          | 41,746            | 6,033,403          | 6,049,371         |
| “ 1853.....                  |          | 1,600,449          | 100               | 4,823,519          | 1,452,278         |
| “ 1852.....                  |          | 1,427,442          | 1,680             | 2,728,442          | 1,487,398         |
| “ 1851.....                  |          | 1,559,584          | 5,620             | 1,496,355          | 2,205,601         |
| “ 1850.....                  |          | 474,757            | 6,411             | 461,276            | 4,753,358         |
| “ 1849.....                  |          | 1,137,556          | 82,940            | 140,194            | 12,685,260        |
| “ 1848.....                  |          | 184,583            | 108,534           | 241,309            | 4,399,223         |
| “ 1847.....                  |          | 3,155,844          | 844,187           | 4,000,359          | 17,157,659        |
| Total 10 years.....          |          | 13,201,609         | 1,102,742         | 29,210,290         | 63,564,450        |

## TRADE OF CINCINNATI.

A recent number of the *Cincinnati Gazette* contains an annual statement of the trade and commerce of that city, from which we deduce a brief summary, showing its present standing, with reference to several leading articles of trade, commerce, and industry, compared with the amount of business done in them at a former stated period. These articles are taken mostly in their alphabetical order:—

**BUTTER.** In 1851-52, Cincinnati imported 8,259 barrels, and 11,043 firkins of best butter, and exported 3,253 barrels, and 36,185 kegs. In 1855-56, she imported 11,361 barrels, and 12,422 firkins; in the same period she exported 2,391 barrels, and 28,128 kegs. The highest wholesale price paid within a year past, was 22 cents; the lowest price, 12 cents; present price, 14 cents.

**COFFEE.** In 1851-52, imports were 95,732 bags; exports, 43,654. In 1855-56, she imported 92,068 bags, and exported 37,903. The year previous, the exports exceeded 114,000, and the imports 42,000. The decline is accounted for by the great advance in the price of sugar and molasses within the past eighteen months.

**CHEESE.** In 1851-52, imports were 241,753 pounds; exports 150,689. In 1855-56, imports 190,983, and exports 114,607. Present wholesale price of best Western Reserve cheese, 9½ cents per pound.

**COAL.** Receipts during 1853-54 were 8,158,000 bushels; during 1855-56, they amounted to 7,500,000. Prices have raised within a year from 6 cents to 12 cents, and for prime, 20 cents. Should the Ohio River be low this fall, and a supply cut off, consequences will be disastrous.

**CANDLES.** Exceeding 8,000,000 of pounds of star candles have been manufactured within the past year, together with 53,333 barrels of lard oil. The lard necessary to this, exceeded 33,000,000 pounds. The business has increased 40 per cent within the year. Star candles, wholesale price, 25 cents per pound; lard oil, 90 cents per gallon. About 4,000 boxes opal candles, fetching 18 cents per pound, were also made. A great deal of soap is made and exported.

**FLOUR.** In 1851-52, imports were 511,042 barrels; exports, 408,211 barrels. In 1855-56, imports 546,727 barrels; exports 509,031 barrels. (The last figures seem to be erroneous.)

**CORN.** In 1851-52, imports were 653,788 bushels; exports, 51,231 bags. In 1855-56, import were 978,511 bushels, and exports 75,260 bags.

**WHEAT.** Imports in 1851-52 were 377,037 bushels. In 1855-56 they were 1,069,468 bushels. On the last of August the price per bushel of prime red wheat was \$1 10. In five years the imports of rye have increased from 58,000 to 158,000 bushels, and barley from 511,042 bushels imported, and 408,211 exported, to 546,727 imported and 509,031 exported. Imports of oats have increased in five years from 197,858 bushels, to 403,920; in the same time, the exports have gone up from 2,418 to 5,521 bushels.

**HEMP.** In 1851-52, imports were 18,334 bales, and exports 554; in 1855-56 imports were 10,079 bales, and exports 2,862 bales.

**MOLASSES.** In 1851-52, imports were 93,132 barrels, exports 48,886 barrels; in 1855-56, imports 65,174 barrels, and exports 37,324 barrels.

**LINSEED OIL AND FLAXSEED.** In 1851-52, imports of oil amounted to 8,305 barrels, and exports to 9,377 barrels; in 1855-56 imports were 13,083, and exports 3,639. In 1851-52 the imports of seed were 48,074 barrels; in 1855-56 they only amount to 25,849 barrels.

**HOGS.** In 1833 there were packed 85,000 hogs; in 1840 were packed 95,000; in 1850 were packed 393,000; and last year 405,396 hogs.

**SUGAR.** In 1851-52 imports of Louisiana sugar were 39,324 pounds, and exports 20,360 pounds; in 1855-56, imports were only 32,354, and exports 21,336 pounds. Refined sugars imported at the former period were 15,237 pounds, at the latter 16,846 pounds.

**SALT.** The imports in 1851-52 were 91,312 sacks, and 58,020 barrels, and the exports 16,314 sacks, and 27,022 barrels; in 1855-56 imports were 80,719 sacks, and 54,521 barrels, exports 9,928 sacks, and 31,064 barrels.

**WHISKY.** In the first named period imports were 319,488 barrels, exports 276,124 barrels; in the second named, imports 428,001 barrels, and exports 364,001.

**IRON.** Pig iron in 1851-52 was imported to the extent of 22,605 tons; in 1855-56 to the extent of 41,016. In Cincinnati there are 32 iron foundries, employing, directly and indirectly, 3,720 workmen. There are ten rolling mills in the city and vicinity, producing iron to the value, last year, of \$3,167,000.

**DRY GOODS.** There are 159 retail dry goods merchants, of whom eighteen are importers from Europe.

**BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.** Eleven houses are engaged in this business, importing from New England. The cases imported last year were 22,160 in number, of a value of \$997,200. Great quantities of boots and shoes are made for the home trade.

**FURNITURE.** There are 67 manufacturing establishments, 9 of them being on a large scale, averaging 325 hands each. In 1851 one house manufactured and sold \$153,336 worth of furniture; last year to the amount of \$360,460.

**QUEEN'S WARE AND CUTLERY.** In this branch of business nine houses are engaged, importing to the value of about \$700,000 per annum.

**STEAMBOATS AND BARGES.** In 1851-52 the total number of these was 263, with a tonnage of 60,452 tons; in 1855-56 the total was 365, of a tonnage of 92,401 tons. Last year 33 new steamers were built, increasing the former tonnage 2,841 tons.

The total value of the principal exports for the last year from the port of Cincinnati is stated at \$38,777,394. The total imports for the same time were valued at \$67,501,341. Besides these, it is said there should be added, for unenumerated articles, such as furniture, machinery, and agricultural implements, at least 25 per cent to the exports, and 10 per cent to the imports, to arrive at the nearest figures.

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## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

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### RANGE LIGHTS FOR CHANNELS THROUGH NEW YORK BAY.

In compliance with previous notice, the Range Lights for the channels through New York Bay will be exhibited at sunset on the evening of the 1st of November, and nightly thereafter from sunset to sunrise. They are located as follows:—

**RANGE LIGHTS FROM EAST END OF GEDNEY'S CHANNEL, BETWEEN SANDY HOOK AND FLYNN'S KNOEL.** Two fixed lights located near Point Comfort, New Jersey. The front light will be exhibited from a lantern on the keeper's dwelling, which is located near the beach, and painted white, with the top of the lantern black. The rear light is located three-quarters of a mile distant from the front one, and will be exhibited from a tower painted white, with the head of it and lantern black. The keeper's dwelling is north of it and painted white. The front light is 40, and the rear one 76 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen, under ordinary state of the atmosphere, outside the bar. During the day, the front building can be readily recognized from other buildings in the vicinity, by the lantern on its centre, and the rear one by the lantern of the tower being projected on the sky above the trees.

**MAIN SHIP CHANNEL RANGE LIGHTS.** Two fixed lights located on the New Jersey shore, west of Highlands of Navesink. The front light will be exhibited from a tower near the beach, painted with two white and one red horizontal bands, and the roof of the lantern also of the latter color. The keeper's dwelling is west of the tower, and painted white. The rear light is located on the north side of Chappel Hill, one-and-a-half miles distant from the front light, and will be exhibited from a lantern on the keeper's dwelling. The dwelling is painted white, and the top of the lantern red. The front light is 60, and the rear one 224 feet above the mean level of the sea, and both should be seen, under ordinary state of the atmosphere, the entire length of the range line. During the day they can be readily recognized by the shape and colors of the towers of the front light, and by the lantern of the keeper's dwelling, and isolated portions of the rear one. It is about one mile east of Pigeon Hill.

**SWASH CHANNEL RANGE LIGHTS.** Two fixed lights located on Staten Island, N. Y. The front light will be exhibited from a tower near the site of the "Old Elm Tree" Beacon, painted with two white and one red horizontal bands, and the roof of the lantern also of the latter color. The keeper's dwelling is south of the tower, and painted white. The rear light is located on a hill, near New Dorp, about one-and-three-quarter miles from the front light, and will be exhibited from a lantern on the keeper's dwelling. The dwelling is painted white, and the top of the lantern red. The front light is 59 feet, and the rear light 189 feet above the mean level of the sea; and both should be seen, under ordinary state of the atmosphere, well outside of the bar at Sandy Hook. During the day they can be readily recognized by the shape of the tower, and colors of the front light, and by the lantern on the dwelling, and isolated position of the rear one.

**SAILING DIRECTIONS.** Masters of vessels intending to enter by Gedney's Channel, around the S. W. Spit Buoy, should run on a N. W.  $\frac{1}{4}$  W. course from the light-vessel for the black and white perpendicular-striped Nun Buoy at the outside of Gedney's Channel, and from it W. by N. through the channel, keeping between the buoys, until the Range Lights near Point Comfort, New Jersey, are in one, when haul up for them, and continue upon the range until the two main channel lights are brought in range, which will also be shown by the main light at Sandy Hook, being a little open to the southward of the West Beacon. From this point the Main Ship Channel range will take them up clear of the "West Bank" and Craven's Shoal. Masters of vessels intending to pass through the Swash Channel, can bring the lights in range outside the bar, and run for them,

until the Red Can Buoy, No. 8, (which marks the upper middle.) is passed, or until the Main Ship Channel range is on, when haul up on that range until clear of the "West Bank." Vessels drawing more than 17 feet, should not be taken through this channel on the range line at low water. A foot more water may be carried through this channel, after crossing the bar, by keeping a little to starboard, and opening the front light clear of the rear one. The Swash Channel range line indicates, by the most recent survey, 18 feet at low water.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

A. LUDLOW CASE, Lighthouse Inspector, Third District.

NEW YORK, October 27th, 1856.

#### FIXED LIGHT ON CAPE RACE—NORTH ATLANTIC—NEWFOUNDLAND.

The Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade have given notice that on and after the 15th day of December next a light will be established in the lighthouse recently erected on Cape Race, at the southeastern extreme of Newfoundland. The light will be a fixed light of the natural color. The illuminating apparatus is catoptric or by reflectors. The center of the light will be elevated 180 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen from a ship's deck in clear weather at a distance of 17 miles, from N. E. by E. round by the southeast and south to west. The light-tower is a circular structure of iron, and rises from the center of the keeper's dwelling. It is 50 feet in height from base to vane, and is painted in red and white vertical stripes, in order that it may be more easily distinguished in foggy weather. It stands at 35 yards to the westward of the old beacon, which still remains, but which has been cut down to a height of 24 feet, covered with a pointed roof, and painted with red and white stripes. The lighthouse is in latitude  $46^{\circ} 39' 12''$  N., longitude  $53^{\circ} 0' 00''$  west of Greenwich. All bearings are magnetic. Variation  $28^{\circ}$  W. in 1856, increasing about  $6'$  annually. By command of their Lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, }  
LONDON, October 1, 1856. }

This notice affects the following Admiralty Charts:—North Atlantic, Nos. 2,059, 2,061; North America, East Coast, sheets 1 and 3, Nos. 1,213, 266; Newfoundland, Point Lance to Cape Spear, No. 299; North American Lighthouse List, No. 7.

#### THE KATTEGAT, COAST OF JUTLAND—INTERMITTENT LIGHT ON HIELM ISLE.

The Royal Navy Department at Copenhagen has given notice that on the 15th day of November, 1856, a new light will be established on the Isle of Hielm, in the Kattegat, off the coast of Jutland, in Denmark. The light will be intermittent, with a flash every fourth minute. It will show a steady light of the natural color for the space of 2 minutes 55 seconds, be suddenly eclipsed for 25 seconds, then exhibit a bright flash for about 15 seconds, and be again eclipsed for 25 seconds, when the steady light will reappear. The illuminating apparatus will be a catadioptric lens of the second order. The light will be placed at a height of 164 feet above the mean level of the sea, and will be visible all round the horizon; the steady light at a distance of 16 miles, and the flash at about 19 miles, in clear weather. The eclipse will be scarcely observable when a vessel is within a distance of 8 miles from the light. The light tower is a round brick tower 37 feet high. It stands in latitude  $56^{\circ} 8' N.$ , longitude  $10^{\circ} 48' 30''$  east of Greenwich.

By command of their Lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, }  
LONDON, 14th October, 1856, }

This notice affects the following Admiralty Charts:—North Sea, General, 2,330; Baltic, General, No. 2,339; the Kattegat, No. 2,114; also Danish Pilot, p. 56; and Danish Lighthouse List, No. 92 a.

## LIGHTS IN THE BLACK SEA.

The Director of Lights for the Turkish government has recently issued the following notices:—

**FIXED LIGHT AT THE SULINA.** On and after the 15th day of September last, the harbor light provisionally exhibited at the entrance of the Sulina, or middle branch of the Danube, would be replaced by a coast light of greater power. The new light is a fixed light of the second order. It is said to be placed at an elevation of 65 feet above the level of the sea, and should be visible from the deck of a ship in clear weather at a distance of 15 miles. The light tower is of stone, circular, and colored white. It stands on the south side of the entrance, in latitude  $45^{\circ} 9' 0''$  N., longitude  $29^{\circ} 41' 0''$  east of Greenwich.

**REVOLVING LIGHT ON FIDONISI.** On and after the 15th day of October last, the harbor light provisionally exhibited upon Fidonisi or Serpents' Isle, off the mouths of the Danube, would be replaced by a coast light of greater power. The new light is revolving, showing a bright face every half-minute. It stands at a height of 195 feet above the level of the sea, and should be visible from the deck of a ship at a distance of 18 miles. In clear weather, the eclipses will not be total to an observer when within 8 miles of the light. The lighthouse is a wooden structure, 70 feet in height from base to vane, and is placed on the summit of the isle in latitude,  $45^{\circ} 15' 30''$  N., longitude,  $30^{\circ} 14' 54''$  east of Greenwich.

**RED LIGHTS AT KUM KALEH—DARDANELLES.** On and after the 15th day of September last, two red lights would be established at Kum Kaleh, in the western battery of the first or new Castle of Asia, on the south side of the entrance to the Dardanelles. The lights are placed in line one above the other, the elevation of the upper light being 50 feet above the level of the sea. At a distance of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles the two lights will combine and form one light, the range of which will be about 4 miles. By command of their Lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, }  
LONDON, October 31, 1856. }

This notice affects the following Admiralty Charts:—Black Sea, General, 2,214; Cape Kaliakra to Odessa, No. 2,231; River Danube with Fidonisi, No. 2,207; Mediterranean Sea, No. 2,158; Archipelago, General, and sheet 4, Nos. 1,650, 1,654; Entrance to Dardanelles, No. 1,608; Sea of Marmora, No. 224; also Black Sea Pilot, pp. 22, 24; Dardanelles Pilot, p. 15; and Mediterranean Lighthouse List, Nos. 180\*\*, 188, 189.

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**EAST COAST OF BRAZIL—INTERMITTENT LIGHT AT MACEIO.**

The Brazilian government has given notice that on the 1st day of July last a new light was established in the Port of Maceio, capital of the province of Alagoas, on the coast of Brazil. The light is intermittent, with a flash every second minute. It shows a steady light of the natural color for 70 seconds; it is then eclipsed for 16 seconds, then a bright flash for 12 seconds, another eclipse for 22 seconds, and then again the steady light; thus completing its phases in an interval of 2 minutes. The illuminating apparatus is a catadioptric lens of the third order. The light is placed at an elevation of 208 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be visible in clear weather at a distance of 22 miles. The light tower stands on the western point of the hill which overhangs the city of Maceio, on the spot where a powder magazine once stood, in latitude  $9^{\circ} 39' 18''$  S., longitude  $35^{\circ} 41' 24''$  west of the meridian of Greenwich.

By command of their Lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, }  
LONDON, 21 October, 1856. }

This notice affects the following Admiralty Charts:—South America, East Coast, Sheet 5, No. 529; Maceio Port, No. 539; also South American Lighthouse List, No. 14 a.

## IRELAND, NORTH COAST—RATHLIN ISLAND LIGHTHOUSE.

Official information has been received at this office, that the Port of Dublin Corporation has given notice that a lighthouse has been erected on Rathlin Island, Co. Antrim, from which lights will be exhibited on the night of the 1st November next, (1856,) and thereafter will be lighted during every night from sunset to sunrise. The lighthouse tower is built on the northeast point of Rathlin Island, situated in latitude  $55^{\circ} 18' 10''$  N., and longitude  $6^{\circ} 10' 45''$  W., bearing from Rhins of Islay Light S., distant  $25\frac{1}{2}$  nautic miles; Mull of Cantire Light W. N. W.  $\frac{1}{2}$  N., distant 13 nautic miles; Corsewall Point Light N. W.  $\frac{1}{4}$  N., distant 39 nautic miles; Maiden Rock South Light N.  $\frac{1}{4}$  W., distant 27 nautic miles.

The upper light in the lantern of the tower will be revolving, giving a bright light during fifty seconds, and being eclipsed during ten seconds—the periods of light and darkness following in regular succession. It will be visible from seaward between the bearings of S. E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  S., round by the eastward to N. E. by N., also in passing through the channel westward of Rathlin Island from E. N. E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  N. to E.  $\frac{1}{4}$  N., and will be colored red on the line of the Carickavanan Rock. The light is 243 feet over the level of the sea at high water, and in clear weather may be seen within the distance of 21 miles. The lower light will be fixed, of the natural appearance; and being placed 61 feet below the level of the upper, will be seen as a separate light, within the distance of 10 miles, and from seaward between the bearings of S. E. by S. and N. N. E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  E., and will not be visible to vessels in the channel westward of Rathlin Island. The tower is circular, 88 feet in height from its base to the ball over the dome. A red belt will be painted under the projecting gallery. Bearings stated are magnetic. Var.  $28^{\circ}$  W.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE LIGHTHOUSE BOARD, }  
WASHINGTON, Oct. 30th, 1856.

## LIGHTHOUSE AT SABINE PASS.

A lighthouse has recently been erected on Brant Point, east side of Sabine Pass, Louisiana, and will be lighted for the first time on or about the evening of January 1, 1857, of which due public notice will be given. The tower is octagonal in shape, and painted white. It is 75 feet in height to deck of lantern. The illuminating apparatus is a third-order Fresnel lens, showing, at an elevation of  $84\frac{1}{2}$  feet above sea level, a fixed white light varied by flashes, and should be seen, under ordinary states of the weather, from the deck of a vessel, at a distance of about 16 nautical miles. The approximate position of this lighthouse is—latitude,  $29^{\circ} 43' 55''$  N., longitude,  $93^{\circ} 50' 19''.4$  W. from Greenwich. To cross the bar bring the lighthouse to bear N. W. by N., and run in N. W., passing the Louisiana shore abreast of the lighthouse at a distance of 200 yards.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

W. H. STEVENS, Corps of Engineers, Lighthouse Inspector.

GALVESTON, TEXAS, October 29, 1856.

