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HUNT'S

# MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

## COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1860.

### Art. I.—REVIEW, HISTORICAL AND CRITICAL, OF THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF SOCIAL PHILOSOPHY :\*

OR, INTRODUCTION TO A MORE COMPREHENSIVE SYSTEM.

PART IV.†

THE SOCIOLOGY OF THE GREEKS CONSIDERED—THE IDEAS OF PLATO, ARISTOTLE, AND POLYBIUS, CRITICALLY EXAMINED—THE FAMOUS REMARKS OF SOLON AND ANACHAERIS, THE SCYTHIAN, BRIEFLY COMMENTED UPON—SOME REMARKS ON THE CONSTITUTIONS OF SPARTA AND ATHENS, AND ON THEIR FAMOUS LAWGIVERS, LYCURGUS AND SOLON—CONCLUDING GENERAL OBSERVATION.

The Greeks, as they were the first European nation to cultivate science, were also the first, in point of eminence, in scientific as well as literary attainment, among the earlier nations of Europe, and indeed among all the ancient nations. As it has been said of the modern Germans, so it may be said of the ancient Greeks, that they have left no field of literature or science unexplored. Among such a people, as might reasonably be supposed, the science of Sociology did not escape a searching investigation, at least in some of its departments. It must be admitted, however, that their sociological ideas were rather crude and imperfect, and, as the earlier ideas in every science are apt to be, for the most part, superficial.

The Social Philosophy of the Greeks was predicated, almost entirely, upon the idea that the social welfare of mankind is to be attributed to *political causes*. With this view, they prosecuted inquiries into the science of Politics with great zeal, and, in so far as the fundamental principles of government are concerned, with considerable success, though with

\* Entered according to an act of Congress, in the year 1859, by GEO. W. & JNO. A. WOOD, in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States, for the southern district of New York.

† ERRATA.—Owing to the miscarriage of the author's revised proof of the previous article of this review, some typographical errors occurred that are worthy of note. On page 661, last line, "*Dr. Maistre*" was published for *De Maistre*; on page 671, sixth line, "*Kamayana*" for *Kamayana*; on page 604, seventeenth line of second paragraph, "*Superior*" for *Supreme*; on page 665, last line, "*commonest*" for *communist*; and other errors occurred, which, though very slight errors of *type*, produce very serious errors as to signification, and impediments as to the force of the author's language.

very unsatisfactory results, in respect to the structure and organization of government.

An eminent author, the Abbe Barthelemi, better known as Anacharsis,\* has observed that "two great questions employ the attention of the philosophers of Greece; the one concerning the manner in which the universe is governed, the other on the mode in which men ought to be governed." It is to this latter question that the Social Philosophy of the Greeks addressed itself almost exclusively. It considered with great particularity, and some measure of sagacity, how men ought to be governed, but gave little or no attention to the question *how they can be rendered comfortable*.

The failure of the Grecian philosophers to consider the latter question resulted partly, no doubt, and in a great measure, from their disposition to depreciate and despise the wants of the body, and to aim chiefly at the elevation of the qualities of the soul. But it resulted, also, to a large extent, from their ignorance of the truth, that good government does not by any means necessarily insure the comfort or general welfare of the community. They did not progress far enough, either experimentally or speculatively, in Social Philosophy, to ascertain that even after good government has been secured, there yet remains a great deal to be done to insure a perfect social state, or one in which every member of the community is in a condition (as to material comfort) fit for the healthful enjoyment of rational existence. They failed, therefore, to discover those great fundamental laws of Sociology which tend at once to secure good government, and the social welfare of the governed, and without which it would be in vain, or at least of little avail, to give to a people the best of governments.

Nor is it to be wondered at that even the greatest philosophers of Greece should have been blinded as to the ulterior and more fundamental causes of social prosperity, and been induced to attach undue importance to governmental causes, in view of the wretched systems of government which prevailed in almost every part of Greece during their times. Political science was then in its infancy; and the Greeks were not a people whose genius was so well adapted as that of the modern Anglo-Saxons to work out the great problem, which so much engaged their attention, *what is the best government for a State*; which, whatever confused and inaccurate ideas the Grecian philosophers or others may have entertained respecting it, cannot perhaps be more correctly defined than as *that government which insures stability and order in the State, with the least sacrifice to the individual liberty of the citizens*; or, in other words, as *that government which renders a very large share of individual liberty, consistent with order and stability in the industrial as well as the political affairs of the State*.