## CAPE HATTERAS BEACON LIGHT.

A wooden open frame-work beacon has been erected on the end of the Sand Spit extending in nearly a due south course from the Cape Hatteras Lighthouse. The beacon tower has an elevation of 43 feet above the mean level of the sea; is painted red, and fitted with a sixth-order lens apparatus. A fixed white light will be exhibited on the night of the 15th of December, 1856, and on every night thereafter, from an elevation of 35 feet above the mean level of the sea.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

W. H. C. WHITING, First Lieutenant Corps of Engineers.

WILMINGTON, N. C., November 10, 1856.

VOL. XXXVI.—NO. I.

**PORTPATRICK HARBOR LIGHT, SCOTLAND—WEST COAST.**

The following notice to mariners has been received at this office :—

The Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty having directed that the inner lighthouse at Portpatrick be relighted, notice is hereby given that on and after the evening of the 15th day of October next, (1856,) a fixed light of the natural color will be exhibited from the inner lighthouse in Portpatrick Harbor, in the same position as formerly, namely, in latitude,  $54^{\circ} 50' 28''$  N., longitude,  $5^{\circ} 7' 0''$  west of Greenwich, nearly. The light will be of the sixth order; it will stand at a height of 44 feet above the mean level of the sea, and will be visible from the deck of a ship at a distance of 8 miles in clear weather, through an arc of  $180^{\circ}$  of the horizon, open to the westward or to the seaward. The tower is of stone, 30 feet high, and painted white; it stands at the southeast angle of the harbor, and at 130 yards within the outer lighthouse at the pier-head, which is not lighted. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE LIGHTHOUSE BOARD, }  
WASHINGTON, November 11, 1856. }

**ENGLAND, SOUTH COAST—MOTHERBANK BUOY.**

The following official information has been received at this office :—

The Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty having directed a Black Buoy to be moored off the outer Spit of the Motherbank, to mark the channel of the Pitt Coal Depot, notice is hereby given that the following marks and bearings denote its position, and that it lies in 30 feet at low water, ordinary spring tides, viz :—The second westernmost of the six clumps of trees on Portsdown Hill, in line with the Surgeon's House, (white,) at the eastern end of Haslar Hospital, bearing E. N. E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  N. The Fir Gardens on Portsdown Hill, in line with the western end of Anglesea Terrace, bearing N. E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  N. The highest church at Ryde, in line with the outer end of Ryde Pier, (the church is large, slate roofed, and has a small spire or cupola on its western end,) bearing S. S. W.  $\frac{1}{2}$  W.; Old Castle Point N. W. by W.; South Sea Castle E.  $\frac{1}{2}$  N.

Thus the channel to the Pitt Coal Depot, for ships from the westward, will lie between the Black Buoy and the White Western Buoy of the Sturbridge; while those coming from the eastward will pass between the East Buoy of the Sturbridge and the Chequered Sand Head Buoy to the southward of it. All bearings are magnetic.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

THORNTON A. JENKINS, Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE LIGHTHOUSE BOARD, }  
WASHINGTON, D. C., Nov. 11th, 1856. }

**LIGHTHOUSE AT ABSECOM, NEW JERSEY.**

Notice is hereby given that a new tower and keeper's dwelling, at Absecom, New Jersey, are now nearly completed, and that on or about the 15th day of January, 1857, a fixed white light of the first order will be exhibited therefrom. The tower is of brick, unpainted, and will be surmounted by an iron lantern, painted black. The focal plane will have an elevation of 167 feet above mean tide, and the light should be seen, under favorable circumstances, from the deck of an ordinary sailing vessel, at a distance of about 20 nautical miles. The approximate position of this light, as deduced from the Coast Survey Charts, is—latitude,  $39^{\circ} 22'$  north, longitude,  $74^{\circ} 25'$  west from Greenwich. Due notice will be given of the precise date when the light will be first exhibited.

By order of the Lighthouse Board,

W. F. RAYNOLDS, First Lieut. Corps Topographical Engineers.

PHILADELPHIA, November 10, 1856.

NOTE.—The notice issued on the 30th September gave the latitude  $39^{\circ} 42' N.$ , which should have been  $39^{\circ} 22' N.$

## LIGHTHOUSE AT ARANSAS PASS, TEXAS.

A lighthouse has been recently erected at Aransas Pass, upon Low Island, the approximate position of which is as follows:—Latitude,  $27^{\circ} 54' N.$ , longitude,  $97^{\circ} 03' 54'' W.$  of Greenwich. The tower is octagonal, and is painted dark brick color. It is 55 feet in height to the deck of the lantern. The illuminating apparatus is a fourth-order Fresnel lens, showing a fixed white light at an elevation of  $59\frac{1}{2}$  feet above the level of the sea, and which, under ordinary states of the atmosphere, should be seen from the deck of a vessel at a distance of about 13 nautical miles. The light will be exhibited for the first time on or about the evening of the 1st of January, 1857, of which, however, due public notice will be given. The light when bearing  $N. W. \frac{1}{2} W.$  will show between the two points of the Pass, but the bar shifts so often that no directions can be given for crossing without a pilot. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

W. H. STEVENS, Corps of Engineers, Lighthouse Inspector.  
GALVESTON, TEXAS, October 29, 1856.

## PARTIAL ECLIPSE OF THE SKAGEN OR SKAW LIGHT.

THE KATTEGAT—JUTLAND.

The Royal Navy Department at Copenhagen has given notice that the new lighthouse building on the Skagen or Skaw Point will attain such an elevation during the present year as will partially prevent the actual light on that point from being seen in the direction of the Skagen Spit, which extends from the Skagen Point to the eastward. Mariners are hereby cautioned thereof.

By command of their Lordships,

JOHN WASHINGTON, Hydrographer.

HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE, ADMIRALTY, }  
London, October 8, 1856. }

This notice affects the following Admiralty Charts:—North Sea, General, No. 2,339; North Sea, sheet 3, No. 2,248; Baltic, General, No. 2,262; Skagerrak, No. 2,289; the Kattegat, No. 2,114; Danish Lighthouse List, No. 80.

## RANGE LIGHT AT IPSWICH HARBOR, MASSACHUSETTS.

A light will be exhibited on and after December 10th, 1856, to serve as a range with the light in the eastern tower, for crossing the bar at the entrance of Ipswich Harbor at night. The light is exhibited from a large Fresnel lantern, hoisted at the top of a stake. The stake is 15 feet high, painted black, and is placed near the beach. In running in, bring the stake light in range with the harbor light, and run for it. This will take a vessel in over the bar in not less than  $7\frac{1}{2}$  feet water at low tide, and by the inner spit buoy in 12 feet water at low tide. After passing this buoy the course up the harbor is  $W. N. W.$  Strangers should be careful not to rely too implicitly on this range, as the bar is a shifting one. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

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

BOSTON, November 24, 1856.

## SELF-REGISTERING COMPASS.

The self-registering compass, by M. Deluil, is designed to register the changes of direction in a vessel for every three minutes during the twenty-four hours. The marking is made upon a compass card. It consists of a clock movement placed at the center of the apparatus for causing the point or pivot carrying the needles to move up and down at regular intervals—of an endless screw, furnished with a nut carrying the point, for piercing the paper—and of the compass card, made of three needles fixed to a sheet of mica. The mica is covered with a desk

of velvet, firmly glued to it by means of strong glue, and whose tissue has been saturated with a kind of glue that is soft when cold. When the needle is fixed toward the north, the axis or diametral line of the compass-yard is placed in the line of the axis of the ship, and the punctures made every three minutes indicate the deviation of this axis.

## JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

### THE NEW YORK CITY FIRE LAW.

We give below a synopsis of the New York City Fire Law in relation to the construction of buildings, passed April 14, 1856.

The fire limits are extended to 100 feet north of Forty-second-street, on a line extending from the North to the East river.

All buildings are required to be built of (three kinds of material, and no other,) stone, brick, or iron. Foundations must be stone or brick.

All buildings, other than dwellings, more than 30 feet in width, must have a partition wall not less than 12 inches thick, (the old law 8 inches,) or girders not less than 10 by 12 inches square, (no size was fixed by the old law,) sustained by pillars of stone, brick, or iron, not more than 10 feet apart, (old law was 15 feet.) Pillars, if oak, locust, or yellow-pine, when used, must not be less than 7 inches in diameter.

Buildings can be built more than 30 feet in width, but not more than 40 feet in width, if they are constructed with iron beams or girders of the proper size, and not distant from each other more than 15 feet.

All girders must rest upon walls at least 12 inches thick, and all posts or pillars must be started from a wall of stone or brick, at least 12 inches thick.

All buildings, other than dwellings, over 50 feet in height, must have walls, whether outside or party walls, at least 16 inches thick, to the under side of the second tier of beams; and if the under side of the second tier of beams is not 20 feet in height, to the under side of the third tier of beams.

No wall, after it is built, shall be increased in thickness, so as to be considered any thicker than it was originally; and all walls must be built with headers every five courses.

No wood or wood-work shall be placed within 8 inches of any chimney flue, (old law only referred to discharging and arch-pieces.)

Where the breastwork of a chimney projects more than 4 inches, it must be started from the foundation.

All flues, without reference to the purpose for which intended, must have the joints struck smooth on the inside.

All buildings are required to be anchored with iron anchors to each tier of beams, and ends turned down 4 inches.

All buildings, other than dwellings, over 35 feet in height, must have shutters of iron or copper on all openings in the rear and sides above the first story, and all iron or copper shutters in front above the first story, must be constructed so

as to be opened from the outside, and all buildings must have scuttles, and be provided with a ladder on the inside.

Every trimmer or header used in any building, other than a dwelling, shall be hung in stirrup-irons of suitable thickness for the size of the timbers.

All openings in buildings, other than dwellings, not more than 6 feet in breadth, shall have a lintel of stone or iron, 12 inches in height and half the thickness of the wall upon which it rests. Openings exceeding 6 feet in breadth, shall have lintels 1 inch additional in height for every additional foot in breadth of opening. Openings must have a brick arch not less than 8 inches in thickness on the inside of the lintel.

Cast-iron arched lintels, when used in any building, shall have a bearing upon the wall, on each side, of 24 inches in length, and be of the same breadth as the wall to be supported, and a brick arch must be turned over all such lintels.

Section 26 provides that the sections and provisions of this act shall be applicable to every brick dwelling-house, store, or storehouse, or other brick building—(nothing is said about iron or stone buildings)—hereafter to be erected or built in any part of the city or county of New York.

Section 31 provides that if cause of violation be not removed within 10 days after service of notice, the Supreme Court of this State, and the Court of Common Pleas for the city and county of New York, and the Superior Court, shall have power to enforce the penalties provided by law and this act, and to restrain, by injunction, the further erection, building, raising, altering, or enlarging of any building, whether erected, raised, altered, enlarged, removed, or built upon, or in the course of erection; and also, to adjudge and decree that such building or buildings shall be taken down and removed.

The forfeiture for a violation of any of the provisions of the fire law has been reduced from \$500 to \$100, and the limitation of time to bring an action, from 18 months to 12 months.

If, by a violation of any of the sections of this law, a building is considered improperly constructed or unsafe, within one year after it has been erected, it surely must be equally unsafe or improperly constructed after the expiration of that time. The limitation clause should be repealed.

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#### DANIEL WEBSTER'S EXPERIENCE IN INSURANCE.

Nearly or quite fifty per cent of the losses sustained by underwriters or insurance companies are caused by fraud on the part of the insured, or the torch of the incendiary. Companies not unfrequently pay losses, which they are satisfied, from circumstantial or other evidence, are fraudulent. The following authentic anecdote of Daniel Webster's experience, as an attorney in such cases, is given in a late number of *Harper's Magazine* :—

"Soon after I had commenced the practice of my profession in Boston," said Mr. Webster, "a circumstance occurred which forcibly impressed upon my mind the sometimes conclusive eloquence of silence, and I wondered no longer that the ancients had erected a statue to her as a divinity.

"A man in New Bedford had insured a ship, lying at the time at the wharf

there, for an amount much larger than its real value, in one of our insurance offices in Boston. One day news arrived in Boston that this ship had suddenly taken fire, and been burned to the water's edge. It had been insured in the Massachusetts Insurance Company, of which General Arnold Wells was president, and myself attorney.

"General Wells told me of the misfortune that had happened to the company, in the loss of a vessel so largely insured; communicating to me, at the same time, the somewhat extraordinary manner in which it had been destroyed.

"'Do you intend,' I asked him, 'to pay the insurance?'

"'I shall be obliged to do so,' replied the general.

"'I think not; for I have no doubt, from the circumstances attending the loss, that the ship was set on fire with the intent to defraud the company of the insurance.'

"'But how shall we prove that? and what shall I say to Mr. —, when he makes application for the money?'

"'Say nothing,' I replied, 'but hear quietly what he has to say.'

"Some few days after this conversation, Mr. — came up to Boston, and presented himself to General Arnold Wells, at the insurance office. Mr. — was a man very careful of his personal appearance, and of punctilious demeanor. He powdered his hair, wore clean ruffles and well-brushed clothes, and had a gravity of speech becoming a person of respectable position. All this demanded civil treatment; and whatever you might think of him, you would naturally use no harsh language toward him. He had a defect in his left eye, so that when he spoke he turned his right and sound eye to the person he addressed, with a somewhat oblique angle of the head, giving it something such a turn as a hen, who discovers a hawk in the air. General Arnold Wells had a corresponding defect in his right eye.

"I was not present at the interview, but I have heard it often described by those who were. General Wells came out from an inner office, on the announcement of Mr. —'s arrival, and *fixed* him (to use a French expression) with his sound eye—looking at him serious, but calmly. Mr. — looked at General Wells with *his* sound eye, but not steadily—rather as if he thought to turn the General's right flank.

"They stood thus, *with their eyes cocked* at each other, for more than a minute, before either spoke; when Mr. — thought best to take the initiative.

"'It is a pleasant day, General Wells, though rather cold.'

"'It is as you say, Mr. —, a pleasant though rather cold day,' replied the General, without taking his eye down from its range.

"'I should not be surprised, General,' continued Mr. —, 'if we should have a fall of snow soon.'

"'There might be more surprising circumstances, Mr. —, than a fall of snow in February.'

"Mr. — hereupon shifted his foot, and topic. He did not feel at ease, and the less so from his desperate attempts to conceal his embarrassment.

"'When do you think, General,' he inquired, after a pause, 'that Congress will adjourn?'

"'It is doubtful, I should think, Mr. —, when Congress will adjourn; perhaps not for some time, yet, as great bodies, you know, move slowly.'

"'Do you hear anything important from that quarter, General?'

"'Nothing, Mr. —.'

"Mr. — by this time had become very dry in the throat—a sensation, I have been told, one is very apt to feel who finds himself in an embarrassing position, from which he sees no possibility of escape. He feared to advance, and did not know how to make a successful retreat. At last, after one or two desperate and ineffectual struggles to regain self-possession, finding himself all the while within point-blank range of that raking eye, he wholly broke down, and took his leave, without the least allusion to the matter of insurance.

"He never returned to claim his money."

## MARINE INSURANCE.

Marine insurance has been a topic of considerable discussion in several of the leading journals of New York and Boston. We copy the notes from a late number of the *Boston Traveller*, as germane to the subject:—

The business of marine insurance, has, in the aggregate, proved rather unprofitable for several years past, and consequently premiums have been advanced, and restrictions imposed, until a state of things has been reached, when it will be found undoubtedly better for persons having good vessels, in the hands of good masters, who will see to it that they are well constructed, properly loaded, and suitably manned, in many cases to become their own underwriters, and invest the amount of the premiums which they may save annually, in a guaranty fund, upon which they may draw, from time to time, to make up the losses, which will occasionally occur, even under good management.

Some of the larger offices, particularly those on the mutual principle, have become so arbitrary in their restrictions, and so exorbitant in their premiums, on certain classes of risks, that we counsel every merchant who has an interest in three or four ships, which he knows to be staunch vessels, good sea-boats, and well manned, to keep clear of them, and try the principle which we have here proposed, and which we know has been very successfully acted upon in some instances.

It can be demonstrated as plainly as the simplest problem in mathematics, that the man who has an interest in four good ships, well officered and manned, can, under the present system, afford to let them run without insurance, and if he suffers a moderate partial loss on one of his ships every year, or one of a severe kind once in two years, or a total loss every four years, he will be better off than if he kept them all insured. Every one is aware, that with such vessels as we have described, no such run of ill luck as this ever occurs in a series of years.

The truth is, as things go now, the good have to come into the offices on a par with the bad, and the careful and capable are compelled to make up the losses of the careless and incompetent. A sound and wise system of insurance, is not one of arbitrary classification alone. This needs to be modified by mental discernment, which can understand the times and seasons; which watches the signs and portents of the day, and takes cognizance not only of inanimate matter, but of animate life and the power of volition.

The causes which have led to an unusual and unnecessary loss of property at sea, are obvious to every intelligent mind, and they may be guarded against, in a great measure. These causes have arisen in the rapid increase of our commercial marine, which has brought ships upon the ocean faster than competent seamen and navigators could be found to take care of them, and hastened the construction of many vessels of unfit models, and defective materials and workmanship. Anything in the shape of a man has been taken to make up the complement of seamen for a ship, and the incompetency of a crew has undoubtedly been the cause of the loss of many valuable ships.

One of the most frequent causes of the loss of ships, is improper loading; not so much overloading, as neglect of properly distributing the cargo on board, so as to bear in due proportion, and most easily upon the vessel. The new tariff bill recently before Congress, and which will come up again at the next session, if it is passed without amendment in regard to the restriction against carrying any cargo between decks, in passenger ships, will involve the loss of a large per centage of those vessels. The bill was evidently prepared by one who had no knowledge in regard to this subject.

In the rapid increase of tonnage, for several years past, ships have often been too hastily and imperfectly constructed, especially for carrying heavy cargoes; and when to this have been added the errors already spoken of, we shall cease to wonder at the extent of marine losses, and rather be surprised that they have not been greater.

Before concluding, we will advert to two more causes which have led to the loss of many first-class ships, in all other respects well constructed, and properly taken care of, namely, neglect of adequate caulking, while loading in hot latitudes, and the defective arrangement and breaking of water-closet pipes. From the discoveries which have been made, not unfrequently in season to apply a remedy, there is no doubt that this last cause has led to the abandonment of many ships in a sinking condition, which otherwise would have met with no accident. This is a matter most imperatively demanding more care and attention, alike from the builders, the owners, and the underwriters. Again, in the numerous instances in which our ships are now laden with heavy and valuable cargoes, in hot climates, it should be insisted upon, that every shipmaster should be abundantly supplied with the necessary material, and see to it, that each and every seam is thoroughly caulked and well payed, immediately before it sinks into the water.

## COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

### CONSULAR FEES OF THE UNITED STATES.

We publish below, from an official copy furnished to the editor of the *Merchants' Magazine* by the Department of State at Washington, the consular fees prescribed by the President of the United States, in accordance with the provisions of the acts of Congress approved August 18, 1856, regulating the diplomatic and consular systems of the United States:—

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, November 10, 1856.

The following is the rate or tariff of fees prescribed by the President to be charged by all consular officers for the services herein specified, which "shall be regarded as official services," and the fees therefor collected in American or Spanish silver dollars, or their equivalent.

At the expiration of each quarter the statement of fees must be rendered, pursuant to Forms Nos. 8, 33, 44, and 45 of the printed instructions, by all consular officers entitled to salaries residing at seaports, and pursuant to Forms Nos. 9 and 33, at inland places, to the Secretary of the Treasury, and the amount thereof held subject to his draft or other directions. If the consular officers are not entitled to salaries, the returns must be made to the Secretary of State.

#### RECEIVING AND DELIVERING SHIP'S PAPERS.

For receiving and delivering ship's register and papers, including consular certificates, as prescribed in Forms Nos. 38 and 39, half a cent on every ton, registered measurement of the vessel for which the service is performed.

#### DISCHARGING OR SHIPPING SEAMEN OR MARINERS.

For every seaman, from one to ten, who may be discharged or shipped, including certificates therefor attached to crew list and shipping articles, to be paid by the master of the vessel, 50 cents; but no additional charge shall be made for any number of seamen exceeding ten, who may be discharged from or shipped between the date of the arrival and departure of the vessel.

#### PROTESTS, PASSPORTS, ETC.

For noting marine protest.....	\$1 00
For extending marine protest.....	2 00
And if it exceed 200 words, for every additional 100 words.....	1 00

For issuing warrant of survey on vessels, hatches, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either .....	1 00
For a passport, including seal .....	1 00
For visaing a passport .....	1 00
For preparing agreement of master to give increased wages to seamen, attested under seal. ....	1 00
For preparing any other official document or instrument of writing, not herein named or enumerated, if under 100 words. ....	1 00
If exceeding 100 words, for every additional 100 words .....	6 50

FOR THE FOLLOWING CERTIFICATES, VIZ.:—

Of the deposit of a ship's register and papers, when required by custom-house authorities. ....	\$0 25
In cases of vessels deviating from the voyage. ....	0 50
When the ship's register is retained entire in the consulate. ....	0 25
For master to take home destitute American seamen .....	no fee.
Of conduct of crew on board, in cases of refusal of duty and in cases of imprisonment, &c. ....	0 25
Given to master at his own request, (for example, see Form No. 48). ....	0 50
To a seaman, of his discharge .....	no fee.
Of appointment of new master, including oath of master. ....	1 00
Of the ownership of a vessel .....	0 50
Of decision and award, in cases of protests against masters, passengers, or crew, (for example, see Form No. 49). ....	2 00
Of roll or list of crew, when required by the captain or authorities of the port .....	0 50
To bill of health. ....	0 50
To shipping articles. ....	0 50
Of canceling ship's register. ....	0 50
To debenture certificate, including oaths of master and mate .....	1 25
To invoice, including oath .....	2 00
To currency .....	0 50
Of sea letter .....	2 00
Of indorsement of bottomry on ship's register .....	0 50
Of indorsement on payment of bottomry on ship's register .....	0 50
Of indorsement of new ownership on ship's register. ....	0 50

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

Of the master to bottomry bond .....	\$1 00
Of the merchant to assignment of bottomry bond. ....	1 00
Of the vendor to a bill of sale of vessel .....	1 00
Of the master to a mortgage or mortgage bill of sale of vessel. ....	1 00
Of the master to an order for payment of seamen's wages or voyages, at home, including making up order, if required .....	0 50
Of one or more persons to a deed or instrument of writing .....	2 00
Of one or more persons to a power of attorney. ....	2 00

DECLARATIONS AND OATHS.

Of declaration and oath of master to one or more desertions, including oaths, attached to crew list and shipping articles. .... each	0 50
To one or more deaths or losses of seamen overboard at sea, including oaths, attached to crew list and shipping articles. .... each	0 50
To not being able to procure two-thirds of a crew of protected American seamen .....	0 50
To ship's inventories or stores .....	0 50
To the correctness of log-book .....	0 50
To ship's bills and vouchers for disbursements and repairs .....	0 50

AUTHENTICATING COPIES OF PAPERS.

Of marine note of protest. ....	\$1 00
Of extended protest .....	2 00

Of call, warrant, and report of survey on vessel, hatches, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either, (for example, see Form No. 50) .....	1 00
Of inventories and letters, or either, of masters .....	1 00
Of account of sales of vessel, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either .....	1 00
Of advertisement for funds on bottomry .....	1 00
Of advertisement of sale of vessel or cargo, provisions or stores .....	1 00

## AUTHENTICATING SIGNATURES.

To reports of survey on vessel or cargo, provisions or stores .....	\$1 00
To estimate of repairs of vessel .....	1 00
To (auctioneer's) account of sales of vessel or cargo, provisions or stores .....	1 00
To average bonds .....	2 00
Of governors, judges, notaries public, custom-house and other officers .....	2 00
Of merchants and individuals .....	2 00
For any other consular certificate or services of like character not herein named or enumerated .....	0 50

## CONSULS' ORDERS AND LETTERS.

To send seamen to hospital .....	no fee.
To send seamen to prison .....	0 50
To release seamen from prison .....	0 50
To authorities or captain of the port, in cases of sinking vessels, (for example, see Form No. 51) .....	0 50
Requesting the arrest of seamen .....	0 50
For any other letter or order of like character .....	0 50

## FILING DOCUMENTS IN CONSULATE.

Calls of survey on vessel, hatches, cargoes, provisions, and stores, or either ..	\$0 25
Warrants of survey on vessels, hatches, cargoes, provisions, and stores, or either .....	0 25
Reports of survey on vessels, hatches, cargoes, provisions, and stores, or either .....	0 25
Estimate of repairs of vessel .....	0 25
Consul's certificate to advertisement for funds on bottomry .....	0 25
To advertisement of sale of vessel, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either ..	0 25
Inventories of vessels, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either .....	0 25
Letter of master notifying consul of sale of vessel, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either .....	0 25
Of master notifying auctioneer of sale of vessel, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either .....	0 25
Accounts of sale of vessel, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either .....	0 25
For filing any other document prepared in or out of the consulate .....	0 25

## RECORDING DOCUMENTS.

Calls of survey on vessel, hatches, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either; warrants and reports of ditto, ditto; estimates of repairs; certificates of consuls to advertisements for funds on bottomry, and of sale of vessel; inventories of vessel, cargo, provisions, and stores; letter of master to consul notifying sale of vessel, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either; letter of master to auctioneer, and account of sales of vessel, cargo, provisions, and stores, or either, for every 100 words .....	\$0 20
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(As the original documents are required to be filed in the consulate, it will not be necessary to record them. Should it ever become necessary, however, to deliver up the originals, they must be recorded before delivery, the party receiving the same paying the record fee, as above mentioned.)

Order and consul's certificate to pay seamen's wages or voyages, at home ..	\$0 25
Certificate given to master at his own request, when required .....	0 25
Appointment of new master .....	0 25

Application of a citizen of the United States for a sea letter .....	0 25
Sea letter, for every 100 words .....	0 20
Bill of sale, when required, for every 100 words .....	0 20
Consul's letter to captain of port, or authorities, in cases of sinking vessels..	0 25
Consul's certificates to masters taking home destitute American seamen....	no fee.
Protests of masters and others, other than marine protests, for every 100 words .....	0 20
Average bonds, when required, for every 100 words .....	0 20
Powers of attorney, when required, for every 100 words.....	0 20
Any other document or instrument of writing not herein named or enumerated, prepared in or out of the consulate, and required to be recorded, for every 100 words.....	0 20

ESTATES OF DECEASED AMERICAN CITIZENS.

For taking into possession the personal estate of any citizen who shall die within the limits of a consulate, inventorying, selling, and finally settling and preparing or transmitting, according to law, the balance due thereon, 5 per cent on the gross amount of such estate. If part of such estate shall be delivered over before final settlement, 2½ per cent to be charged on the part so delivered over as is not in money, and 5 per cent on the gross amount of the residue. If among the effects of the deceased are found certificates of foreign stocks, loans, or other property, 2½ per cent on the amount thereof. No charge will be made for placing the official seal upon the personal property or effects of such deceased citizen, or for breaking or removing the seals, when required by the person or persons referred to in section 29 of the act of August 18, 1856.

MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES.

For consul's seal and signature to clearance from custom house authorities..	\$0 50
For administering oaths, not hereinbefore provided for..... each	0 25
For consul's attendance at a shipwreck, or for the purpose of assisting a ship in distress, or of saving wrecked goods or property, over and above traveling expenses, a per diem of \$4, whenever the consul's interposition is required by the parties interested.....	4 00
For attending an appraisement, where the goods or effects are under \$1,000 in value .....	3 00
For attending valuation of goods of \$1,000 and upwards in value, for every day's attendance during which the valuation continues.....	5 00
For attending sale of goods, if the purchase money be under \$1,000.....	3 00
For attending sale of goods, if the purchase money is \$1,000 and upwards, for every day during which the sale continues .....	5 00
For attending sale of vessel, when required.....	2 00

FEEs FOR UNOFFICIAL SERVICES, PERQUISITES OF THE CONSULAR OFFICERS.

As the unofficial acts of a consular officer may be performed by a notary public, and as the compensation charged therefor is regarded as a perquisite of his office, the rate of such compensation may be determined either by agreement or the custom of the place, subject, however, to future instructions.

By order of the President,

W. L. MARCY, Secretary of State.

RATES OF COMMISSIONS

RECOMMENDED BY THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, TO BE CHARGED WHERE NO EXPRESS AGREEMENT TO THE CONTRARY EXISTS.

We publish by request the following report of a special committee of the Chamber of Commerce. This report will come up for discussion at the next meeting of the Chamber, to be held at the Mercantile Library Rooms on the first Thursday evening of January, 1857 :—

## BANKING.

On purchase of stocks, bonds, and all kinds of securities, including the drawing of bills for payment of same. . . . .	per cent	1
On sale of stocks, bonds, and all kinds of securities, including remittances in bills and guaranty. . . . .		1
On purchase or sale of specie and bullion. . . . .		$\frac{1}{2}$
Remittances in bills of exchange. . . . .		$\frac{1}{2}$
Remittances in bills of exchange with guaranty. . . . .		1
Drawing or indorsing bills of exchange. . . . .		1
Collecting dividends on stocks, bonds, or other securities. . . . .		$\frac{1}{2}$
Collecting interest on bonds and mortgages. . . . .		1
Receiving and paying moneys on which no other commission is received. . . . .		$\frac{1}{2}$
Procuring acceptance of bills of exchange payable in foreign countries. . . . .		$\frac{1}{4}$
On issuing letters of credit to travelers, exclusive of foreign bankers' charge. . . . .		1
Where bills of exchange are remitted for collection, and returned under protest for non-acceptance or non-payment, the same commissions are to be charged as though they were duly accepted and paid.		

## GENERAL BUSINESS.

On sales of merchandise, whether for cash or on credit, including guarantee. . . . .		5
On purchase and shipment of merchandise, on cost and charges. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
Collecting delayed and litigated accounts. . . . .		5
Effecting marine insurance, on amount insured. . . . .		$\frac{1}{2}$
No amount to be charged for effecting insurance on property consigned		
Landing and re-shipping goods from vessels in distress, on value of invoice. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
"    "    on specie and bullion. . . . .		$\frac{1}{2}$
Receiving and forwarding merchandise entered at custom-house, on invoice value 1 per cent, and on expences incurred. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
On consignments of merchandise withdrawn or reshipped, full commissions are to be charged, to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and one-half commission on the residue of the value.		
On giving bonds that passengers will not become a burthen on the city—on the amount of the bonds. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
The risk of loss by robbery, fire, (unless insurance be ordered,) theft, popular tumult, and all other unavoidable occurrences, is in all cases to be borne by the owners of the goods, provided due diligence has been exercised in the care of them.		

## SHIPPING.

On purchase or sale of vessels. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
Disbursements and outfit of vessels. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
Procuring freight and passengers for Europe, East Indies, and domestic ports. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
"    "    for West Indies, S. America, and other places. . . . .		5
Collecting freight. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
Collecting insurance losses of all kinds. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
Chartering vessels on amount of freight, actual or estimated, to be considered as due when the charter-parties are signed. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
But no charter to be considered binding till a memorandum, or one of the copies of the charter has been signed.		
On giving bonds for vessels under attachment in litigated cases—on amount of liability. . . . .		$2\frac{1}{2}$
The foregoing commissions to be exclusive of brokerage, and every charge actually incurred.		

ROYAL PHELPS.  
DUNNING DUER.  
THOMAS TILESTON.  
CHARLES H. MARSHALL.  
EDMUND COFFIN.

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**POSTAL DEPARTMENT.**

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**INSTRUCTIONS TO POSTMASTERS, AND INFORMATION FOR LETTER-WRITERS.**

The following instructions to postmasters contain a great variety of information of interest to all who communicate with correspondents in any way through the mails of the United States. They are issued by the Department, and are therefore authentic decisions :—

No. 1. A postmaster, whose compensation for the last preceding year did not exceed \$200, can send through the mail, free of postage, all letters written by himself, and receive letters addressed to himself, on his own private business, the weight of each letter not to exceed half an ounce. He cannot receive free nor frank printed matter of a private nature; nor letters addressed to his wife or any other member of his family; nor can he frank letters to editors or publishers, containing money in payment of subscription.

But every postmaster, whatever may have been his annual compensation, can send and receive, free, communications, whether written or printed, relating exclusively to the business of his office or of the Post-office Department.

If a postmaster, having the franking privilege, franks matter which exceeds half an ounce in weight, and which does not relate exclusively to the business of his office, or of the Post-office Department, the excess is chargeable with postage; and if not so charged at the mailing office, the charge should be made at the office of delivery. Postmasters' assistants are forbidden by law to exercise the franking privilege under any circumstances.

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 prepaid, 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 subscribed, they should be mailed free.

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.

No. 2. 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 prepaid 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 steamboat 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 prepaid, 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. On all such letters the master of the vessel is entitled to receive two cents each.

No. 3. Letters enclosed in stamped envelopes may be carried out of the mail, provided such stamps are equal in value and amount to the rates of postage to which such letters would be liable if sent in the mail; and provided, also, that the envelopes are duly sealed, &c.

No. 4. A letter bearing a stamp cut or separated from a stamped envelop cannot be sent through the mail as a prepaid letter. Stamps so cut or separated from stamped envelopes lose their legal value. Stamped envelopes, as well as postage stamps on prepaid letters, should be canceled immediately on the letters being placed in a post-office.

No. 5. When a letter is delivered, and the postage paid thereon, the postage should not be returned after the letter has been opened, except in cases where the postmaster is satisfied it has been opened by the wrong person through mistake; in which event the letter should be resealed, and a memorandum of the mistake made thereon in writing.

No. 6. To enclose or conceal a letter, or other thing, (except bills and receipts for subscription,) in, or to write or print anything after its publication upon, any newspaper, pamphlet, magazine, or other printed matter, is illegal, and subjects such printed matter, and the entire package of which it is a part, to letter postage; and if done in order that the same may be carried by post free of postage, subjects the offender to a fine of five dollars for every such offense; and in such cases, if the person addressed refuse to pay such letter postage, the package should be returned to the postmaster from whose office it came, to prosecute the offender for the penalty. Printed slips or circulars stitched or pasted in with the body of periodicals or magazines with which they have no legitimate connection, are attempts to evade the law; and all such matter which does not form, and was not intended and originally printed to form, a regular part of the contents of any given number of a periodical or magazine and its cover, must be considered as extraneous matter, subjecting the whole copy with which it is thus sought to be incorporated to letter postage. All transient printed matter should be distinctly postmarked and rated at the mailing office.

No. 7. Any word of communication, whether by printing, writing, marks, or signs, upon the cover or wrapper of a newspaper, pamphlet, magazine, or other printed matter, other than the name and address of the person to whom it is to be sent, subjects the package to letter postage; and such postage should be, like all other letter postage, prepaid, or the matter should not be mailed. If, however, it reaches the office of delivery unpaid, and the party addressed shall refuse to pay letter postage thereon, further proceedings should be waived, their being no concealment or attempt at fraud, and the package placed with the other refused matter in the office. A pen or pencil mark, made for the sole purpose of attracting the eye to a particular article or portion of printed matter, does not subject such matter to letter postage.

No. 8. Contractors and mail carriers may carry newspapers out of the mails, for sale or distribution among regular subscribers; but when such papers are placed in a post-office for delivery, postage must be charged and collected. Contractors and other persons may also convey books, pamphlets, magazines, and newspapers, (not intended for immediate distribution,) done up in packages as merchandise, and addressed to some *bona fide* agent or dealer.

No. 9. 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 distance, established by the act of March 3, 1855.

No. 10. Books, not weighing over 4 pounds, may be sent in the mail, prepaid, at 1 cent an ounce, any distance in the United States under 3,000 miles, and at 2

cents an ounce over 3,000 miles, provided they are put up without a cover or wrapper, or in a cover or wrapper open at the ends or sides, so that their character may be determined without removing the wrapper. If not prepaid, the postage under 3,000 miles is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cents, and over 3,000 miles in the United States, 3 cents an ounce.

No. 11. Publishers of newspapers may, without subjecting them to extra postage, fold within their regular issues a supplement, provided the weight of the whole does not exceed  $1\frac{1}{2}$  ounces, within the State where printed, or 3 ounces when sent out of the State. But in all such cases the added matter must be a genuine supplement or appendage to the newspaper in question, and of the same essential character, conveying intelligence of passing events of general interest.

No. 12. Money and other valuable matters sent by mail are at the risk of the owner.

No. 13. Payment of postage on newspapers, periodicals, and magazines, quarterly or yearly in advance, may be made either at the office of mailing or office of delivery. When made at the mailing office, it is the duty of the postmaster to send to the office of delivery evidence thereof. The receipt of the postmaster of the mailing office is sufficient evidence of payment.

No. 14. Postmasters, assistants, and clerks, regularly employed in post-offices, are exempt from militia duty and from serving on juries, but not from working on roads, nor from obeying a summons to appear in court as witnesses, or to testify before a grand jury. Justices of the peace, unless excluded by their own State laws, may serve also as postmasters.

No. 15. Daguerreotypes, when sent in the mail, should be rated and charged with letter postage by weight.

No. 16. Letters mailed in the cars can be prepaid only by using postage stamps or stamped envelopes; and when not thus prepaid, it is the duty of postmasters to treat all such letters as unpaid, although marked "paid," no route agent being permitted to receive prepayment in money.

No. 17. Unsealed circulars, advertisements, and business cards, not weighing over 3 ounces, sent in the mail to any part of the United States, are chargeable with 1 cent postage each when prepaid, or 2 cents when not prepaid. Where more than one circular is printed on a sheet, or a circular and letter, each must be charged with a single rate. This applies to lottery and other kindred sheets assuming the form and name of newspapers; and the miscellaneous matter in such sheets must also be charged with one rate. A business card on an unsealed envelop of a circular subjects the entire package to letter postage. If sealed, all printed matter is subject to letter postage, and whenever subject to letter postage, all printed matter must be prepaid.

No. 18. Postmasters are allowed one cent for the delivery of each free letter, except such as come to themselves, and two mills each on newspapers (to subscribers) not chargeable with postage. They are not allowed any commission on printed matter made free by the frank of a member of Congress.

No. 19. Properly franked mail matter, or mail matter addressed to a person enjoying the franking privilege, is entitled to be carried free in the mail, when "forwarded" to the person elsewhere, as well as in its transportation simply to the office to which originally addressed.

No. 20. Postmasters receiving letters referring to business not connected with the Department, but designed to promote private interest, without payment of postage, must return said letters to the parties, sending them under a new envelop, charged with letter postage.

No. 21. The postmaster who collects the postage on newspapers, periodicals, magazines, etc., quarterly or yearly in advance, is entitled to the commissions on the same, although he may go out of office immediately thereafter, and the paper or periodical be delivered by his successor. He should, however, leave in the office a record of all such payments.

No. 22. *Bona fide* subscribers to weekly newspapers, can receive the same free of postage, if they reside in the county in which the paper is printed and published, even if the office to which the paper is sent is without the county, provided it is the office at which they regularly receive their mail matter.

No. 23. Bills of lading and unsealed letters relating exclusively to the whole, or any part of the cargo of a vessel or steamboat, may be sent on such vessel or steamboat outside of the mail, unless they are placed in an envelop with other matter. In the latter case, the whole package is subject to letter postage.