This problem, indeed, was not one of very easy solution. Mankind arrive at perfection, or rather at *proficiency*, in government, as they do in the mechanical arts, only by long teaching and rigid discipline in the severe school of experience. From the rude attempt of the Cretan sage to give to his people a model government, some 1,200 years before the Christian era, the struggle for this perfection of government may be traced in

\* It may be superfluous to remark that the Abbe Barthelemi, a French Jesuit of the eighteenth century, was the author of the work which has attained so much celebrity as "The Travels of Anacharsis," which was first published in 1788.

its onward course, through many nations, and under various circumstances—now advancing, and then retrograding, but on the whole decidedly progressing, in its long career, for the period of some 3,000 years, down to the 4th day of March, A. D., 1789, when the American system of government was established by the inauguration of the federal constitution, and the federal government commenced its operation under the administration of GEORGE WASHINGTON.

In the commencement of this great and protracted struggle, which took its rise in Greece, political ideas were very rude and undigested. Politics in Greece may indeed be said to have been in a state of *chaos*, even in the most enlightened period of their country. Having thrown off that patriarchal or kingly form of political organization, which prevails in the earlier age of every nation, the States of Greece had not been able to organize government upon the principles of republicanism, at which they aimed, upon any except very rude and disorderly bases. Politics in Greece were in a *transition* state, which was necessarily, to a great extent, a state of disorder and confusion.

The political systems of Greece, scarcely excepting that of Sparta, which was decidedly the best of them all, were remarkably rude, imperfect, and defective. The principle of *representation*, indispensable to the operations of the republican system, upon any enlarged plan, was almost wholly unrecognized by them, except in the case of the ordinary magistracy, of foreign ambassadors, and delegates to the Amphyctionic council. The idea of *unity* in the head of the executive department of government was unappreciated. The highest legislative and judicial authorities of the State were the primary assemblies of the people. There was no well-defined distinction between the legislative and judicial powers of the State, and still less between the fundamental, organic laws of the State and the ordinary statute laws. Indeed, the republics of Greece were not only without any distinctly recognized organic law, but also, to a great extent, without any well-defined *code of jurisprudence*; so that the most fundamental questions of State, as well as those common questions which should be entirely referred to ordinary judicial tribunals, were decided, in many cases, by the legislative body, and that, too, the worst of all legislative bodies, the primary assembly of the people. Accordingly, we find Aristotle, in his celebrated treatise on Politics, gravely recommending that the supreme power of the State be lodged in *laws duly enacted*, rather than left to the caprice of any one man, or a few, or the many, as if the propriety of such a method admitted of the least possible doubt.

In such a crude and disorderly condition of Politics, it is obvious that deplorable mismanagement must have prevailed, and frequent disorders arisen. Nor need we wonder that almost every State in Greece was repeatedly the prey of a licentious democracy or a rapacious tyranny.

In view of the many great evils which undoubtedly resulted from the imperfect and positively defective political systems which generally prevailed in Greece, it was natural enough that it should be supposed, even by its wisest men, that were society relieved from these evils entirely, it would be relieved of all its important evils. Such, at least, seems to have been their supposition; and it may be safely asserted that the social philosophers of Greece, if they did not consider government as the essential or most prominent cause of the social ills of humanity, evidently sup-

posed that it might be made the *instrument* for curing those ills, or rather that those ills required no other treatment than the administration of good government.

At any rate, this was the controlling, if not the exclusive, idea of the Social Philosophy of the Greeks. All their speculations on society were directed to the end of devising some plan of government that should constitute a perfect political system, or well-governed State. They were constantly aiming at the improvement of *the State*, rather than of *the individuals* composing the State. If indeed they aimed at the improvement of individuals, it was mainly with the view of thereby improving the State; thus sadly mistaking the proper aim of the political and social philosopher—a mistake, by the way, not confined to the Social Philosophy of Greece, though in a distinguished degree characteristic of their speculations, but one which has continued to the present time almost universally prevalent—a mistake, moreover, which, though it has been casually noticed by many, and emphatically denounced by a few, profound thinkers in later times, has never yet received the overwhelming and complete overthrow which a mistake so serious should long ago have received.

These general remarks on the Social Philosophy of the Greeks, and their imperfect political systems, might appear sufficient, in regard to the Sociology of Greece. But the discourses of some of the Grecian philosophers on government, and some of the actual governments of Greece, have acquired so great a celebrity, that some particular notice of them seems to be demanded by the character of our "Review, Historical and Critical, of the different Systems of Social Philosophy."

Of the Grecian philosophers who have written discourses on government, as, indeed, of those who have written upon any other branch of Philosophy, Plato and Aristotle were undoubtedly the most celebrated, and, if we except Polybius, who flourished some two centuries later, the most able and profound. The Republic of Plato, commonly styled "the Ideal Republic," and the Politics of Aristotle, have indeed played such prominent parts in the subsequent discussions of mankind on government, that no one should claim to be well versed in the history of Social or Political Philosophy who has not some general acquaintance with the character and leading doctrines of these two celebrated works.