No. 24. When newspapers or periodicals are not taken out of the post-office by the persons to whom they are addressed, the postmaster will, under his frank, give immediate notice to the publisher, stating the cause thereof, if known.

No. 25. Postmasters cannot deliver letters from their respective offices, which may be addressed to, and deliverable from, other offices.

No. 26. Postage cannot be prepaid on regular newspapers or periodicals for a less term than one quarter; and, in all cases, postage must be paid on such matter at the commencement of a quarter.

No. 27. Under no circumstances can a postmaster open a letter not addressed to himself.

No. 28. Exchange newspapers and periodicals cannot be remailed, without being chargeable with postage.

No. 29. The same person cannot act as a mail contractor or mail carrier, and as postmaster or clerk in a post-office, at the same time.

No. 30. Postmasters will apply for blanks as follows:—Those in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, California, and Oregon, will apply to the Blank Agent at New York, N. Y. Those in the District of Columbia, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, will apply to the First Assistant Postmaster-General, Washington, D. C. Those in Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, Texas, New Mexico, Utah, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Kansas, will apply to the Blank Agent at Cincinnati, Ohio. Blank Registers, for arrival and departure of the mails, however, are sent out by the Inspection Office, Washington, D. C.

No. 31. A pamphlet is a printed, but unbound publication, relating solely to some subject of local, ephemeral, or temporary interest, or importance; or, if upon a subject of general interest or importance, called forth, like a lecture or an address, by, or for some local event, or as appropriate to some particular occasion. Hence, with the exception of those not containing more than sixteen octavo pages each, for which, under certain conditions, the act of August 30, 1852, has made special provision, no publication, although folded and unbound, can be permitted to pass in the mail as a "pamphlet," instead of a "book," unless its scope and subject are such as to bring it fairly within the distinctive definition above given.

No. 32. By the act of March 3, 1855, requiring from and after April 1, 1855, prepayment, either by stamps, stamped envelops, or in money, of all letters not entitled to go free, to places within the United States, the single rate, under 3,000 miles, is three cents, and over 3,000 miles, ten cents. It does not change the then existing franking privilege, which, by another act, is extended to ex-Vice-Presidents of the United States. By the act of March 3, 1855, also, the Postmaster-General may require postmasters from and after January 1, 1856, to "place postage stamps upon all prepaid letters, upon which such stamps may not have been placed by the writers." The Postmaster-General requires postmasters to comply with, and carry into effect this provision of the law, They will take care, if not already done, to supply themselves with postage stamps accordingly, by sending orders for them, addressed to the Third Assistant Postmaster-General, Washington, D. C.; and, until a supply reaches them, will continue to forward all prepaid letters in the same manner as they have done before January 1, 1856.

On drop letters prepayment is optional.

No. 33. The act of March 3, 1855, making no provision for unpaid letters to places within the United States, on the same day, or day following, any such unpaid letter or letters being put into a post-office, the postmaster will post up conspicuously in his office a list of the same, stating that they are held up for postage. If not attended to, 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 as letters wholly unpaid.

No. 34. 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.

No. 35. Copyright books, charts, etc., 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.

## STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

### THE CULTIVATION OF COTTON IN ALGIERS.

In answer to the circular issued by the Commissioner of Patents on the 29th of February, 1856, John J. Mahony, Esq., United States Consul at Algiers, has sent the following interesting information in relation to the production, commerce, and manufacture of cotton in Algiers. It will be recollected that a series of questions were propounded in this circular, with a view to aid in the making up of the summary of particulars which it was most desirable should be obtained.

In answer to the first question—What species or varieties of cotton are cultivated, if any, in Algeria?—he says:—

The Sea Island, long staple, and nankeen or yellow species of cotton are cultivated in Algeria.

2. Are the varieties annual or perennial, or both?

The varieties are annual; but about eighteen months ago the planters were advised to try to make them perennial by letting the plants stand for the ensuing season. It, however, proved unsuccessful; for, with a few isolated exceptions, they were killed with the winter rains.

3. What variety is cultivated to the best advantage?

Of the varieties grown here, the long staple is cultivated to the best advantage; as it comes to maturity first, it consequently receives less of the autumnal rains than the species that mature later.

4. How long have they been cultivated there, and from what country were they obtained?

The cotton-plant has been grown with more or less success in the government botanical nurseries of this colony since 1847. Three years ago the Emperor offered a bounty to encourage its cultivation in Algeria, and the government agreed to purchase, at several times its market value, all that might be grown here. The seed came from the United States, through the French consul at Charleston.

5. Has the general character of the cotton fiber as to length, strength, or uniformity, deteriorated since its introduction?

Cotton grown in this country deteriorates in every sense of the word; so much so, that foreign seed has to be procured almost every year. I have as yet only seen one good specimen, which was grown in the province of Oran.

6. What amount, in pounds, is produced per annum in Algeria?  
 The product of 1854 amounted to 81,893 kilogrammes, or 180,552½ pounds. The returns for 1855 have not yet been made public.

7. What amount, in pounds, is exported, if any, and to what countries?  
 It is exported to Havre, where it is sold on account of the French government.

8. What amount, in pounds, if any, is manufactured, and what the character of the goods?  
 There is none manufactured here.

9. What is the usual price of ginned cotton fiber per pound?  
 The prices vary from 1 70-100 to 11 francs the kilogramme; cast at 18 3-5 cents to the franc, is 10½ and 92 4-5 cents to the pound.

10. Is it ginned by the roller or saw gin?  
 There has been a small wooden machine, with rollers, on exhibition here; it was a miserable affair, capable of ginning, with the assistance of a man, only 6 pounds of fiber in 12 hours. Some of the farmers take the seed out with their hands, but the largest portion deliver their cotton as they pick it. There are three receiving-houses, one in each province, located at the principal government nursery, where there are 1 saw and 6 McCarthy gins.

11. How much fiber do 100 pounds of unginned cotton yield?  
 One hundred pounds of unginned Sea Island cotton yields 27 pounds of fiber, and the long staple species 23.

12. Where are the gins manufactured?  
 The saw gins were manufactured in the United States, and I should judge, from the wood and workmanship of the McCarthy gins, that they were made in France from a model received from America. Of the six in this province, only one works tolerably well.

13. How is it packed—by hand, by screw, or by press, and how many pounds in a bale?  
 It is screwed into long and square bales, each containing about 90 kilogrammes, or 198 pounds; the former contain the Sea Island species.

14. What is the cost of the production of a pound of fiber well ginned?  
 I have not been able, with any kind of certainty, to ascertain the cost of producing cotton in Algeria, having found a difference of nearly 80 per cent in the statements made to me by the cultivators. One thing is certain, that notwithstanding the high prices paid by the government, its cultivation is for the most part abandoned as being unprofitable.

15. Are the soil and climate well adapted to its profitable growth?  
 The soil is well adapted to its cultivation, but the climate is quite the reverse, from the lack of rain, the very light dews, the heat of summer, and the almost incessant rain of autumn.

16. What is the maximum, minimum, and mean of the thermometer of each of the cotton-growing months?  
 Not having a Fahrenheit thermometer, and having forgotten how to rate it with the systems Reaumur and Centigrade, I regret to be compelled to give the maximum, minimum, and mean of the thermometer, as taken at this consulate from the latter system, as follows:—

	8 A. M.	M.	5 P. M.
April, 1845.....	17 5-10	18 1-10	18
May.....	20½	22½	20 1-10
June.....	21 2-5	22½	21½
July.....	27	28	26½
August.....	26 1-10	27½	27½
September.....	26½	27½	26½
October.....	22 1-5	25½	22½
November.....	18	19 2-5	18 1-5
December.....	13 3-5	14 5-6	14½
January, 1855.....	15	19	15 1-6

17. What amount, in inches, of rain which falls during said months?

The report of rain which fell during the last cotton-growing season, in millimetres and inches, is as follows:—

	Millimetres.	Inches.
April, 1855.....	99 6-10	3 46117-50000
May .....	32 8-10	1 29169-100000
June .....	45 7-10	1 79971-100000
July .....	.....	.....
August.....	.....	.....
September.....	00 2-10	787-106000
October .....	80 7-10	3 4451-25000
November .....	56 8-10	2 23683-100000
December .....	140 9-10	5 54877-100000
January, 1856.....	26 6-10	1 4753-100000

There has been far less rain during the past fall and winter than has been known for many years; in fact, many of the cisterns are nearly dry, which is a source of great anxiety.

18. What is the usual mode of cultivation?

It is planted in rows about two feet apart, hoed four times, and irrigated as often as water can be spared from other plants; where the latter is abundant, the cotton field is watered every four days.

19. Is manure employed for the crop; and if so, what kinds are the most economical and best?

Stable manure is sometimes used for the crop; but few farmers pay any attention to dressing their fields; their cattle not being housed, their means of making manure are very limited.

20. In what months are the seeds planted?

The seeds are planted from the 15th of April to the 10th of May.

21. What months are the plants in flower?

The pods begin to form in July, and the plants are in flower from September to February.

22. In what months is the cotton harvested or secured?

The harvesting commences in September and lasts until the following spring.

The 23d question, in relation to the usual yield of cotton to the acre, could not be answered with any certainty.

24. What is the value of cotton land per acre?

Up to this time the government has made donations of the land in Algeria. In many instances the recipients—who for the most part are protected by persons of influence—have disposed of their concessions at about \$5 the acre. The value of land in this colony varies in proportion as the following questions are satisfactorily answered:—Is the location healthy? Or is it so unhealthy that it is dangerous to sleep on it? Can the land be irrigated? Is it liable to be inundated by the torrents that rush from the mountains in the spring? Or is it located near a place offering a cover for lions and panthers? The wild beasts of this country are a great annoyance to the farmer, as they devour his stock and frighten the herds, so that it is with difficulty that they are kept together.

25. What is the annual rent per acre of cotton land?

I don't know of one farm in Algeria that is let by the acre or hectare. The majority of them are worked by poor families, who receive 50 per cent of the net proceeds, the proprietor furnishing the stock and implements necessary for carrying it on.

26. What causes, if any, operate injuriously to the cotton crop, either by insects, climate, or the physical, political, and social condition of the inhabitants?

The climate of Algeria is not adapted to the cultivation of cotton; it cannot be planted before the middle of April without running the risk of the seeds perishing from the excessive moisture of the land; therefore it does not arrive at

maturity before the almost incessant rains of autumn commence, which nearly stop its vegetation.

In the fall of 1854 and spring of 1855, I watched with care the progress of the cotton-plant in some twenty different localities, and the result was, that on the 1st of October about 15 per cent of the crop above referred to had been picked in a damaged state, being tender and wet when housed. From that time to the 1st of February I judged that 12 per cent more was gathered in a worthless condition, the pods having but partially opened, and were continually saturated with water, so that one-half of the contents of every bud was decayed and quite black; of the remainder, or nearly three-fourths of the whole crop planted, with the exception of a few that cracked the pods, looked in the spring as fresh and green as they did in the month of August, although the plants were dead at the roots.

The province of Oran is reported to be better adapted to the growth of cotton than the other two; but not having as yet visited it, I am unable to verify this rumor. However, it is well known that its cultivation there last year was almost exclusively confined to persons said to be connected with the cotton factories of France, as the failures of the previous season came so near ruining the poorer farmers that they could not be prevailed upon to try it again.

The Emperor's prize for 1854 of 20,000 francs, at the request of the committee, was divided between a Frenchman and an Arab chief, they being unable to decide, according to their report, which of them ought to receive it. Now the fact was, the Arab, being under the influence of the "political bureau," was induced to cultivate cotton on a large scale for this country, with a view to give him one of the prizes whether he merited it or not, in order to stimulate his race to its cultivation.

The report of last year's committee has not yet been made public, but it is supposed that the Frenchman above alluded to will get the principal prize, as he has planted this spring 70 hectares, or 131 1-11 acres, with cotton. His farm is in the western province.

Notwithstanding the encouragement given to the cultivation of cotton in Algeria, it is in a most languishing condition. The past spring there were a few bales shipped from this port to Havre, which was for the most part grown by individuals who have made themselves conspicuous by their writings on the subject, and who are possessed of sufficient means to bear the sacrifice they are doubtless obliged to make.

The past season the Arabs brought in a little in a wet, matted state, and as they have a habit of running their sheep over a fine sandy plain before shearing them, in order to increase the weight of the fleece, to the same end they mixed small stones with their cotton, which nearly spoiled all the saw gins.

Owing to the unusual dryness of last fall and winter, the cotton growers had a remarkable opportunity to ripen and gather their crops; but notwithstanding Providence favored them in this respect, to the detriment of all other cultivation, their efforts were a failure.

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#### THE AGRICULTURAL FUTURE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The *Courier and Enquirer* brought together in a compact form, some time since, a few statistics, to show the future progress of the United States, and although they have been given in other forms in past numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, we think it proper to present, in this connection, an interesting exhibit of our agricultural condition and prospects. The United States contained at least 113,000,000 acres of land under cultivation in 1850. It has largely increased since that period. It is reasonable to suppose, from the active demand since for agricultural products, that the quantity has now increased to 130,000,000 or 140,000,000. It is here that the main sources of our progress as a nation will hereafter mainly lie; and it is here that we have such a strong hold upon Western

Europe. There is no limit to the product of cotton, tobacco, rice, hemp, and grains, in our Southern and Western States.

On the other hand, Great Britain is limited in its means of cultivation of agricultural staples; and while her strength lies obviously in her machinery, we have, and will continue to have, ample facilities for the exchange of products. In 1854, agricultural statistics were supplied by some dozen counties in England and Wales, and the acreage of the whole country was calculated from these returns. By bringing the facts reported in the Scottish and Irish returns for the same year into comparison, we obtain the following results, which it may be useful to throw into a tabular form:—

	Acres.	Acres.
England—under tillage.....	12,441,776	
in grass.....	15,212,203	
waste.....	9,670,936	
		37,324,915
Scotland—under tillage.....	2,003,695	
in grass.....	9,234,990	
waste.....	1,374,660	
		12,613,345
Ireland—under tillage.....	4,312,746	
grass.....	1,257,864	
unaccounted for.....	15,237,661	
		20,808,271

Let us compare the above with the ample products of the United States, and which are increasing at the rate of five or ten per cent annually:—

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

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

This aggregate is not one-tenth of the whole area of the country, as is shown in the annexed summary of agricultural ratios:—

Sections.	Whole area in acres.	Land in use.	
		Improved.	Unimproved.
New England.....	41,624,320	11,150,594	7,216,864
Middle States.....	73,359,360	26,200,608	16,212,717
Southern States.....	165,573,760	26,614,289	61,169,373
South Western States.....	165,573,760	26,614,289	61,169,373
North Western States.....	253,004,160	32,643,567	46,963,790
California and Oregon Territory.	629,255,680	352,880	4,340,214
Texas.....	152,002,560	643,940	10,852,362
Total.....	1,466,455,680	113,032,614	180,528,900

We refer to the following appropriate remarks by ex-President John Tyler, in an article furnished by that gentleman, and published some time since in the *Merchants' Magazine*, upon the commercial growth of the country:—

“Who can undertake, at this day, to estimate the probable amount of exports

and imports at the end of the present period of twenty-five years? Already trade, breaking through new channels, begins to empty into our lap the treasures of India, and when the great tide which bears that commerce upon it shall have actually set in, as it assuredly will, you may measure the waters of the ocean, and count the stars of the firmament, but arithmetic will fail in the effort to calculate the extent of wealth which will flow into our cities. Ancient Tyre, but a mere peninsula, enjoyed a rivulet of that trade, and she grew into the most mighty of cities. Venice and Genoa, in the course of time, possessed it; and their Doges proclaimed them the brides of the sea. But, say ye, who shall foretell the future, ye venerable Seers, if any such there be now on this earth, what dowry shall equal that of America, when the Atlantic shall have fully wedded that of America?"

## STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

### POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, AND THE VALUE OF THEIR PRODUCTS.

The Secretary of the Treasury, in a communication to Congress in 1856, gives the following table, showing the population of the different States and territories, and the value of real and personal estate therein, prepared in part from enumerations and valuations, and in part from estimates:—

POPULATION AND PROPERTY OF THE UNITED STATES.					
States.	Population.	Val. Property.	States.	Population.	Val. property.
Alabama ...	835,192	\$279,233,027	Mississippi...	671,649	251,525,000
Arkansas ...	253,117	64,240,726	Missouri.....	831,215	223,948,731
California ...	335,000	165,000,000	N. Hamp'sr..	324,701	103,804,327
Connecticut..	401,292	203,759,331	New Jersey...	569,499	179,750,000
Delaware....	97,295	30,466,924	New York..	3,470,059	1,364,154,625
Florida.....	110,724	49,461,461	N. Carolina..	921,852	239,603,372
Georgia.....	935,090	500,000,000	Ohio.....	2,215,750	860,877,354
Illinois.....	1,242,917	333,237,474	Pennsylvania.	2,542,960	1,081,731,304
Indiana.....	1,149,606	301,358,474	R. Island...	166,927	91,699,850
Iowa.....	325,014	110,000,000	S. Carolina..	705,661	303,434,240
Kentucky....	1,036,587	410,000,198	Tennessee...	1,092,470	321,776,310
Louisiana...	600,387	270,425,000	Texas.....	500,000	240,000,000
Maine.....	623,862	131,128,186	Vermont....	325,206	91,165,680
Maryland....	649,580	261,243,660	Virginia....	1,512,593	530,994,897
Mass.....	1,133,123	597,936,995	Wisconsin...	552,109	87,500,000
Michigan ...	509,374	116,593,580	D. Columbia.	59,000	25,568,703
TERRITORIES.					
Minnesota...	65,000	20,000,000	Utah.....	39,500	4,250,000
N. Mexico...	63,500	7,250,000	Kansas.....	11,000	2,350,000
Oregon.....	36,000	7,775,000	Nebraska...	4,500	1,235,644
Washington.	5,500	1,650,000			

The footing of the above table shows a population of 26,964,313, with property, real and personal, amounting to \$9,817,641,072. To this to be added for property not valued for under valuation, and for rise in the value of property since 1850, \$1,500,000,000; giving a total of \$11,317,641,072.

In the construction of this table, when the enumerations and valuations are not given from official state returns, it has been assumed that the population and property of the country have increased in the same ratio since the general census of 1850, in which they increased during the decennial period from 1840 to 1850. The increase has, without doubt, been proportionally greater.

In some States the latest official valuations have been given. These are of

various dates, and are, it is believed, much too low. The valuation for Massachusetts is for 1850; for Maryland and Michigan, for 1853; for Connecticut, New York, and Missouri, for 1854; and for other States, for 1855.

With respect to some of the States, the official valuation is so very low, that it has been deemed necessary to add to it considerably, in order to represent fairly the true value of the property in those States. Thus, to Pennsylvania, \$500,000,000 have been added; to Virginia, Tennessee, and Missouri, \$100,000,000 each.

Texas and California are exceptional cases, and their population and wealth have been estimated upon such data as could be obtained. The Controller of Texas is the authority for that State.

The Governor of Georgia says, in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury, dated the 18th of April, 1856, that in that State "the total amount of the taxable property of all kinds is about \$500,000,000."

The Governor of Minnesota says, in a letter dated January 29th, 1856, that the returns he transmits of the value of the property in that territory, "are but approximations," the returns not being complete.

The official valuation of the property in the territory of Nebraska, for the year 1855, was so small—only \$617,822—that it was thought proper to double it in the table, and it is still too low, probably.

The Auditor of the State of Indiana says, in his annual report, (November 24, 1855,) "a new valuation of the real estate would probably make the total taxable \$380,000,000."