Plato's Republic, which, like most of his discourses, is written in the dialogue form, (Socrates, as usual, being the chief interlocutor, and uttering what may be regarded more particularly as the peculiar views of Plato,) seems to have for its leading object to ascertain *what is justice*, essentially considered, and more particularly what is real and essential justice in respect to the organization of society. To establish this principle of justice in a State, is obviously the grand desideratum of Sociology in the estimation of Plato.

After determining what justice is, and defining it, with much more profundity and philosophical precision than is usual, as *the habitual practice of one's own proper and special work*, he proceeds to inquire how this principle is to be made practically operative in a State. His reasoning on this point, though rather disjointed, and by no means closely connected, may be logically summed up as follows:—As there are, in the human soul, three grand principles, the *concupiscant*, the *irascible*, and the *rational*, or, (as our professional phrenologists would most probably trans-

late it,) the *acquisitive, combative, and rational*, so there are, in every society, three grand classes or orders of men, the *money-seeking, the heroic,\** and the *deliberative*; or, in other words, the business class, the warrior class, and the philosophic class. It is the proper function or work of the first of these classes, to follow the various industrial avocations of life; of the second, to follow the honorable profession of arms, acting as the protectors of the State in time of war, and its guardians in peace; and of the third, to act as the magistracy or governors of the State.

For the first of these classes, the industrial or labor class, Plato prescribes no particular regulations, except by indirection, whence we are led to understand that he inhibits them from any participation whatever in the affairs of government, and enjoins their attention exclusively to their own peculiar business, his motto in this respect appearing manifestly to be, *ne sutor ultra crepidam*. For the second or guardian class he prescribes a system of education and rigid training designed to render them superior to the frailties, the follies, and the vices of humanity, and to exalt them to the character of gods, or at least of demigods. With a view to maintaining the superiority of this class, he enjoins, moreover, great attention to judicious crosses in marriage, and also to the times or seasons during which married persons are to be permitted to come together with a view to the creation of offspring. For the third class, or the magistracy of his republic, he merely prescribes the selection from time to time, and as occasion may require, the most godlike of the demigods of the second class, who, being already trained alike for the purposes of obedience or command, would require, in his estimation, no further training or qualifications for State office. It is in reference mainly to the exalted qualities that Plato proposes to impart (by education and strict attention to the laws of genealogy) to the State guardians of his model republic, or the warrior class, that this celebrated work of his has obtained its great repute as an extravagant and romantic piece of fancy work. It should be obvious, however, that so wise a man as Plato could not have been entirely serious in all that he proposed in this disquisition on government, and that the work was intended rather, like Xenophon's *Cyropaedia*, and More's *Utopia*, as a sort of political romance, though written in the didactic, rather than the historic, form. It is not therefore to be compared with such insane productions as Godwin's *Political Justice*, the author of which was evidently in grim earnestness, even in his most extravagant propositions.

The great leading idea of Plato, that there are three fundamental or primary elements of society, as of the human soul, to each one of which it should be the aim of the statesman to assign its proper function, in the organization of the State, is certainly a very valuable one, though Plato does not perhaps very accurately, or with entire correctness, define those elements, or indicate rightly what they are. Still less does he lay down any very useful or suggestive rules for giving to each of these fundamental elements of society its appropriate place in the State, as how we are

\* In using the word "heroic," the author has taken some liberty with the text of Plato as rendered by the translator, Mr. Henry Davis, whom he has followed in making this criticism on the Ideal Republic. But it is a liberty which he feels assured would be sanctioned by Plato himself, were he alive. Mr. Davis almost invariably used the word "auxiliary," in reference to the class of society which the author of this review designates as the "heroic;" and auxiliary undoubtedly they are, when employed for the specific functions indicated for them by Plato. But essentially and independently of any such specific employment, they may clearly be regarded as the heroic or warrior class of mankind.

to determine who are fit for one function and who for another. But his views are liable to this further criticism certainly, that they are too intensely *aristocratical*, and that they entertain altogether too low an estimate of the character of the great industrial or labor class of mankind. Pre-eminently amenable to criticism, moreover, is he in this, that he does not prescribe any system of education for this class, with a view to their improvement, and seems to disregard all special attention to them, thus committing an oversight not less serious than that of the architect who should neglect all attention to the *foundation walls* of his edifice, and look only to its upper works. It matters not how much more polished or intrinsically valuable may be the *upper materials* of society; they can only rest securely upon the solid foundation of an intelligent, contented, and prosperous labor class.