The territories of Kansas, Nebraska, and Washington, do not appear at all in the census of 1850, except as component parts of other States or territories, and, with respect to them, the estimated numbers and values may be very inaccurate, as they may be, indeed, with respect to the other territories, and some of the new States.

The State valuations of property are for assessment purposes, and are not only low, but the taxable property only has been valued; and in all the States there are many kinds of property, some of it valuable, that are not taxed.

Supposing the whole population of the United States to be 27,000,000, then, taking the State of Maine as a criterion, with respect to the value of property, the amount for all the States and territories will be, in round numbers, about \$5,760,000,000.

Taking the State of New York as a criterion, the amount will be, in round numbers, about \$10,611,000,000.

Taking the State of Kentucky, then it will be about \$10,000,000,000.

Taking the State of Illinois, it will be about \$7,290,000,000.

Taking the State of Arkansas, it will be about \$6,750,000,000.

Taking the State of Georgia, it will be about \$14,430,000,000.

Taking the two extremes, the maximum and the minimum, Georgia and Maine united, it will be about \$10,000,000,000.

Taking Ohio and Kentucky, which will make perhaps a very fair mean, the amount will be \$10,268,000,000.

Taking the seven States as a criterion, the amount will be about \$9,233,000,000. This is too low, however, for the official valuation is too low in them all, unless it be Georgia.

## THE IRISH CENSUS OF 1851.

The Irish Census Commission of 1851 has completed its task, and the sixth part and tenth volume of the series of publications, which began with the record of the population, presented to the Lord-Lieutenant in 1851 and 1852, has been laid before the Earl of Carlisle. In reference to the famine and emigration of 1845 and the following disastrous years, the Commissioners set down the total decrease of the rural population from that double cause at 19.85 per cent, or exactly at 1,622,739; but of course this enormous figure does not truly represent the havoc then made by death and voluntary exile. There being no general measure for the registration of births, marriages, and deaths in Ireland, the Commissioners had no data whereby to ascertain what should have been the normal increase of the population between 1841 and 1851. The total loss of population from 1841 to 1851 was not less than 2,466,414. It appears that in 1851 there was a net decrease of 271,006 houses below 1841. Yet, notwithstanding this decline, there was "more houses by a considerable number in 1851 than the wants of the diminished population required."

## RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

## COMMERCE OF THE OHIO CANAL AT CLEVELAND.

Our esteemed correspondent, Mr. Barry, of the *Commercial Gazette*, has furnished to our hands the following tabular statement of the leading articles arrived and cleared at the port of Cleveland on the Ohio Canal, during the years 1853, 1854, 1855, and 1856, in barrels, bushels, pounds, feet, &c., with the amount of money received at the Collector's office for tolls, water rents, fines, and penalties:—

	ARRIVED.			
	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
<i>Barrels—</i>				
Flour.....	589,466	297,045	210,168	230,147
Pork.....	15,582	40,618	.....	9,651
Whisky.....	39,807	25,233	7,456	22,974
<i>Bushels—</i>				
Corn.....	168,713	428,823	196,345	222,125
Coal.....	4,969,174	4,885,003	6,339,404	5,184,344
Oats.....	11,763	30,048	18,329	76,915
Wheat.....	1,817,677	657,267	283,526	384,007
<i>Pounds—</i>				
Butter.....	1,844,554	1,302,887	336,304	529,394
Furniture.....	789,047	502,881	207,642	227,196
Broom-corn.....	221,486	610,972	523,498	391,195
Bacon.....	1,160,624	779,877	332,460	427,353
Cheese.....	1,178,525	844,728	847,786	340,200
Eggs.....	543,526	300,564	93,146	237,911
Fruit, dried.....	421,355	294,048	109,640	145,918
Fruit, undried.....	111,414	25,485	33,902	110,603
Glass and glassware.....	1,560,063	179,581	2,544,213	1,216,369
Grindstones.....	425,404	246,000	453,376	1,393,787
Iron, pig and scrap.....	4,073,076	7,659,062	14,138,761	20,912,285
" wrought.....	8,082,464	10,561,030	10,818,133	10,799,456
" cast.....	163,700	393,697	89,180	255,325
Lard.....	792,792	886,420	798,608	372,040

	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.
Machinery .....	212,383	188,903	81,788	108,102
Merchandise .....	960,225	628,938	664,879	320,537
Nails .....	7,156,277	6,238,488	9,405,465	13,545,732
Oil-cake .....	319,752	8,000	.....	337,537
Potters' ware .....	2,500,291	4,345,282	3,660,987	4,308,659
Powder .....	.....	16,997	8,300	64,370
Ashes, pot and pearl ...	128,222	106,489	96,516	77,553
Wool.....	1,200,903	562,485	350,239	306,707
<i>Feet</i> —				
Lumber .....	1,241,319	1,167,000	591,365	579,120
Timber .....	287,347	98,314	23,126	93,545
<i>Perch</i> —				
Stone .....	27,582	26,767	11,233	9,702
CLEARED.				
<i>Barrels</i> —				
Fish .....	18,260	10,325	5,378	6,268
Salt .....	39,959	38,856	39,606	29,009
Lime, water and quick..	.....	.....	.....	6,492
Whisky.....	662	996	1,039	1,089
<i>Bushels</i> —				
Barley .....	2,315	7,423	3,243	16,108
Wheat .....	5,833	51,765	65,077	48,661
<i>Pounds</i> —				
Furniture .....	235,902	213,652	91,994	122,833
Cheese.....	73,950	53,831	14,100	23,406
Coffee .....	1,132,899	815,726	387,200	329,060
Candles .....	32,367	42,092	16,934	30,593
Crockery .....	465,508	375,113	139,181	141,427
Carpenter & joiners' work	.....	.....	.....	110,080
Grinstones.....	258,908	272,295	162,234	371,800
Gypsum .....	4,234,958	5,180,700	2,507,663	1,292,267
Glass .....	41,510	.....	5,870	32,280
Iron, pig and scrap.....	4,102,182	1,000,390	1,281,234	652,133
“ wrought .....	26,042,447	16,172,430	11,041,643	4,974,742
“ cast .....	1,291,530	966,143	168,251	287,913
“ ore .....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Leather .....	226,376	260,550	73,160	95,578
Machinery .....	239,929	92,698	49,733	79,267
Merchandise .....	7,495,908	5,907,298	3,438,233	3,156,000
Marble.....	1,636,088	1,504,813	1,390,280	1,563,014
Molasses .....	878,138	411,635	242,498	233,379
Nails .....	344,698	531,538	182,089	106,853
Powder.....	918,613	418,360	42,306	191,244
Sugar .....	1,013,047	701,395	360,812	700,652
<i>Lumber</i> —				
Hoops, split and flat....	1,530,487	772,754	555,700	1,733,800
Shingles .....	8,045,446	6,472,300	4,553,533	5,127,425
Lath .....	.....	.....	.....	1,594,650
<i>Feet</i> —				
Lumber .....	14,590,978	10,570,113	9,125,396	6,695,548
Timber.....	9,233	10,422	3,953	9,974
Amount of money received for tolls, water rents, fines, &c.....	\$53,010 28	\$45,450 26	\$43,210 10	.....
	1855.		1856.	
Total number of tons of 2,000 lbs. each .....	Arrived. 309,696	Cleared. 42,607	Arrived. 286,517	Cleared. 42,414

## THE RAILWAYS CONNECTED WITH MONTREAL.

In another part of the present number of the *Merchants' Magazine* will be found an article on "Montreal: its Trade and Commerce." In this connection we give, from the same reliable sources, a statement of the facilities possessed by Montreal as regards railway communication. The intimate and growing commercial intercourse between Canada and the United States render it peculiarly proper that a magazine which has a wide circulation in both countries should note the industrial progress of each. A great chain of railways now links the East with the West, but space is only at our disposal to review those lines with which Montreal directly connects. The first claiming notice, in order of time, is—

## THE CHAMPLAIN AND ST. LAWRENCE RAILROAD,

Which is constructed between the St. Lawrence, at St. Lambert, or South Montreal and Rouse's Point, on Lake Champlain. It was chartered from La-prairie to St. John's in 1831, commenced in 1835, and was open for traffic in 1836. The charter authorizing an extension from St. John's to Rouse's Point and the branch to St. Lambert, was granted in 1851; it was opened for traffic throughout in 1852. Its total length, including the Laprairie branch, is forty-nine miles, and the cost of road, wharves, stations, and equipment, amounted to £381,195.

This, the oldest railroad in Canada, connects at Rouse's Point with the Vermont and Canada Railroad, and with all the lines of railroad to Boston, New York, and all parts of the New England States, and also with the Ogdensburgh Railroad and with the Lake Champlain steamers, thus affording the greatest facilities for communication with New York, Boston, Albany, Troy, Rochester, Buffalo, Niagara Falls, Canada West, and the Western States, and being a direct and uninterrupted railroad route to the cities above named. Goods are conveyed between Montreal and Boston, New York and intermediate places, without transshipment; and by this route passengers reach Boston in 13 hours, New York in 15 hours, Buffalo in 24 hours, and Chicago in 48 hours. The next road claiming notice, in order of seniority, is—

## THE MONTREAL AND NEW YORK RAILROAD,

Which comprises, firstly—the Lachine Division, extending from Montreal to Lachine, a distance of 8 miles. It was commenced in 1846, and opened for traffic in 1847. A prominent feature in this road is the steam ferry, between Lachine and Caughnawaga, running directly across the St. Lawrence, a distance of about three-fourths of a mile, but which is increased by the course of the navigation to nearly 2 miles.

This, it may be remembered by the way, is the only steam ferry in Canada East which is open every day in the year. The crossing is made with a powerful steamer, which has been built with a railroad track on its deck, for the purpose of connecting the two divisions of the Montreal and New York Railroad without breaking bulk. The Iroquois crosses the St. Lawrence with a locomotive and tender, and three loaded cars at one time; and this work it is capable of repeating every 15 minutes, if necessity requires it. And, secondly, the Caughnawaga Division, extending from Caughnawaga to the Province Line, a distance of 29 miles. It was commenced in 1851, and opened for traffic in 1852. The total length of the Montreal and New York Railroad, including the ferry, (of say 2 miles,) is 39 miles, and its cost, including superstructure, locomotives, cars, buildings, steamer, wharves, ferry slips, extra land, and general equipment, was £238,229 2s. 9d. currency.

Its connections are, firstly, with the various steamers at Lachine; and, secondly, with the Plattsburgh and Montreal Railroad at the Province Line to Plattsburgh, a distance of 23 miles—making in all 62 miles from Montreal. It crosses and connects with the Ogdensburgh Railroad at Moerer's Junction for

Ogdensburgh, and then with steamers for the West, as also at Potsdam on the Ogdensburgh Line, with the Potsdam and Watertown Railroad—thus forming a continuous line on the south shore of Lake Ontario. It connects also eastward with Rouse's Point, and thence via the Vermont and Canada Railroad, &c., at Plattsburgh, by steam, direct with Burlington and Whitehall, &c., &c.; at either of which points it connects with the various American railroads leading to Boston, New York, Troy, Albany, Schenectady, and the West. The advantages of this railway are its unequaled steam ferry, the fact of there being no dust, from its being ballasted with heavy gravel; the speed that can be attained from its direct course and easy grades, and also the comfort afforded by steady cars, owing to the use of superior iron. It is, in fact, equal to a continuous rail, and lands passengers in the city itself. This line forms part of the nearest direct railway route from Montreal to New York, and is, it is stated, the nearest practicable air line. When the remaining link from Plattsburgh to Whitehall shall be completed, the route may be then easily traveled between the two cities in ten hours. The Montreal and New York Railroad offers the advantage for freight, of the avoidance of the necessity of twice handling previous to delivery. This road has, from a series of unfortunate circumstances, been prevented from obtaining that share of public patronage which its positive advantages would entitle it to; but notwithstanding the consequent want of through business from which it has suffered hitherto, it is gratifying to state that the road has more than paid all its working expenses from the local business alone, thus clearly establishing the fact that with any ordinary amount of through business, the road would give fair returns upon the capital invested in its construction.

We now come to that great undertaking, whose opening is this day being celebrated—

#### THE GRAND TRUNK RAILWAY.

In the fall of 1852, the Grand Trunk Railway scheme was fairly launched into existence, and embraced in its ramifications the construction of a continuous line of railway from Trois Pistoles—about 150 miles below Quebec, on the southern side of the River St. Lawrence, the point at which a junction with the proposed Halifax Railway is looked forward to—and Port Sarnia, on Lake Huron, a distance of upward of 800 miles; also a branch line, of 50 miles in length, from Belleville to Peterborough; and the leasing of the railroad then already built between Montreal and Portland, so that the products of the western points of the Province might be conveyed through Canada to the Atlantic seaboard, without break of gauge or bulk. The total length of unbroken railway communication which will thus be obtained, when the St. Lawrence River is spanned by the Victoria Bridge, a structure unequaled in the history of engineering, either in size or in massive proportions—is upward of 1,100 miles. The original capital of the company was £9,500,000, but this being found insufficient, it has been determined to increase this amount to £12,000,000 sterling, or \$60,000,000. Of this sum, the Province has an interest in the undertaking, in the shape of a guaranty, to an amount of upwards of £3,000,000 sterling, or \$15,000,000. Of the works proposed, however, it was found necessary, from several causes, to place in abeyance the prosecution of three different sections of the work, viz.: the distance between St. Thomas to Trois Pistoles, 100 miles; from Belleville to Peterborough, 50 miles; and from St. Mary's to Sarnia, 68 miles. But these sections will, doubtless, ere long be proceeded with—in the first case, because the Lower Provinces, in all probability, assisted by the Imperial government, will complete their railway communication to Trois Pistoles, in order to connect it with the Canadian railway system; and in the two latter cases, simply because the traffic of the country will very speedily demand the construction of these lines.

With these curtailments, and they are but temporary, the Grand Trunk Railway is now composed of the following sections, viz.: Montreal to Portland, 292 miles; Richmond to Point Levi, opposite Quebec, St. Thomas, 137 miles; Montreal to Toronto, 333 miles; Toronto to Stratford, 88 miles—making a total mileage of 850 miles of—when the Victoria Bridge is completed—an unbroken railway communication.

It is understood that the Victoria Bridge will be completed in the fall of 1859, or early in 1860. The cost of this structure was originally estimated at £1,450,000, but this sum has since been reduced, and the present calculation of its probable cost is about £1,250,000. It is supposed that in its erection 250,000 tons of stone and 7,500 tons of iron have been used. The iron superstructure is supported on 24 piers and 2 abutments. The center span being 330 feet, there are 12 spans on each side of the center, 242 feet each. The length of the abutments is 242 feet each; the extreme length, including abutments, is 7,000 feet. The height above summer water-level in the center opening is 60 feet, descending to either end at the rate of 1 in 130. The contents of the masonry will be 3,000,000 of cubic feet; the weight of iron in the tubes, 8,000 tons. The following are the dimensions of tube through which the trains pass in the middle span, viz., 22 feet high, 16 feet wide; at the extreme ends, 19 feet high, 16 feet wide. The total length from river bank to river bank will be 10,284 feet, or about 50 yards less than 2 English miles. This gigantic structure is in progress, and when in successful operation, will prove a world's wonder. The works throughout the whole of this great length of line have been pronounced by competent authorities, both English and American, to be altogether unequaled by any railway on this continent, and reflect much credit not only on the engineer of the company, but also on the several agents of the contractors, Messrs. Peto, Brassey, Betts & Co., who have conducted them to so successful a completion. On an average, there is a station to every 6 miles, 2 men to every 3 miles, and a locomotive to every 4 miles.

The average running time between Montreal and Toronto, next season, will be about 11 hours, and from Montreal to Portland about 10 hours, and from Montreal to Quebec 5 hours; so that the journey between Montreal and Chicago can be easily accomplished in a day-and-a-half. Apart from the through travel between the East and the West, which must be very large, the junctions between other railways and the Grand Trunk Railway throughout the Province are very numerous, and will provide a heavy traffic. They are as follows:—

Starting from Montreal, a line is to run to Ottawa City, 120 miles in length. There have been opened 12 miles from Greenville to Carillon, but the rest of the works have for some time been stopped. And about 25 miles west of Montreal, at Vaudreuil, it is proposed to run a line on the south bank of the Ottawa to that city, bearing its name, and thence in a westerly direction to Lake Huron. These lines, in all probability, will become a part of the North Shore Railway Scheme, which is designed to run from the northeast of Lake Huron to Quebec via Ottawa City and Montreal, for the accomplishment of which the Provincial Legislature, in its last session, voted 4,000,000 acres of wild lands.

At Prescott, 112 miles from Montreal, it connects with the Ottawa and Prescott Railway, 50 miles in length to Ottawa City, affording by the junction there the benefit of a continuous railway connection from east and west thereto.

At Brockville, 12 miles west of Prescott, with the Perth, Ottawa, and Pembroke Railroad. This line, about 120 miles long, will be completely opened, it is expected, in about 2 years from the present time.

At Belleville, with the Grand Trunk Branch, of 50 miles in length to Peterborough. The works on this line are, however, delayed for the present.

At Cobourg, with the Cobourg and Peterborough Railway, 28 miles in length to the town of Peterborough.

At Port Hope, with the Port Hope and Lindsay Railway, 36 miles in length.

At Toronto, with the Ontario, Simcoe, and Huron Railroad to Barrie and Collingwood, 94 miles. From Collingwood, 5 steamers ply regularly between Chicago and that port, and arrangements are now making for a regular line of propellers between the two places, calling at intermediate ports on Lake Michigan, and also at Toronto, with the Toronto and Hamilton branch of the Great Western Railway to Hamilton.

At Guelph, with the Galt and Guelph branch of the Great Western Railway.

At Stratford, with the Buffalo, Brantford, and Goderich Railway, from which line the Grand Trunk will collect at this point all the traffic intended for Canada

and Portland, from lakes Huron and Superior. This road, it is expected, will be in full operation early next year.

At St. Mary's, with a branch to London in the Great Western Railway, connecting at that station with that company's line to Sarnia and Detroit.

The Grand Trunk Railway Company have completed arrangements whereby passengers and goods can be booked through from all points in Europe to any place along the lines of the Grand Trunk and Great Western railways, and the railways connecting with them, to the valley of the Mississippi—and, in fact, to all the chief places on this continent. By making one payment in Britain, tickets will be issued for any of these places. No further charges will be incurred for passing goods at Portland or Quebec but a fee of 2s. 6d. per package. Especial arrangements have been made for emigrants, so that tickets for extra baggage and all other charges can be had from the place of departure to the place of destination. These important changes, which will, beyond all doubt, divert the travel from Europe to the great West from New York and other American ports to the St. Lawrence River, will be in full operation next year—thus enabling the emigrant to be conveyed, without change of carriage, from Quebec to Detroit, if the place of destination be further West than that point. The cars will be conveyed across the St. Lawrence, between Longueuil and Montreal, in the steamer, until the Victoria Bridge is finished, and will then afford to the emigrant the cheapest, speediest, as well as the most direct route to the West.

From this brief sketch of the grand provincial railway of Canada and its extended connections, comprising a total length of nearly 1,500 miles now in operation, it will be seen that this province can compare very favorably, the difference of population being considered, with any of the most flourishing States in the adjoining republic; and if, as Washington has observed, it is an object of legislative concern and highly beneficial to the country, to give every facility to the means of traveling for strangers and of intercourse for citizens, the people of this province will never have cause to regret their having assisted the Grand Trunk Railway to the successful completion, which they have now in such numbers met in this city to celebrate, at the invitation of our merchants and other citizens.

#### CLEARING-HOUSE FOR ENGLISH RAILROADS.

The annexed interesting account of a clearing-house for railroads, established in London, in which seventy-three companies are represented, is from a pamphlet published by Mr. Charles Babbage. It is worthy the attention of our railroad managers:—

Soon after the establishment of railways it was found that great inconvenience occurred, both to the public and to the proprietors, from the change of carriages, trucks, &c., at the junctions of different lines belonging to different companies. "While the measures best adapted for obviating these admitted evils were under consideration, it occurred, about the same time, to Mr. Robert Stephenson, and to Mr. K. Morison, the present manager of the railway clearing-house, that a central office, constituted on the principle of the city clearing-house, would furnish the remedy sought. When the idea was suggested to Mr. Glyn, he saw, at a glance, its practical bearing, lent the whole weight of his great influence to procure its being realized in practice, and was mainly instrumental in accomplishing that object."

It was quite natural that such an idea should have occurred to the minds of men of business; but the complicated conditions necessary to be fulfilled in adapting it to the use of railways required the undivided and untiring energies of a mind exclusively devoted to the subject. Fortunately, Mr. K. Morison, who had the charge of the audit department of the London and Birmingham Railway, and who had also drawn up an outline of the system he proposed, was intrusted with its execution.

On January 2d, 1842, the system of the railway clearing-house came into operation on the railways extending from London to Darlington in one direction, and from Hull to Manchester in another.

At the present time (1856) it unites seventy-three companies. "The main principles of the system thus widely diffused are—first, that passengers shall be booked through at all the principal stations, and conveyed to their destination without change of carriage; that horses and cattle shall likewise be sent through without change of conveyance; and that goods shall, in the same way, be carried through without being shifted or reassorted.

"Secondly. That the companies respectively shall pay a fixed rate per mile for such carriages and wagons, not their own property, as they may use; and a further sum per day by way of fine or demurrage for detention, if kept beyond a prescribed length of time.

"And lastly, that no direct settlement shall take place between the companies in respect of any traffic, the accounts of which have passed the railway clearing-house.

"The portion of the clearing system which relates to the settlement of accounts consists of arrangements which are simple in character, and capable of unlimited extension. From each of the clearing-house stations there are sent daily to the central office in London:—

"1. A return of the passengers booked through.

"2. A return of the horses, private carriages, and cattle booked through.

"3. A return of the parcels booked through.

"4. A return of the goods traffic invoiced through.

"5. A return of all the carriages, wagons, &c., which have arrived or been dispatched, either loaded or empty.

"6. Along with these returns are sent all the through tickets collected, and all the parcels' way-bills received during the way.

"From the returns thus transmitted, after they have been examined, compassed, and analyzed, other returns are drawn up in the railway clearing-house, and forwarded to the respective companies in a form which admits of their being verified by the parties receiving them, and exhibiting in detail the portion of the receipts of the through traffic to which each company is entitled, and the liabilities it has incurred by using the carriages and wagons of others. The final settlement of the accounts is effected by the railway clearing-house paying, or receiving, the balances, as the case may be, through the hands of the bankers who act as agents in London to the several companies. In this way all the transactions of one company with all the other companies, amounting frequently to many thousand pounds per week, are cleared weekly, by the remittance of sums seldom exceeding a few hundred pounds.

"The railway clearing-house is under the control of a committee, composed of a delegate from each railway company which is a party to the clearing arrangements. The committee holds four general meetings in the course of the year, and special meetings as often as there may be occasion. The resolutions of the company are passed in the form of recommendations to the companies to adopt the measures proposed, and have no force until they obtain the confirmation of the respective boards. The expense of maintaining the establishment is divided rateably among the companies, in the ratio of the extent of business transacted for each, after a fixed sum has been first carried to the debit of each company, for each of its stations from which accounts are sent to the clearing-house.

"The great, the crowning achievement of the clearing system is the facility, the economy, and the expedition with which it enables the railway companies to work the through traffic. It had its origin, as has been shown, in the desire of railway companies to promote their own interest, in the only way in which they can be effectually promoted, or placed in a position of permanent security—that is, by consulting public opinion. It has grown with the growth of the railway system, and unless the public accommodation be restricted, and the exigencies of the commercial, manufacturing, and agricultural interests disregarded, it must advance to the limits to which continuous communication by railway extend."

The following statement shows the very large increase of business which has taken place during the last ten years ending June, 1845 and 1855:—Number of railroads, 16 in 1845, 73 in 1855; length of joint lines, 6,410 miles in 1855;

number of carriages of all kinds, 219,658 in 1845, 987,178 in 1855; number of goods wagons, 180,606 in 1845, 4,101,066 in 1855; amount of accounts cleared, £401,651 in 1845, £4,819,649 11s. 10d. in 1855; number of miles the rolling stock of the companies ran on lines other than their own, 168,544,234 miles in 1855; number of stations sending returns to the railroad clearing-house, 2,439 in 1855.

A brief summary of what the clearing-house accomplished in 1855 will give a tolerable correct idea of the important part it plays in the railway system.

In that year the accounts cleared amounted to nearly £5,000,000, or one-third of the gross receipts of the associated companies. This large amount was taken in sums which did not exceed a few shillings on an average, at 2,500 stations, on 73 railways. The routes of the traffic, a matter of great intricacy, had to be traced.

The returns of traffic forwarded from and received at each of the 2,500 stations had to be examined and corrected. Allowance had to be made for terminal expenses, working expenses, postages and tolls, and the receipts of each kind of traffic between each two stations of the 2,500 had to be divided into three parts on the average, and frequently subdivided under complex agreements.

Yet, on the 31st of January, 1855, an account was rendered to each company, showing one sum, commonly a small one, to be due, either by it to the clearing-house or the contrary, which sum, when paid, would close all the accounts of that company with all the other united companies for the whole year; and this was done at a cost of about £26,000. Further, it was done without direct communication between companies, and without disputes. The due execution of numerous and complex agreements was watched over, and the system of accounts in use gave the companies the means of putting their accuracy to the strictest test.

Again; in the same year, the vehicles of the companies were traced through 7,192,212 journeys on lines other than their own, over an aggregate distance of nearly 177,395,216 miles, and payment was obtained for each of these lines, as well as for 283,165 days that they were detained contrary to regulation. The sum thus recovered was £263,609 8s., and the final accounts of the year were rendered on the same day as those of the traffic. The cost was about £13,000, which includes the wages paid to the number of men placed at the junctions; a sum which is about half of what the companies would have paid for the same work, as they must have employed, and did at one time actually employ, two sets of men for each set now in the pay of the clearing-house.

## JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

### THE MANUFACTURE OF FRICTION MATCHES.

A recent writer, who appears to be well informed on the subject, thus describes the manufacture of friction or lucifer matches:—

“Among articles of great demand that have become of importance, though apparently insignificant, in our own day, there is nothing more worthy of notice than the friction or lucifer match. About twenty years ago chemistry abolished the tinder-box; and the burnt rag which made the tinder went to make paper. Slowly did the invention spread. The use of the match is now so established, that machines are invented to prepare the splints. In New York, one match manufactory annually cuts up a large raft of timber for matches. The English matches are generally square, and thus thirty thousand splints are cut in a minute. The American matches are round, and the process of shaping being more elaborate, but four thousand five hundred splints are cut in a minute. We will follow a bundle of eighteen hundred thin splints, each four inches long, through its conversion into three thousand six hundred matches. Without being separate, each end of the bundle is first dipped into sulphur—when dry, the splints adhering to each other by means of the sulphur, must be parted by what is called dusting.

"A boy, sitting on the floor with a bundle before him, strikes the matches with a sort of mallet on the dipped ends till they become thoroughly loosened. They have now to be plunged into a preparation of phosphorus, or chlorate of potash, according to the quality of the match. The phosphorus produces the pale, noiseless fire; the chlorate of potash the sharp, crackling illumination. After this application of the more inflammable substance, the matches are separated, and dried in racks. Thoroughly dried, they are gathered up again into bundles of the same quantity, and are taken to the boys who cut them, for the reader will have observed that the bundles have been dipped at each end. There are few things more remarkable in manufactures than the extraordinary rapidity of this cutting process, and that which is connected with it. The boy stands before a bench, the bundle on his right, a pile of empty boxes on his left. The matches are to be cut, and the empty boxes filled, by this boy. A bundle is opened; he seizes a portion, knowing by long habit the required number with sufficient exactness; puts them into a sort of frame, knocks the ends evenly together, confines them with a strap, which he tightens with his foot, and cuts them in two parts with a knife on a hinge, which he brings down with a strong leverage. The halves lie projecting over each end of the frame; he grasps the left portion and thrusts it into a half-open box, which slides into an outer case, and he repeats the process with the matches on his right hand. This series of movements is performed with a rapidity almost unexampled, for in this way two hundred thousand matches are cut and two thousand boxes filled in a day by one boy.

#### THE IRON OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

The superiority of Lake Superior iron over that obtained from any other locality has been often proved in our pages to our readers, but our attention has again been called to it by an article from the pen of one of our cotemporaries, whose scientific knowledge has contributed not a little to the interest of our pages, and the enlightenment of our readers. The article in question speaks for itself, and we will now only refer to tenacity and strength of this iron as compared with that of other localities. The following results, obtained by Professor W. B. Johnson, will show the exact position of the different metals:—

	Strength in lbs. per sq. inch.
Iron from Salisbury, Connecticut, by means of 40 trials .....	58,000
" Sweden, " 4 " .....	58,084
" Center County, Penn., " 15 " .....	58,400
" Lancaster County, Penn., " 2 " .....	58,061
" McIntire, New York, " 4 " .....	58,912
" England, (cable bolt,) " 5 " .....	59,105
" Russia, " 5 " .....	76,069
" Carp River, Lake Superior, determined by Major Wade.....	89,582

Thus it will be seen that the Lake Superior iron is about one-third better than all other kinds but one, and that one kind is far inferior. There is no doubt but that when once the most perfect mode of manufacturing it is attained by experience, it will prove better than the above estimate; but even should it not, the present position which it occupies is a sufficient guaranty of its excellence.

In speaking of this, the *Buffalo Express* says some of this iron was recently tested in Shepherd's Foundry in that city, with a view to try its tenacity. A piece of rolled-iron, of the thickness of one's wrist, was subjected to various processes, and, after bending it across an anvil, twisting it in opposite directions, and in fact employing upon it all possible force and skill, the experimenters were compelled to acknowledge that they never before had known any iron capable of such stubborn resistance to breaking forces. The fracture of the pig metal glis-

tens like steel, and the fiber of the rolled-bars is tougher than that of any other iron known to the trade. Of the different qualities found there it is not necessary to speak, as it varies in the same mines, yet it can be reduced to about the same average in nearly all of them. We learn, on good authority, that the Eureka ore, which has generally been considered of inferior quality, makes the best iron manufactured at the Wyandotte Mills; and that it improves the other ores materially when mixed with them. The increased demand for the Jackson and Cleveland Mountain ores is sufficient ground for the assumption that they are the best to be obtained without the aid of the comparison given above, but with the addition of scientific tests there is no longer room for doubt. It has frequently been placed in the most trying places, and subjected to the severest tests, but we have yet to learn that it has been found wanting. A chemical analysis of the ores of this region make them yield about 70 per cent, though in many instances they will far exceed that, and of the quality we need no further evidence than that heretofore given in our pages.

#### PUBLICATIONS OF THE BRITISH COMMISSIONERS OF PATENTS.

These publications, which are of incalculable value to the industrial arts in this country, have recently been presented to the Astor Library, by the British Commissioners of Patents. The magnitude and importance of the gift will be best explained by the following account, originally furnished for the *Evening Post* by Dr. COGSWELL, the learned librarian of that institution. Dr. Cogswell examined every page of the princely work in question, and his statement, which we give below, is worthy of permanent record in this department of the *Merchants' Magazine* :—

By virtue of an act of the British Parliament, 15 and 16 Queen Victoria, the Commissioners of Patents were required to cause the specifications for patents to be printed, and plates of the corresponding drawings to be made. They began with the patents granted in 1852, and, in due time, they published all the specifications for that year, amounting to 1,211, with nearly as many plates of drawings belonging to them. The specifications are bound in twenty volumes, royal 8vo., the drawings in the same number of folios. The lettering on the back of the octavo volumes shows the number of the specifications found in it, and the folios of the same year the numbers of the corresponding drawings. A single example will make this clear. Vol. 20th, in octavo for 1852, is marked 1,135 to 1,211, being the numbers of the specifications. Vol. 20th, in folio for 1852, is also marked 1,135 to 1,211, being the numbers of the drawings. The same system of lettering extends throughout.

The specifications for 1853 are 3,045, making forty-three royal octavos; the drawings belonging to them make the same number of folios.

The specifications for 1854 are 2,764, making thirty-seven royal 8vos.; the corresponding volumes as many folios.

In 1855 the specifications and drawings make the same number of royal 8vos. and folios as 1854.

For the four years the whole number of volumes of specifications and drawings is 137 royal 8vos., and 137 folios. In addition to the above, and 3 volumes of the Commissioner's Journal, there are twenty volumes of indices, which render this very extensive work as easy of consultation as a common dictionary. The following are the various kinds of indices with which it is furnished :—

1st. An alphabetical index of patents granted from 1617 to 1853, with supplementary indices for each year since.

2d. Subject-matter index for the same period, with the supplement.

3d. Chronological index for the same period, and supplements.

4th. Reference index for the same period, pointing out the office in which each enrolled specification of a patent may be consulted, the books in which specifications, law proceedings, and other subjects connected with inventions, have been noticed, etc.

5th. A separate alphabetical and subject-matter index for patents, for fire-arms, projectiles, etc.

The whole of this invaluable and truly beautiful work, has been published under the direction of Bennett Woodcroft Esq., the Superintendent of Specifications, and it is so perfect that it would not be possible to point out in what respect it could be improved, or rendered more convenient of use. Under his directions, also, the copy now in the Astor Library was arranged for binding, which he had the kindness to attend to, that we might be sure of having everything right, and in the best condition for convenient use.

The volumes are all bound uniformly in red Turkey morocco, and the drawings mounted on strong white calico, the strips to which they are attached to the binding being so brought out, that the whole plate spreads open without any fold. This precaution has greatly increased the cost of binding, but it will be evident to every one who examines the volumes, that the increased security and facility which are given, more than compensates for the additional expense. The Commissioners are now going on with the specifications and drawings for the years previous to 1852, and we have good reasons for believing that the same liberality which has enriched this and three or four other libraries of this country with this truly princely donation, will be extended to the continuations.

This is one of the many instances of the liberal spirit which has been manifested by the British government in the distribution of their numerous costly publications. The only condition attached to their gift is, that the library should be free to the public. The Astor Library is indebted to Mr. Buchanan, when he was our Minister in London, for making known to the Commissioners of Patents that it was of that description, and the simple assurance secured for it the great work above described. The library is also indebted to Mr. Henry Stevens, of London, for his personal attention in relation to it. The work will occupy a conspicuous place by itself in the library, to which it is certainly intended as one of its most beautiful ornaments, and first among its means for imparting instruction in the industrial arts.

#### COATING IRON WITH ZINC AND OTHER METALS.

Messrs. Gressel and Redwood, of London, recently patented the following methods of coating iron with zinc and other metals:—

**TO COAT IRON WITH ZINC.** The zinc is melted in an open vessel, and on its surface is laid a layer of the chloride of zinc, or a mixture of equal parts of chloride of zinc and chloride of potassium, in the proportion of eight of the former and two of the latter. When the salt is in a state of fusion, the metal to be coated is placed in the bath, and allowed to remain there till a coating of sufficient thickness has been obtained; it is then withdrawn, and any parts of its surface imperfectly covered are sprinkled with sal ammoniac, and the sheet of iron again immersed in the bath.

**TO COAT IRON WITH SILVER.** The metal must first be amalgamated with mercury by the following process: 12 parts of mercury, 1 of zinc, 2 of sulphate of iron, 2 of muriatic acid, and 12 of water are mixed together, and heated in an open vessel to about 200° Fah.; the iron is then immersed, and the mercury rubbed on its surfaces until amalgamation is effected. The silver or alloy is to be melted in a crucible, and the amalgamated iron placed therein, when a coating of silver or alloy will be deposited.

TO COAT IRON WITH COPPER OR BRASS. The copper or other coating is to be melted in a suitable vessel, and a stratum of borosilicate of lead placed on its surface; the iron is then to be plunged into the molten metal, and retained there until a coating is deposited on it. Iron coated with the tin or lead may be treated in a similar manner. Another method of coating iron with copper is to place in a crucible a quantity of chloride of copper, upon which is laid the iron to be coated, and over that a quantity of charcoal. The crucible is then submitted to a red-heat and the chloride of copper fused, and a coating of copper deposited on the iron—or the vapor of chloride of copper may be employed for the same purpose. The coating of copper thus obtained may be converted to one of brass, by exposing the sheet of metal to the vapor of zinc in a closed vessel.

## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

### DIVIDEND DAY AT THE BANK.

What a crowd, what a crush!  
 What a row, what a rush!  
 What screaming, and tearing, and noise—  
 Of cabmen and footmen, policemen and bus-men,  
 And poor little run-over boys!  
 From Lombard-street, Prince's-street, Broad-  
 street, King William-street,  
 On they come, driving full span;  
 Old and young, great and small,  
 Fair and brown, short and tall;  
 For it's Dividend Day at the Bank!

Oh, it's Dividend Day!  
 Oh, it's Dividend Day!  
 And all sorts of queer incongruities:  
 Old men and young maids, deaf ears and bright  
 eyes,  
 Are coming to claim their annuities.  
 All questions now cease—  
 Is it war? is it peace?  
 Who cares? Or for news of the Frank!  
 For fleet or conscription,  
 Turk, Russ, or Egyptian?  
 It's Dividend Day at the Bank!

"Dear uncle," says Miss,  
 With a smile and a kiss,  
 "How rosy you're looking to-day!  
 Stay! stop! stand you still!  
 There's a fly on your frill:  
 Psh! there, now I've brushed it away.  
 And here, look, dear nuns, is a beautiful purse:

There, take it; no words—hush! don't thank!"  
 And another great buss  
 Accomplishes the "puss,"—  
 It's Dividend Day at the Bank!

The merchant on 'Change  
 Thinks it looks *rather* strange  
 That his wife should come out all that way  
 From Kennington-common—  
 Such a very fat woman!  
 And such an "uncommon hot day!"  
 To meet her "dear duck,"  
 Her "love" and her "chuck:"  
 And then she's so hearty and frank—  
 Prates and chirps like a bird;  
 But, of course, not a word  
 About Dividend Day at the Bank!

\* \* \* \* \*

Oh, the poet may sing  
 Of the beauties of spring,  
 In a hymn to the sweet first of May!  
 The hero attune,  
 To the eighteenth of June,  
 His glorious, uproarious lay;  
 To St. Valentine's morn,  
 Let lovers forlorn  
 Write verses, in rhyme or in blank—  
 I'll carol my lays  
 To the glory and praise  
 Of Dividend Day at the Bank!

### AMERICAN CLOCK BUSINESS.

Out of thirty-one clock manufactories enumerated by us in articles on the subject two years ago, four have been destroyed by fire, nine have stopped by failure, and five have stopped manufacturing on account of small profits. There are still thirteen factories making clocks, but only six of them are running full time, and with a full complement of hands. These six will produce about 95,000 clocks this year. The remaining seven factories will make about 48,000 clocks, so that the total production of clocks this year will not exceed 143,000.