The most objectionable part of Plato's Social Philosophy, however, is that which relates to property and the domestic relations. His views on these points seem to be predicated upon the idea that harmony is one of the most important requisites for the well-being of a State, and that nothing is so conducive to harmony as *unity* of feeling and interest. Nor should we wonder at it, if a Grecian philosopher did overestimate and attach an overweening importance to harmony and unity, doomed as they were to witness so many of the mischiefs of discord and faction, among the brawling democracies of Greece.

So important did Plato consider harmony, and, with a view to it, unity of interest and feeling, that he prescribed for his republic, or at least for the State guardians of his republic, (for it is quite uncertain whether he meant to restrict it to them, or apply it to the whole State,) nothing less than *community of property*, and *community of wives and children*. Not a little astonishing truly is it to find so great a philosopher as Plato indorsing the delusion of *communism* as to property. But what shall we say when we find him also indorsing it as to women, when we find him virtually indorsing and recommending that promiscuous intercourse between the sexes, which, under the specious name of "free love," has been so unblushingly advocated of late by some restless and discontented spirits.

It is difficult, however, to understand clearly what Plato meant by his community of wives, since it is obvious, and must have been so to him, that anything like a general promiscuousness between the sexes would have been fatal to all hopes of offspring, which he clearly never intended, his great object being, as distinctly avowed by him, to prevent every man from knowing his own children, and encouraging him to consider all the children of the State, of a suitable age, as his children. It should seem, however, that this end might be accomplished without any community of wives, and by the same means by which the women should be kept in ignorance of their own children. Nor can we escape the conclusion that the divine Plato, as he is often termed in reference to the exalted purity of his sentiments in general, is justly amenable to severe criticism for the laxity of his ethical code in respect to the sexual relation. All doubt on this score would seem indeed to be removed by the fact that we find him openly recommending that the young men most distinguished in war or other pursuits should have the most ample liberty of intercourse with women allowed them, not only as a reward to their virtues, but as a means of securing the noblest parentage for the largest number of children.\*

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\* See Plato's Republic, translated by Henry Davis, book v., chapter 9.

It is a remarkable fact that three of the most eminent men of the world for virtue and the general purity of their lives, in respect to *chastity*, as well as to every other virtue, three men, indeed, who bear a striking resemblance to each other in many prominent points, though widely separated in time and nationality, Plato, Swedenborg, and Fourier, were all distinguished by sentiments in regard to the sexual relation that must incur the censure of rigid moralists. Swedenborg, with all his piety, has provoked the displeasure of this class, by some of his too liberal remarks on conjugal love; and Fourier repeatedly speaks in sorrowful tones of the harsh judgments of society, in relation to "the proscribed passion."

Remarkable as this fact may be, however, it should not appear inexplicable, on a little reflection. For all experience will show that none are so mild in their censure of vice as the truly virtuous; and it is an old proverb that no one is so loud in crying "stop thief," as the thief himself. In truth, men of such exalted sentiments as Plato, Swedenborg, and Fourier, are so much superior to the generality of mankind in many of their sentiments, and rise so far above the atmosphere in which abound the petty strifes and ignoble jealousies of men, that they are unqualified, perhaps, duly to estimate the influence of many human sensibilities.

However this may be, and whatever may be the sentiments of a Plato, the vast majority of men are under the dominion of jealousy in matters of conjugal love, and demand exclusiveness in the objects of their affection. In short, every man wants his own wife, and every woman her own husband. And Plato's scheme of a promiscuous blending of husbands and wives, for making every man the husband of every woman, and every woman the wife of every man, so far from tending to promote harmony and unity of feeling, at which he aimed, would be fatally destructive of both. As for his project for making every man the father of every child, and every child the progeny of every man in the community, Aristotle, in allusion to it, has justly and somewhat facetiously remarked, and thereby sufficiently refuted the idea, that it would be better to be a *nephew*, after the old fashion, than to be a *son* upon Plato's plan.

Another fundamental question in Sociology, much discussed recently, was also canvassed by Plato in his Republic—"the woman's rights question," as it has been termed. Upon this question Plato advances opinions quite as radical, or, as some would prefer to say, "progressive," as any that our "latter-day philosophers" have brought forth. In fact, not only in Sociology, but in nearly every other department of Philosophy, the germs of nearly all subsequent theories may be found in the writings of this profound and far-seeing philosopher, who, like many profound and far-seeing philosophers, however, was not uniformly a very accurate or judicious one, particularly in matters of detail and practice.

Plato inclines decidedly to the opinion that there is a substantial equality between the sexes, though their functions and powers of execution are somewhat different. He says, if the only real difference between men and women be, that one begets children, and the other bears them, which he very plainly intimates that he considers the only difference, then there is no good reason why women should not follow the same employments with the men, though the lighter part of the work should always be assigned to the women. Accordingly, he recommends that the women should go to war with their husbands, and come naked into the *gymnasium*, there to dispute with men for the prizes of athletic skill.

From these observations it should appear manifest that there is much more to censure than to approve in the social doctrines of Plato. Some of his ideas are, however, highly valuable. Much to be commended especially is his remark, that *until philosophers become statesmen, or statesmen philosophers, there is little prospect of an end to the miseries of States*, and no hope of seeing his plan of government realized.

Another remark of Plato's in the same work is pregnant with meaning—"Never, as Damon says, and I agree with him, are the measures of music changed, without affecting the most important laws of the State." This is substantially the same remark which has been reproduced in modern times by the English statesman who said, "If you let me write the songs of a nation, you may make their laws." The idea is above the average of the ideas of Plato on Sociology, and those of the Greek philosophers generally. It is a partial recognition of the great truth, even now but partially recognized, but then almost wholly unperceived, that there are forces determining the character and destiny of nations far more fundamental than political regulations, than mere human laws, and in comparison with which these are impotent.

The great importance attached by Plato to State education, though unwisely restricted by him to his great middle class, or State guardians, as he termed them, is much to be commended, and should instruct and admonish modern statesmen, who are still everywhere too little attentive to this vitally important consideration.

The Malthusian idea, as to *the tendency of population to outrun subsistence*, too obvious in some of its features to escape the discernment of the wise in any age, though vehemently assailed in modern times by certain *profound ignoramuses*, did not escape the observation of Plato. But he summarily disposed of it, by remarking that he left this matter to the rulers of the State who should provide for it in their regulations respecting the number of marriages—a remark, which, like many others of Plato on Sociology, is not very valuable or profound, since it should be obvious to a little reflection, that it is no easy matter for State rulers to *regulate these matters*, even allowing that such attempts were consistent with the just and legitimate functions of political authority.\*

The disquisition of Aristotle on Politics is, beyond dispute, a much more valuable work than that of his illustrious predecessor and preceptor, Plato. It is a work of far more compass of thought and variety of matter, and far better adapted to practical ends. Plato's political ideas, in fact, are, for the most part, adapted only to men such as he desired they should be, and possibly imagined that they might be, rendered by proper training; Aristotle's are adapted to men as they are.

The work of Aristotle is one of great merits and great defects. Perhaps, however, it is more to be criticised for its defects than commended for its merits. Its merits are rather superficial, its defects fundamental and profound. The most fundamental and comprehensive defect of the work, perhaps, is that already alluded to, as a leading characteristic of Grecian Sociology in general, and incidentally referred to also, as render-

\* The language of Plato on this point, as rendered by Mr. Davis, the translator, is as follows:—"But as to the number of marriages, this we leave to the rulers that they may as much as possible keep up the same number of men, having regard both to wars and diseases, and all other such matters, so that as far as possible our State may be neither great nor small." See Plato's Republic, book v., chapter 8.

ing the Social Philosophy of Aristotle, in particular, liable to criticism,\* that it subordinates the individual to the State, instead of the State to the individual; that it regards the individual as the creature of the State, rather than the State as the creature of the individual, or rather aggregation of individuals; that its great leading aim accordingly is to build up the State, rather than the citizens of the State; that, in fact, it is so far carried away by this delusive abstraction of the State, that it only takes notice of the individual citizen, or at least, for the most part, only in so far as he may be made a means of advancing the State, instead of regarding the State only in so far as it may be made the means of advancing the citizen, thus palpably *mistaking the means for the end*, and committing an error very similar to that of the miser, who is so devoted to the money, which is in reality only the means of commanding wealth, that he absolutely suffers for real wealth, which consists in actual comforts and substantial enjoyments.

Another great defect in the Sociology of Aristotle, nearly akin to that just referred to, and perhaps equally as fundamental and comprehensive, is that, in so far as it does aim at the welfare of the individual, *as an end*, it aims at too much, and that, too, by means altogether insufficient, even for a less end. In fact, the Social Philosophy of Aristotle is palpably amenable to the criticism, that it violates the great cardinal rule, laid down in the first part of this review, in respect to the fundamental principles of philosophizing in general, *that a science cannot be too comprehensive in the scope of its attention, but may very easily be too comprehensive in the scope of its intention.*†

It is precisely this rule which the Social Philosophy of Aristotle, like a great many other schemes of philosophy, violates. It *intends* too much, and *attends* to too little. It aims at too great a result, and seeks to employ too small means. It takes to itself too large an end, and makes altogether too inadequate an induction of the causes tending to produce even a much smaller end.