The Jerome Manufacturing Company, in 1853 and 1854, produced each year 444,000 clocks. Thus they must have produced more than an average of one clock per minute. The factory of J. C. Brown, during 1851 and 1852, issued

from 80,000 to 100,000 clocks annually, making a total from the two establishments of over 500,000 clocks each year. The Ansonia Company manufactured about 150,000 last year. Thus it will be seen that all the thirteen factories now running will make hardly one-fourth of what was produced by three of the large factories now standing still. The question naturally arises, what shall we do for low-priced clocks in the future? There is still a large amount of fancy clocks on hand, which will probably last out the season, but the wooden-frame "ogee" and "sharp-top Gothic" clocks are not being made, and there is comparatively none in the market. The wooden-frame clocks cannot be made for the prices that they have been sold at. It is estimated that nearly half a million of dollars have been lost in selling clocks under the cost within the last three years. The clocks for exportation have amounted to about one million of dollars annually, which aided us in the exchanges with the old country. As an instance, we know one house that imports shawls, linen, collars, and lace goods from Scotland, and makes its exchange in clocks. But if they were to send a bill of exchange it would cost them from 7 to 8 per cent; but sending out clocks at 5 per cent profit or more, it makes them at least 13 per cent on the clocks, which is a paying business. There are doubtless many similar agents in the exportation of the article, which is an advantage to ourselves; and for this reason we desire to see it fostered, and again take its place among the industrial products of our country.

The business has resulted so disastrously to those engaged in it, that some time must elapse before capital will seek this channel as an investment, unless something like a combination can be made to sustain the prices. Foreign countries, with all their low wages, cannot, it would appear from the past, compete with us in making cheap household clocks. The workmen of England cannot be induced to put together work so recklessly. They are amazed at the thought of shaping the parts by the bushel, and putting them together as a boy sets ten-pins. America makes a clock while Europe is putting on its apron. The clock business now stands in a peculiar position. There has been no rise in prices, but there appears every reason to anticipate one. The amount of low-priced clocks made this year will not supply the home market, and the exportation of the article must about almost wholly cease for a time at least. It is said that one or two English agents have been to the clock districts, and have scoured them thoroughly to buy all that could be found finished; but the amounts were small, without a prospect of getting more. If the American manufacturers can combine, and form rules which shall prohibit the continual cheapening process, and fix a minimum price, varying with the quality ordered, but never such as to forbid a living profit, the clock manufacture may again rise; without it, there appears every sign of a long stagnation.

The following table shows the value of clocks imported into and exported from the United States during the year ending June 30, 1855, derived from the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury:—

	Imported.	Export'd.		Imported.	Export'd.
Hamburg .....	\$684	....	Papal States.....	\$17	....
Bremen.....	1,481	....	Mexico.....	141	....
Belgium .....	163	....	New Granada.....	4	....
England .....	15,902	\$4,200	Venezuela.....	175	....
Ireland.....	50	....	China .....	59	....
Canada.....	5	1,598			
France.....	50,577	483	Total.....	\$69,258	\$6,281

## THE CASHMERE GOAT AND SHAWLS.

It is not as yet generally known, says the Philadelphia *Ledger*, that the Thibet goat, from whose wool the famous Cashmere shawls are made, has been introduced successfully into the United States. This enterprising undertaking was achieved a few years since, after many difficulties, by Dr. J. B. Davis, of Columbia, South Carolina, at that time employed by the Ottoman Porte in experimenting on the growth of cotton in the Sultan's dominions. Dr. Davis succeeded, at vast expense, in securing eleven of the pure breed, which, on his way home, he exhibited in London and Paris. Since that period, the goat has been introduced from South Carolina into Tennessee, where it is said to thrive. The value of a flock may be estimated from the fact that no real Thibet goat has ever been sold for less than a thousand dollars. This enormous price, moreover, is not a speculative one, for no fleeced animal has wool of such fineness, softness, and durability. The wool of all the Thibet goats in Tennessee, for example, has been engaged at New York this year at eight dollars and a half per pound, the purchasers designing to send it to Paisley, in Scotland, in order to be manufactured into shawls.

The prices paid for the real Cashmere shawls, or those woven in India, have sometimes been almost fabulous. A full-sized shawl, such as is called in America a "long shawl," ordinarily commands in Paris or London from five hundred to five thousand dollars, according to the quality. Scarfs and square shawls, being smaller, sell for less. It is a mistake, however, to suppose that all these shawls are manufactured in India in the shape in which they are sold here. Generally, indeed, the centers and borders come out separately, and are put together afterwards in sizes, and often patterns, to suit purchasers. Moreover, a large portion of the shawls sold as real India ones are actually made in France, for the Thibet goat was introduced into that country more than thirty years ago, and the Cashmere shawls imitated with considerable skill. Judges of the article pretend to say, however, that the real India shawl can be detected by its having a less evenly woven web, as also from its brighter colors. It is likewise said that the border of the genuine Cashmere shawls is invariably woven in small pieces, which are afterwards sewed together, as the whole border is subsequently sewn on to the center. But other authorities deny that the skill of India is insufficient to *broche* a shawl; in other words, to weave the border and center in one piece, or run the pattern of the former over the latter.

Notwithstanding the successful imitation of these shawls, fashion and luxury still prefer the apparently original. Just as laces, woven by hand, bring a price more than five times as great as the same pattern woven by machinery, so a Cashmere shawl, known to have come from India, will fetch vastly more than the cleverest imitation. Probably, however, this is not all. Persons familiar with both the article and the imitation, assert that the former is softer than the latter, and that this softness arises partly from the way the thread is spun, and partly because the Thibet goat, when exported from its native hills, sensibly deteriorates. There is also a shawl popularly known as the French Cashmere, which is an imitation of the imitation; but this has none or very little of the wool of the imported Thibet goat. The animal from which this valuable fleece is taken is a hardy creature, at least in its original locality; and their fine curled wool lies close to the skin, just as the under hair of the common goat lies under the upper

hair. Eight ounces for a full-sized goat is a large yield, but the yearlings, from whom the best wool is taken, give less. About five pounds is required to make a shawl of the largest size and finer quality, but three or four pounds is sufficient for an inferior one.

#### CHOOSING CLERKS AND SALESMEN.

Those of our readers, says the *Journal of Commerce*, who have had any considerable experience in mercantile life, cannot have failed to notice the change which has taken place in the method of securing available help in the sales-rooms of our merchants, and especially of those engaged in the jobbing trade. Formerly, the clerks entered the store in their youth, preference being given to those who had received a proper moral training, and who could bring testimonials of correct habits, and an unspotted character. They were then promoted from the errand boy to junior salesman, and so on through all the grades, according to their intelligence, industry, and capacity; and if they conducted themselves well, were pretty sure of graduating with honor, or of being retained as partners where their services were found indispensable. Latterly, as we have hinted, the system has been changed.

Now, but few salesmen enter the place of employment as boys; they go into the interior of the country, become acquainted with country merchants, and when their acquaintance is sufficiently established to enable them to influence custom, they are readily received here into houses who desire to extend their business, and rated almost solely by the amount of patronage they can control. Thus, capacity, experience, moral fitness, all that in the olden time went to make up the qualifications considered most essential, are reckoned in these modern days of but little value, compared with an extensive acquaintance among buyers. This change is of more consequence than would be at first supposed by a superficial observer. The gifts most essential to success in cultivating the acquaintance now so valuable, are precisely those most dangerous to the possessor. The peculiar temperament which leads most readily to good-fellowship, and the frank and easy manners which sit so gracefully upon the general favorite, are not favorable to self-restraint, and the cultivation of habits of patient endurance and self-denial. Thus, in a given number of cases, the men who would rate highest as boon companions, and would be most likely to have an extended acquaintance, would be those whose principles were least secure, and who would most readily yield to the temptations that wait upon self-indulgence. We do not mean by this, that all who have an extensive and valuable acquaintance are weak in virtue, or that there is any necessary connection between such an acquaintance and a want of a good moral character, but that in selecting for service only such as can produce this qualification, the chances are unfavorable for securing the highest mental or moral excellence, and therefore the plan is liable to a fatal objection. If we were permitted to state all that we know upon this subject, illustrations of the truth of this position might be multiplied.

A short time since, the editor of the *Journal* met with a firm who had lost by robbery a large amount in black silks. They had their suspicions aroused by a correspondent in the West, who informed them that a young man from New York was offering such goods for sale in that vicinity. Farther inquiry showed that the goods were not those whose loss was known, but that the young man, lately

a clerk in one of our most respectable houses, had stolen the entire lot, valued at nearly \$5,000, by taking a piece at a time when he was going to dinner, or under pretence of showing it to a customer at his hotel—and the firm had never missed them. These robberies are frequent, and are beginning to attract the attention of our merchants to the character of those in their employ. It is due to those clerks whose principles are well established, but who have nothing save their character and capacity to forward them in their career, that these qualities should be more highly valued, and should be made the basis of promotion. If there is no reaction in favor of the old system, the time will come when clerks will have to be weighed in and out of their respective warehouses, as the slaves are in the silver mines, to prevent their depredations upon the property of their employers.

#### THE BRITISH PAWNBROKER'S CATECHISM.

The catechism of the pawnbroker, which we give below, though designed for the London market, will be found equally "interesting," if not particularly "interesting," to some of the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* on this side of the Atlantic. It is, at all events, a capital specimen of quiet humor, mingled with telling sarcasm:—

What is a pawnbroker? A chess player who check-mates society with the usury of a "pawn."

For what purpose is he established? He sets up in the world for the purpose of plundering the people who are set down by it.

Does he give any entertainment in honor of his business? Yes; three balls.

No dinners? None; with him it is lent all the year round.

In what respect is he theatrical? Why, he is a capital manager, and his private boxes are continually occupied.

What does he lend money upon? Upon undoubted security.

Personal security? So personal that no person who leaves a loan beyond the twelvemonth is ever likely to see it again.

How does he upset all known principles of soldiering? Because he is the retreat in which you obtain the advance.

What does he allow? He allows you, under the rare circumstances of a fair advance, the privilege of exclaiming, "That's the ticket!"

What does he not allow? He never allows you to pledge yourself, your honor, your character, or your reputation—those being articles of no value in his estimation.

What credit has he? The credit of being a rogue by act of Parliament.

What does a pawnbroker insure? His own profits—nothing else. He is a trader upon sufferance, but when the property of others is concerned, it is not he who suffers.

When mothers pawn their most valuable things to obtain food for their children, what is that? Feeding their little pledges by means of their great.

Is he a Christian? No; he can't bear anything to be redeemed.

When a poor man goes first to a pawnbroker's, what does he see? Ruin staring him in the face.

What relation does a pawnbroker bear to chemistry? He can be always used as a receiver, and is always ready with a retort.

What is his shop? The refuge of the robber for his gain, and of the destitute for their loss.

What is his warehouse? A collection of thieves, dirty linen, tears, sacrifices, and old clothes—the Babel of wretches bidding against wretchedness—wherein poverty is obliged to witness the moral sucking of its blood, without daring to scotch the leech that draws it.

**EXPENSES AND PROFITS OF SAN FRANCISCO MERCHANTS.**

An intelligent correspondent of one of our California exchanges gives a plain illustration of the way money may or may not be made in the commission business in San Francisco. By facts thus set forth, a sufficient answer is given to the oft-repeated imputations of undue extravagance in the transactions contingent upon an important branch of our trade:—

“The subject of charges and expenses on merchandise shipped to this place has long been a theme of discussion by our Eastern friends, who never fail to remind us that these charges are exorbitant. It has become a by-word with those who dabble in California shipments, and the expression ‘exorbitant charges’ is continually rung upon our ears. At the present time they require more of us than is reasonable for the commissions they are willing to pay. We will take an invoice of assorted merchandise for instance, of the value of \$5,000, which is supposed to be shipped from New York in a clipper ship. At the onset the shipper may talk of an advance on same of 50 per cent, for which he is willing to allow  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, and interest on the money, if very liberal, at the rate of 7 per cent per annum, and commission on the gross sales here at the rate of 5 or  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent—the former being often agreed upon, but we will allow the highest rates,  $7\frac{1}{2}$ —and let us see what profit there is left the commission merchant. We will suppose that the sales amount to \$10,000, and the time consumed, from period of shipment to date of sale here, five months, (it is oftener eight.) The goods sold and account sales rendered shows—first,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent for advancing, \$125; interest at 7 per cent for same period, \$145 83;  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent commission on \$10,000, \$750; total, \$1,020 83.

“Let us look at the opposite side of the question. The interest on \$2,500 advanced, at 3 per cent per month, for five months, is \$375; a month’s interest on freight paid by consignee, say \$1,000 at 3 per cent, is \$30; 3 per cent exchange, cost of placing the money advanced, in New York, \$75; total, \$480—deducted from \$1,020 83, leaves him \$540, to which we might add storage, say \$60, leaving for the labor and transacting the business, \$600. Now let us see what it has cost the merchant to earn his \$600. First rent, supposing him to occupy basement and first floor of a fire-proof building, 25 by 60, it will not be less than \$600 per month. Next comes clerk hire, bookkeeper and salesman, the first \$200, and the latter \$150, per month. The rent, always payable in advance, it is only fair to charge them the current rate of interest, as it is so much money advanced, and worth what it would net; this item, license and taxes, add at least \$225 per month more. All this brings it up to \$1,175 per month, and incidentals \$25 more; total, \$1,200, or \$14,400 per annum, without taking individual expenses of two partners in consideration, which at the lowest estimate cannot be less than \$1,800 each. Summing up \$18,000 per annum to cover the expense of doing business, rendering it necessary to sell goods to the amount of \$24,000 per month, or \$300,000 per annum, to pay expenses. Now, the commission merchant in our Eastern cities receives a higher rate of commission, in proportion to his expenses, than we do here—the customary commission there being  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent on sales and 5 per cent on freights; interest at 7 per cent per annum; rent for twelve months about what ours amounts to for one. It may be said that  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent is only one-third of the rate charged here. Very true; but rents are in New York just about one-sixth, clerk hire less than one-third, interest one-fifth of what all these expenses foot up here, and in the matter of taxes, license, &c., ‘ma conscience’—ask Mr. Dows what he thinks about that, and those fellows that ‘come down from the mountain.’

“Shippers of goods are continually writing to the commission merchants ‘to hold’ for a higher market; but they are quite unwilling to pay 3 per cent per month on the money advanced for freight, so it really would be more profitable to loan the money for the same period, and save the expense of doing business—thus there are two facts proved; 1st. That six months’ interest on the money paid for freight, setting aside all other expenses and items before named, is better

than the commissions. 2d. A commission merchant cannot and ought not to be expected to hold goods for a market, unless the shipper is willing to allow something as interest on the freight money, or authorize the consignee to draw for the amount advanced, for money is certainly worth the 3 per cent per month to any merchant of moderate capital, and if our New York and Boston friends don't believe it, let them come here and try to borrow a little change of any banker, public or private, and then pay our rents. We think they would have less to say about our 'exorbitant charges.' "

#### THE AFRICAN SLAVE TRADE.

A late number of the *London Times* gives some curious statistics of the African slave trade. Brazil is named as the principal promoter of this infamous commerce:—

From 1845 to 1856 there were imported successfully, year by year, into that country from Africa, the following batches of slaves: 17,435, 19,095, 22,849, 19,453, 50,324, 56,172, 60,000, 54,000, and 23,000. It will be observed from these figures that from 1842 to 1845 the slave traffic, though not apparently declining, was, at any rate, stationary, whereas, in 1846 it received an extraordinary impulse, which, for four successive years, nearly trebled its result. It is unnecessary to add that this increase coincided with those legislative acts which opened the British markets to Brazilian sugars.

In 1850, however, though the sugar trade retained all its freedom, the importation of slaves fell to 23,000—scarcely one half its recent amount—and in the next year the returns were more remarkable still. According to the paper before us, the figures, which from 1846 to 1849 had ranged from 50,000 to 60,000, dropped, in 1851, to 3,287! showing a decline in this nefarious traffic to less than one-fifth of the smallest importation previously known.

It is, of course, notorious, that this result has arisen not from any sudden efficiency in our system of blockade, but from the resolution, tardily, though it is said sincerely taken by Brazil herself, to make the prohibition of this traffic a reality. Still, it may be argued that this decision would not have been adopted at Rio, if England had given any proof of weariness in the work of suppression.

The trade of Cuba in this detestable commerce, though large in proportion to its extent of territory, is absolutely much smaller than that of Brazil. The numbers of the slaves imported into this island during the ten years specified, were, respectively, 3,630, 8,000, 10,000, 1,300, 419, 1,450, 1,500, 8,700, 3,500, 500. It will be seen that these figures present a singular and not very explicable contrast to those extracted above from the Brazilian returns, and that they indicate some sources of encouragement or discouragement entirely peculiar.

In 1844 the traffic was exceedingly large; the next year it suddenly decreased by more than four-fifths; and in 1846, the very year when our sugar bills gave such an impulse to the trade of Brazil, it declined to its lowest point, and almost, indeed, to a nominal extent. Neither did it recover itself in 1847 or 1848, when the Brazilian dealings were so large; while, on the other hand, now that Brazil seems really desisting from the traffic, Cuba shows a very considerable importation—an importation, indeed, surpassing for the first time that of her rival on the Southern continent.

#### COMMERCIAL VALUE OF PICTURES.

At a recent sale in London of the Spanish collection of pictures owned by the late Louis Philippe, ex-King of the French, many of the works brought the highest prices. The portrait, by Velasquez, of the Minister Olivarez was sold for \$1,550. A portrait of Philip IV., of Spain, also said to be by Velasquez, copied from the celebrated original of the Madrid Museum, in the third or vague manner of the painter, sold for \$1,250. The finest Murillo in the collection was

the much-injured canvas which once represented, in all the splendor of color and expression, "St. Joseph and the Infant Christ," but damaged as it was, it sold for \$2,200. The "Conception," in life-size, though deprived in many places of its glazings, brought the sum of \$4,050. It is a composition in the second manner of Murillo. A smaller "Conception," by Murillo, in which the characteristics of the master were also distinguishable, was knocked down for \$1,350. The "Virgin and Child" brought \$7,750. Another "St. Joseph and Infant Christ," though not a favorable specimen of the master, brought \$1,500. A picture of "Jesus and St. John" on the banks of the Jordan, brought \$3,300. The "Conception," by Murillo, sold in Paris last year, brought over \$100,000. It was purchased by the French government in the face of a strong competition.

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#### DONALD MCKAY, THE SHIP-BUILDER.

The reported failure of Mr. McKay, a short time since, excited a good deal of merited sympathy in commercial circles. A cotemporary justly says:—"His is a national fame—few men in the United States having done as much as he has towards establishing our maritime pre-eminence over all other nations." The remarks of the Boston *Advertiser* indicates alike the heart-tenderness of its generous editor, as well as the general tone of sentiment among the commercial men of Boston, in regard to Mr. McKay's misfortunes. It says:—

"We do not doubt that our readers will regret to see by our advertising columns that a citizen who has done so much for the credit of our city has been obliged to suspend payment, and has gone into insolvency. We understand that Mr. McKay, as soon as he found himself in difficulty, called a meeting of his creditors, to whom he made a full statement of his affairs, and proposed to take any course which they might approve. They recommended the course he has taken, and we cannot doubt that he will hereafter contribute to our commercial reputation as much as he has done heretofore."

The Boston *Atlas* says Mr. McKay's liabilities amount to \$240,000, and his assets to \$375,000, showing a balance in his favor of \$135,000. He says that in eight weeks he would have been able to pay all his notes, and to have continued his business successfully. During the past fourteen months he has built 10,072 tons of shipping, which have brought \$554,500, without a single bad debt. Considering how many men he has employed, he feels most keenly his present position, but is determined not to be put down.

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#### HOW TO DOUBLE MONEY.

If you will take a bank-note, and while you are folding it up according to direction, peruse the following lines, you will arrive at their meaning, with no little admiration for the writer's cleverness:—

"I will tell you a plan for gaining wealth,  
Better than banking, trading, or leases;  
Take a bank-note and fold it up,  
And then you will find your wealth in-creases.

"This wonderful plan, without danger or loss,  
Keeps your cash in your hands, and with nothing to trouble it,  
And every time that you fold it across,  
'Tis plain as the light of the day that you double it."

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 THE BOOK TRADE.
 

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- 1.—*Paul Fane*; or Parts of a Life Else Untold. A Novel. By N. PARKER WILLIS. 12mo., pp. 402. New York: Charles Scribner.

Mr. Willis is a writer of the most unquestionable genius; by far the most original in the country; and his works will find an enduring fame in a field and a style all his own. A cotemporary thus describes the present volume, his last published, and, if his other works were not all perfect in their way, we should be tempted to say his best:—"Paul Fane describes the experience of republican sensibilities when brought into contact with European aristocracy—or, rather, the trials and struggles of proud republican nature and refinement, when subjected to the test questions of artificial rank and fashion. In the history of Paul Fane, a poor Boston boy, who, in the pursuit of his profession as an artist, forms intimacies with persons of all varieties of rank, in the courtly capitals of Europe, just that experience is told which is commonly left untold—the thread of trial most difficult to weave into language, and, at the same time, about which there is naturally the most eager curiosity. To every American youth, just entering his career of love and ambition, Paul Fane will be a delicious morsel of fore-shadowed trial; while for the female mind the interest is even greater, as there was probably never a book in which so many of the critical questions of reciprocity between the sexes were discussed. When it is added to these attractions, that it is eminently an American book—illustrative of that which our republic claims as its national superiority, and working out, in its plot, a problem of life, which ends by giving America the preference, enough will have been said of its general attractions. The characters, the publishers are at liberty to state, are drawn very literally from life."

- 2.—*Milledulcia*: a Thousand Pleasant Things. Selected from "Notes and Queries." 4to., pp. 416. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

"Notes and Queries," it is well known, is a medium of intercommunication for literary men, artists, antiquaries, genealogists, &c., and has been published weekly in London for several years. The present volume contains the cream of the first series of twelve volumes. It is replete with good things, rich and rare, and we do not know the book more abounding in "old gems, richly-chased bronzes, rare old china, or other objects of curiosity and interest," or so full of matter for "table talk." A reader with ordinary memory might cull from the Notes and Queries materials enough to entertain a literary circle for almost an ordinary lifetime. The book is "got up" in an exceedingly neat and unique style, and we presume is intended as a presentation volume.

- 3.—*Peter Gott, the Cape Ann Fisherman*. By J. REYNOLDS, M. D. 12mo., pp. 280. Boston: John P. Jewett & Co.

This is an interesting piece of biography, and Dr. Reynolds has told the story of Peter Gott, not only in his simple, brave, and affectionate character, but in the class of men which he represents, in a plain, straightforward style, throwing into the interesting narrative such statistical and explanatory remarks as will give the reader some idea of the nature and importance of our fisheries as one of the great industrial pursuits of New England, and of their bearing upon the commerce and navigation of the country. In the introduction we have a graphic and thrilling description of the fishing vessel in a storm.

- 4.—*The Young Jagers*; or a Narrative of Hunting Adventures in Southern Africa. By Captain MAYNE REID. 18mo., pp. 328. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

Captain Reid has been singularly successful in writing interesting books, for boys as well as men, and we only need say that those who have read and admired his "Boy Hunters," "Desert Home," and other equally interesting narratives, will not be disappointed in this capital story.

- 5.—*Personal Narrative of a Pilgrimage to El Medina and Mecca.* By RICHARD F. BURTON. Lieut. Bombay Army. With an Introduction. By BAYARD TAYLOR. With Map and two Illustrations. First American Edition. 12mo., pp. 492. New York: G. P. Putnam & Co.

We are told by Mr. Taylor, the American traveler and editor of the present work—good authority—that since the days of William Pitts, of Exeter, (A. D. 1678–1688,) no European travelers, with the exception of Burchardt and Lieutenant Burton have been able to send us back an account of their travels there. It cannot, therefore, be doubted but that the present work will be hailed as a welcome addition to our knowledge of those hitherto mysterious *penetralia* of Mahomedan superstition. In fact, the El Medina of Lieut. Burton may be considered almost a virgin theme. We believe with Mr. Putnam, the accomplished publisher, that no volume of modern travel possesses greater intrinsic interest or originality, while for graphic description, it compares favorably with the “Crescent and the Cross” of Warburton.

- 6.—*Signs of the Times.* Letters to Earnest Moritz Arndt on the Dangers to Religious Liberty in the Present State of the World. By CHRISTIAN CHARLES JOSIAS BUNSEN, D. D., D. C. L., D. P.H. Translated from the German by Susanna Winknorth, author of the “Life of Niebuhr,” &c. 12mo., pp. 438. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The German mind is prolific in thought, and every topic it touches is sure to receive illustration, and suggestive ideas as naturally flow from it as water from the outgushing stream of the mountains. The present work, as its title imports, pertains to the great principles of religious liberty in our time. The first edition of the original of this work 2,500 copies were disposed of in Germany within a month from publication, and a third edition required within three months. The present is a reprint of the first English edition, published early in 1856. The topics embraced in these letters are alike interesting to the people of Germany, England, and the United States, and the work will, we venture to say, find a wide circulation in this country.

- 7.—*Julian; or Scenes in Judea.* By WILLIAM WARE, author of “Zenobia,” “Aurelian,” &c. Two volumes in one. pp. 500. New York: Charles S. Francis.

It is now some sixteen years since the first edition of these “scenes” made its appearance. *Zenobia*, in two volumes, was published in 1838, and has passed through no less than ten editions; and *Aurelian*, by the same author, was published in 1848, as a sequel to *Zenobia*, under the name of “Probus,” but it was soon republished abroad under that of *Aurelian*. The author has been dead more than ten years, but his writings, including the three works named and “Lectures on the Works and Genius of Washington Allston,” now justly rank among the finest productions of the modern classics; and we are largely indebted to the discriminating publishers for producing in so handsome a form a new edition of *Julian*. We are quite sure that persons of taste will agree with us in our appreciation of these publications.

- 8.—*Gardening for the South; or the Kitchen and Fruit Garden; with the best Methods for their Cultivation. Together with Hints upon Landscape and Flower Gardening, &c.* By WILLIAM N. WHITE, of Athens, Georgia. 12mo., pp. 402. New York: C. M. Saxton & Co.

While this volume gives more or less information upon the whole subject of gardening, it is especially adapted to the States of the Union south of Pennsylvania. It contains the modes of culture and descriptions of the species and varieties of the culinary vegetables, fruit-trees and fruits, and a select list of ornamental trees and plants found by trial adapted to the States of Maryland, Virginia, Georgia, South Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, &c. The compiler, Mr. White, is a citizen of Athens, Ga., and has undoubtedly taken much pains to adapt the work to the soil and climate of the “sunny South.” It is handsomely “got up.”

- 9.—*The Rifle, Axe, and Saddle-Bags, and o'her Lectures.* By WILLIAM HENRY MILBURN. With an Introduction. By the Rev. J. McCINTOCK, D. D. 12mo., pp. 309. New York: Derby & Jackson.

We were not surprised to learn that four editions of this work were sold during the first four weeks of its publication, for amid the multitude of books, and good ones in their way, when we took this book in hand for a brief notice, we were so much attracted by its interesting and varied contents, that we forgot all about writing the notice, and read on here and there until we had consumed the larger part of it. The introductory biography of the blind preacher enlisted our feelings in his behalf, and the lecture entitled "Songs in the Night; or the Triumphs of Genius over Blindness," is so full of personal experience, in connection with that of other eminent blind men, and the philosophy of it derived from that experience, that we felt we were in the actual presence of the author. The other lectures in the volume, under the symbolical title of "Rifle, Axe, and Saddle-Bags," are all the more attractive for expressing so much personal experience, and we might even say *observations*, of the blind man in his life struggles. Buy the book and you will read it.

- 10.—*The American Poulterer's Companion: a Practical Treatise on the Breeding, Rearing, and General Management of various Species of Domestic Poultry.* By C. N. BEMENT. 4to., pp. 304. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The author of this manual was well qualified for the task of preparing such a work, having, from his earliest youth, devoted himself to the subject of poultry, practically and theoretically. The present is a new and much-improved edition of the original work, and contains almost everything which it is desirable to know and understand in the management of the poultry-yard. It is copiously illustrated with portraits of fowls, mostly taken from life; poultry houses, coops, nests, feeding-hoppers, &c., &c., embracing more than one hundred illustrations on wood and stone. It is, in our judgment, the most perfect work of its kind now before the public, and will be found eminently useful, not only to those who engage in the business for commercial purposes, but in a small way for domestic use or for amusement.

- 11.—*Cousin Nicholas.* By REV. RICHARD BURNHAM, author of the "Ingoldsby Legends," &c. Illustrated. 12mo., pp. 377. Buffalo: A. Burke.

It is a matter of surprise that publishers in either of the three great Eastern cities of the United States should have passed by a work of so much merit, of its kind, as "Cousin Nicholas," by so popular and successful a penman as the inimitable author of the "Ingoldsby Legends." But so it happened, and we are therefore indebted to a Buffalo publisher for the pleasure of reading a work we otherwise might not have fallen in with in a long time. The account of Cousin Nicholas is equal to any of the papers from the same pen, and the illustrations so clever as almost to detract one from the pleasure of reading a capital story. We wish the color of the paper—which, by the way, is substantial—was a little more creamy; it has too much the appearance of skim-milk—that is, it is rather bluey.

- 12.—*Child's History of Rome.* By JOHN BONNER, author of "A Child's History of the United States." 2 Vols. 18mo., pp. 308 and 312. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Bonner is quite right in adopting the inquiry of Sir G. Cornwall Lewis, who has proved the non-historical character of the scheme of early Roman history proposed by Niebuhr, and he is right in adopting the principle, that histories for children should be governed by as severe a canon as any other class of histories. The young should not be asked to receive as history that which, when they grow up, they will know to be fiction. Preserving, however, as early legends—in their original shape as legends—Mr. Bonner commences this "Child's History of Rome" with the year 282 before Christ. They form two very clever histories, with appropriate pictorial illustrations.

- 13.—*A Physician's Vacation; or a Summer in Europe.* By WALTER CHANNING. 12mo., pp. 564. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

Walter Channing, the physician, it may not be universally known, is a brother of the late William Ellery Channing, a most eloquent scholar and divine, and what is more was a pure philanthropist. His brother, the author of the present volume, is eminent as a physician, and partakes largely of that spirit of philanthropy which animated his kinsman. Having said thus much, we will only add that this volume contains a journal of the author's travels during the summer and autumn of 1852. Without possessing great curiosity, and rather ignoring that natural quality of the race, the Dr. saw much in England, Russia, Denmark, Prussia, Austria, Saxony, Bavaria, France, Spain, and other small kingdoms on the continent, and without apparent effort on his part has contrived to make a very intelligible and withal quite readable book. It is not like the book of another doctor of medicine, who visited Europe some years ago, written on stilts. It is a plain, unostentatious narrative of all he saw and heard, and discloses the interesting character of the man. It is, in a word, an interesting and reliable book of travel in Europe.

- 14.—*Kansas: its Interior and Exterior Life.* Including a full view of its Settlement, Political History, Social Life, Climate, Soil, Productions, Scenery, etc. By SARA T. L. ROBINSON. 12mo., pp. 366. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

The author of this work was the wife of Dr. Robinson, chosen Governor of Kansas by the Free-State Party. She is unpretending in her claims, and although written amid all the inconveniences of tent life, during three months' residence of the authoress in the United States camp at Leecompton, with her husband, one of the State prisoners, its pages bear the marks of a strong-minded, well-educated, vigorous woman, whose aim is to be impartial; that, however, could hardly be expected under the circumstances. "If," she says, "a bitterness against the 'powers that be' betray itself, let the continual clanking of sabers and the deafening sound of heavy artillery in the daily drills of the soldiery, aids in crushing freemen in Kansas, &c., &c., be pleaded in the balance against a severe judgment." The book is, on the whole, an interesting one, and will furnish the future historian with at least one side of the Kansas question. But little in the book form has yet been written on the other.

- 15.—*The Merchant Vessel; a Sailor-boy's Voyage to see the World.* By the author of "Man-of-War Life." 18mo., pp. 288. Cincinnati: Moore, Wilstack, Keys & Co. New York: Miller, Orton & Mulligan.

The writer of the present volume has drawn an intelligible, interesting, and instructive picture of a merchant seaman's life. He depicts with life-like fidelity the shadows as well as the lights in this phase of sea life. Of the "yarns" in this volume, he says, they are told as nearly as possible in the language of the original relators, and there is no doubt in the mind of the writer of their truth. He has given them place, not only because "yarning" is one of the chief amusements of sailors during their leisure hours, but from the fact that they present phases of sea life which happily did not fall to his own experience.

- 16.—*Poetic Readings for Schools and Families.* With an Introduction by J. L. COMSTOCK, M. D., author of "A System of Natural Philosophy," &c. Second American, from the Twelfth London Edition. With Improvements and Additions. 18mo., pp. 282. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This volume is not like the "Rhetorical Readers," "Scientific Readers," "Readers in Prose," &c., enriched with extracts from the great writers of thought and expression, but is a collection of excellent pieces from the pens of poets who best understood the feelings, tastes, and improvement of youth—blending the latter with amusement, and conveying sentiments, wholesome and proper, in words that they can understand and appreciate. It is illustrated with appropriate engravings.

- 17.—*Rachel and the New World*. A Trip to the United States and Cuba. Translated from the French of Leon Beauvallet. 12mo., pp. 404. New York: Dix, Edwards & Co.

It would be difficult to notice this work in the limited space allotted in our pages, in either a fitting or appropriate manner. We shall, therefore, content ourselves, and we hope our readers will likewise be content, with a notice from *Figaro*, announcing its publication in that unique print. "We commence to-day, under the title of *Rachel and the New World*, a great success *de curiosité*; to *Figaro*, who first acquainted the public, in all its details, with the agreement between Mademoiselle Rachel, and her brother; who first made known the sum total of receipts realized in New York by the Felix Family; to *Figaro* it belongs to relate the *Odyssey*, of which Rachel has been the *Ulysses* in America." What more can we add; the book is very piquant and Frenchy, from beginning to end, and will doubtless find a select circle of readers, in its new English dress.

- 18.—*Handbook of Organic Chemistry; for the Use of Students*. By WILLIAM GREGORY, M. D., F. R. S. E. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Edinburgh, and author of "Handbook of Inorganic Chemistry." Fourth Edition, Edited by J. Milton Sanders, M. D., LL. D. Professor of Chemistry in the Eclectic Medical Institute of Cincinnati, &c., &c. 8vo., pp. 480. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

The difficulty in getting up an elementary work upon Chemistry, is not, it is well remarked, what to put in, but what to leave out. This difficulty seems to be fully appreciated, not only by the original author, but the American editor. Professor Gregory gives a methodical and scientific arrangement of the products and theories of Organic Chemistry, in the work before us. The American editor has not omitted the latest discoveries, although they are necessarily condensed as much as could be consistent with a thorough comprehension of them. The enterprising publishers of this work have been singularly successful in getting up popular works on almost every branch of human study, and we are happy to learn that their works are properly appreciated by teachers and students.

- 19.—*Saratoga: a Story of 1787*. 12mo., pp. 400. New York: William P. Fetridge & Co. Boston: Williams & Co.

The American Revolution is rich in material for the pen of the poet, painter, and novelist. The local peculiarities, arising in part from the various races of the settlers, and the relations in which they stood, afford an ample field for the historian and novelist. Simms, Cooper, and others of our writers have availed themselves of these circumstances, and enriched our literature. Still the field has not been fully occupied, as the present story, founded on the events of those times, would seem to indicate. Most of the incidents narrated in "*Saratoga*," we are told, were handed down by tradition as veritable facts; and the principle personages introduced drawn from actual prototypes. For all artistic purposes, whatever might be true, is true, and this book is presented by the author as a faithful, though, of course, incomplete picture of *Saratoga* in 1787.

- 20.—*The Story of Columbus, simplified for the Young Folks*. By SARAH H. BRADFORD, author of "Silver Lake Stories," "Ups and Downs," "Lewie; or the Bended Twig." With illustrations from original designs. 18mo., pp. 255. New York: Charles Scribner.

The story of Columbus has often been told, and will bear telling to the end of time. This is repeated in a manner to meet the "wishes and wants" of the young folks, and is principally taken—that is, the facts, from Washington Irving's incomparable history of Columbus. Kindness, nobleness, generosity, dutiful affection, faithfulness to friends, and forgiveness of enemies, were traits in the character of the great discoverer of our continent; that give to the story all its worth to the rising generation.

- 21.—*Three Per Cent a Month*; or the Perils of Fast Living. By CHARLES BURDETT, author of "Second Marriage," "Mary Grover," "Elliott Family," "Never too Late," &c., &c. 12mo., pp. 395. New York: Derby & Jackson.

Mr. Burdett, the author of this story, has enjoyed in various ways rare opportunities of seeing and noting much of city life: at one time connected with the press, as a reporter, at another in sundry public offices, coming in contact with the men and things in all their varied phases, that go to make up that life, for weal or for woe. He was enabled to catch the living manners and weave them, with the graces of fiction, into the truthful and instructive narrative. The story before us is instructive, portraying, as it does, some of the rocks and shoals on which the mercantile character in the great metropolis is wrecked; and the lessons it teaches should be widely circulated in the family circle of every New York merchant.

- 22.—*Incidents of Travel and Adventure in the Far West, with Col. Fremont's Last Expedition across the Rocky Mountains*: Including Three Months' Residence in Utah, and a Perilous trip across the Great American Desert to the Pacific. By S. N. CAVALHO, artist to the Expedition. 12mo., pp. 380. New York: Derby & Jackson.

Mr. Cavalho accompanied Col. Fremont as artist of his exploring expedition across the Rocky Mountains, an expedition fitted out, as we are informed, at Col. Fremont's own expense. The volume contains an exceedingly interesting and graphic narrative and description of the scenes and events of that adventurous expedition. The author was sometime sick among the Mormons, and acknowledges their kindness. He has introduced several discoveries from their prominent preachers touching their peculiar theological dogmas. It is, on the whole, a very interesting volume of travels and adventures in a comparatively unexplored region of the far west.

- 23.—*The Bunsby Papers*. Second Series. Irish Echoes. By JOHN BROUGHAM, author of "A Basket of Chips." With Designs by McLenan. 12mo., pp. 298. New York: Derby & Jackson.

It is well remarked in the outset by Mr. Brougham, that the most interesting, if not the most instructive records of any nation, are its traditions and legendary tales, and further, that in no part of the world can there be found so varied and whimsical a store as in Ireland. Every portion of the country, every city, town, and village—nay, every family of the "real old stock," has its representative share in the general fund. In the present volume the author has told, in his own exceedingly happy vein, a number of stories drawn from the legends, &c., referred to; and we place his book, we have no hesitation in saying, among the choicest and best of its class.

- 24.—*Stories of the Canadian Forest; or Little Mary and Her Nurse*. By Mrs. TRAILL, author of the "Canadian Crusoes," etc., with illustrations by Harvey. 18mo., pp. 240. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co.

The name of Francis as publishers of juvenile works in New York and Boston, has become as familiar to children as any household word; and, we may add, that it is owing, not only to the number that have appeared with that imprint for the last twenty or thirty years, but for the general excellence of these publications. We recollect reading, when quite a lad, and when juvenile books were scarce, and good ones rare, an edition of "Sandford and Merton," with the name of Francis at the foot of the title-page.

- 25.—*Never Mind the Face; or Cousin's Visit*. By HETTY HOLYOKE, author of "The Surprise." 18mo., pp. 211. New York: Charles Scribner.

The name of the publisher sufficiently guarantees the unexceptionable tendency of this story. It has some very pretty pictorial illustrations, and will interest children.