Thus Aristotle tells us, both in his treatise on Ethics and Politics, that the great end of political science is to promote human happiness, not in the narrow sense of providing mere external goods, but also in respect to *the happiness of the soul*. This is the sublime aim of Aristotle, to promote the happiness of the soul, and that, too, by mere State contrivances, by such wretched influences as the custodians of mere political authority can dispense. Had Aristotle been a more accurate and profound sociologist, he might have discerned that political science takes quite enough to itself, and quite as much as can safely be entrusted to it, when it proposes to take the guardianship of the *material* interests of men, without any special concern about their *souls*, and that to insure the well-being even of these only, the concurrence of a great many other causes, and far more fundamental than mere political ones, is indispensably necessary.

It is, however, due to Aristotle and to truth to state, that while he is altogether too much carried away with his adoration of *the State*, and with the idea that, in order to promote the social welfare of a people, it is only necessary to secure for them a well governed State, he incidentally,

\* See part third of this review, where Aristotle, as a Social Philosopher, is compared with Confucius. December number of *Merchants' Magazine*, p. 662.

† See October number of *Merchants' Magazine*, page 410.

yet very distinctly, recognizes the important truth that there are causes more fundamental than merely political ones operating to determine the social condition of mankind, and without a due regard to which it is not possible even to organize a State upon any permanent foundation.

In the fourth book of his *Politics*, in which he treats mainly of the different forms of government, Aristotle says:—"But every Legislator ought to establish such a form of government as from the present state and disposition of the people who are to receive it, they will most readily submit to and persuade the community to partake of."\* Very well said, indeed. Guizot, the great political savan of France, and among the greatest of living political savans, could not have said it better, nor have uttered a much more pregnant and important sociological truth. Again he says in the same connection:—"All laws ought to be framed with reference to the State, and not the State with reference to the laws."† In other parts of his work, also, he distinctly recognizes the important truth that every people are not qualified for the best government, and are not, therefore, fit to receive it—a truth, by the way, which should silence a great deal of the indiscreet clamor by which the good sense of this age is distracted.

The merit of the recognition of these important truths by Aristotle is greatly detracted from, however, by the fact that he does not deduce from them adequate conclusions, or such as are commensurate with their importance; that, in short, while he nominally recognizes, he virtually ignores them, by giving greater prominence to others that are incompatible, if not essentially at variance, with them.

On this point the remarks of Comte, in his *Positive Philosophy*, are so exceedingly apposite, and intrinsically valuable, that they should not be omitted here:—"Disultory indications, more literary than scientific, can never supply the place of a strict philosophical doctrine, as we see from the fact that from Aristotle downwards, (and even from an earlier period,) the greater number of philosophers have constantly reproduced the famous aphorism of the necessary subordination of laws to manners, without this germ of sound philosophy having had any effect on the general habit of regarding institutions as independent of the co-existing state of civilization, however strange it may appear that such a contradiction should live through twenty centuries. This is, however, the natural course with intellectual principles and philosophical opinions, as well as with social manners and political institutions. When once they have obtained possession of men's minds, they live on, notwithstanding their admitted impotence and inconvenience, giving occasion to more and more serious inconsistencies, till the expansion of human reason originates new principles of equivalent generality and superior rationality."‡

Aristotle, like Plato, dwelt with great emphasis on the importance of educating youth, as a part of every political system, with the paramount importance of which the Grecian philosophers seem indeed to have been much more thoroughly imbued than those of more modern times. Yet even on this point the overweening prominence which Aristotle gives to *the State*, rather than the individual, crops out conspicuously. Thus we find him in the fifth book of his *Politics*, exclaiming, "But of all things hitherto considered, that which contributes most to preserve the State is,

\* See book iv., chapter 1, Walford's translation.

† See same book and chapter.

‡ See Comte's *Positive Philosophy*, book vi., chapter 3.

what is now most despised, to educate children with reference to the State."\* He would have the children educated *with reference to taking care of the State*, instead of their being educated *with reference to taking care of themselves*, which being effectually done by all the citizens, it must follow, as the shadow the substance, that the State will be taken care of.

The tendency of population to outrun subsistence, and the necessity for restraining it, did not escape the discernment of Aristotle. His plan for combating this tendency was even simpler than that of Plato, and far less humane. He recommended infanticide and abortion—"for a limit must be fixed to the population of the State;" so argued this enlightened and renowned philosopher of the Greeks. This was Malthusianism with a vengeance. The humane Plato, like Malthus himself, recommended only a resort to the *preventive checks* to population, and especially the *moral restraint*. But Aristotle enjoined a resort both to the *positive and preventive*, and that, too, in their most elementary and repulsive forms.†

The foregoing remarks on the famous disquisition of Aristotle on Politics are predicated on a view of it as a scheme of Social Philosophy, or as a disquisition on Sociology, which, indeed, it seems to have been intended for by its author. As a disquisition on mere Politics, however, which is very nearly all that it can claim to be, essentially, and in so far as it relates only to the legitimate province of political science, it is deserving of a far higher estimate than has been thus far placed upon it in this review.

As an analysis of political institutions, as a disquisition on the true principles, both of political right and political expediency, and moreover as a review, historical and critical, of the different forms of government which had flourished before and during his time, which last is, for the most part, its essential character, the work of Aristotle on Politics is, undoubtedly, one of distinguished merit. And although its defects are great, even as a work on mere politics, there need be little hesitation in saying that its merits are much more conspicuous than its defects.

Leaving out of view any criticism on the want of directness in his declarations of approbation and disapprobation, and on his failure to give clear and distinct prominence to leading ideas, as contradistinguished from subordinate ones, which are rather faults of rhetoric than of logic, and other noteworthy defects, both of matter and manner, it is abundantly manifest, from the whole scope of his work, that the form of government which he most approves is a highly aristocratical republic, or, what may more properly, perhaps, be termed, a *limited democracy*—a form of government in which all the three elementary forces of society—the *one*, the *few*, and the *many*, or king, lords, and commons—are represented and respected, though fundamentally democratical, or republican. This, indeed, was also substantially the idea of Plato, and has been that of the wisest men in all ages; nor is it probable that the idea will ever be

\* See Politics, book v., chapter 9.

† See Aristotle, book vii., chapter 16, of Walford's translation; also book iv., of Gillies' translation, which is not divided into chapters, and in whose translation book iv. corresponds with book vii. in Walford's, which latter is more usually conformed to. It is rather amusing to see how in this passage, as in others, Mr. Gillies glosses over the objectionable ideas of his idol, Aristotle, whom he is obviously employing, throughout, as his own spokesman, to cry down the democratical tendencies of the present age. One would glide over this part of Aristotle's work, in Gillies' translation, without having his attention arrested with anything especially obnoxious. Indeed, in reading the two translations, one is hardly aware that he is reading the same author, so much do they differ, and he may well be at a loss to know which more to condemn, the intolerably stupid translation of Walford, or the intolerably un candid one of Gillies.

materially improved upon, though, of course, it may be variously modified, as we see in the two great model governments of modern times, those of Britain and America, which, though substantially the same, have yet some noteworthy differences, the king and lords, for example, being hereditary in the one and elective in the other, and the superstructure of government in the one resting upon a much broader popular basis than in the other—the right of suffrage in the one being almost universal, while in the other it is very much restricted, so that one inclines rather too much towards a pure democracy, and the other decidedly too much towards a pure oligarchy.

Nearly allied to the foregoing idea, if not indeed a mere modification of it, another of great value is distinctly and prominently set forth by Aristotle in his *Politics*. It is this: as *the mean is in all things the best*, so the best condition for the citizens of a State is the middle one, in which they are neither rich nor poor, but moderately circumstanced, and that State is, therefore, the best conditioned in which this great middle class is proportionately the largest, and predominates most completely over both the rich and the poor, and is able, most effectually, to act as umpire or arbitrator between them in their mutual conflicts and jealousies.† This is an idea worthy of the disciple of Plato and the preceptor of Alexander.

Never was a more important sociological truth uttered, nor a more just simile invented, than that which compares human society to a glass of ale, which is on the top all *froth*, and at the bottom all *dregs*, while in the middle alone is to be found good, clear ale. This great truth Aristotle seems to have thoroughly appreciated, though in forming his estimate of those who are to be regarded as of the middle class, he is, like Plato, perhaps too intensely aristocratical.

Another remark of Aristotle, in the same connection, is very just, and entitled to particular consideration. He says “the best test of a happy mixture of a democracy and oligarchy is when one may properly call the same State both a democracy and an oligarchy.”‡ This remark, too, we find strikingly illustrated (or substantially so) in the two great model governments already alluded to—the noble monuments of the political sagacity of the present age, or rather of the Anglo-Saxon race—those of Britain and America; for it will readily be discovered, even by a superficialist, that the British government may, with equal propriety, be termed a limited monarchy and a limited republic; and although it is the almost universal habit to style the great American government a republic or democracy, as it certainly is, though greatly limited and qualified therein, yet the profound political philosopher will readily discern that it might, with equal propriety, be termed a limited, elective monarchy, grounded fundamentally on democratical principles.

In ancient times the governments of Sparta and Rome might, with equal propriety, have been cited in illustration of the same remark, as the former was by Aristotle,‡ and the latter by Polybius.§ It should be su-

\* See *Politics*, book iv., chapters 11 and 12.

† See *Politics*, book iv., chapter 9.

‡ It is a noteworthy fact that Aristotle, though frequently alluding to Carthage, never makes mention of Rome. Probably the destined mistress of the world had, in his day, made but a very slight impression on the general attention of mankind. But only two centuries later, Greece, the land of Aristotle, had become a Roman province.

§ Polybius, in his splendid criticism on the Roman government, in fact, says it may be regarded as a democracy, an aristocracy, or a monarchy, according to the various views which we may take of it, as of the consular, senatorial, or popular power in the State.

perfluous to remark that Sparta more resembled Britain, and Rome America, in the structure of their respective governments.

The remarks of Aristotle on the tenure of property, and more particularly in reply to Plato's vagaries about a community of property, wives, and children, among his *State guardians*, are exceedingly just and happy, and leave almost nothing to be desired in addition thereto, as a reply and refutation to all such vagaries. On this point he cites in argument the great fact, which is sententiously expressed by the common proverb of modern times, that "what is every body's business is no body's business," which, among the various *readings* of which it is susceptible, admits readily of this, also, that *what is every man's property, wife, or child, is no man's property, wife, or child.*\* And this is, of itself, a sufficient refutation of all schemes for substituting a general community of interest for individual interest, which, were it possible to render them operative, would, undoubtedly, lower incalculably the *average level of humanity*, relax universally the springs of human enterprise, and tend most effectually to reduce mankind to a race of "mud gods," if we may be allowed the eccentric phraseology of Mr. Thomas Carlyle, in one of his "Latter Day Pamphlets."

The remarks of Aristotle on the subject of *money*, as to its true nature and functions, which, by the way, are made by him in that part of his work on Politics in which he treats of domestic economy, and not in his work entitled "Economics," or political economy, to which it more legitimately appertains, are remarkably just and greatly in advance of his times.† They are, in fact, more in accordance with what might be expected from an Adam Smith, than from a cotemporary of Alexander the Great. But these remarks of Aristotle's will be more particularly noticed in that part of this review which relates particularly to the politico-economical system of Social Philosophy.

Nor should notice be omitted here of another idea of Aristotle's, wonderfully in advance of his times, and of great sociological importance, though one which might be passed over by many without exciting any special attention. The idea is one relating to the treatment of the great chronic disease of human society, *pauperism*, which has not particularly arrested philosophical attention until subsequently to the development of Malthusian philosophy. Aristotle's idea on this point is this eminently just and profound one, that it is a very bad plan, and one of little or no avail, to distribute alms to the poor, from time to time, and by piece-meal, as their pressing necessities may require, which he very happily compares to pouring water into a sieve. The true plan, he says, is to hoard up that portion of the public revenue intended for the relief of the poor, until it amounts to a sufficiency, and then apply it to the purpose of fitting them up with some kind of establishment or permanent possession, as a house or a field.‡

It is not a little remarkable that this is the very idea, substantially, which a very recent writer of the Malthusian and most advanced school of Social Philosophy, Mr. William Thomas Thornton, in his work on "Over-Population and its Remedy," has set forth, as his most cherished

\* See Politics, book ii., chapters 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, of Walford's translation, which is more convenient for reference, and, perhaps, more generally reliable than that of Gillies.

† See Politics, book i., chapter 9.

‡ See Politics, book vi., chapter 5.

idea concerning the proper modes of attempting to remedy over-population and its inevitable consequence, destitution. The leading and controlling idea of his very valuable work is, that all remedial schemes of that character are ineffectual which do not strike directly at the *poverty of the poor*, by tending at once to lift them out of their depressed condition.\* Little did Mr. Thornton imagine, most probably, (so little are the ancient philosophers now consulted,) that this leading idea of his carefully prepared and well digested work, had been distinctly announced twenty centuries ago by a Greek philosopher, who had not enjoyed any of the advantages of those recent discussions, in which the Malthusian philosophers have poured such a flood of light upon these abstruse and momentous questions in Social Philosophy.

After these commendations of Aristotle, as a Malthusian, a political economist, and political philosopher, it is due to the severity of truth that we should allude to some of the prominent faults of his work, as a mere disquisition on *Politics*. As a mere disquisition on *Politics*, his work is distinguished by a very similar, if not precisely the same fundamental, fault which characterizes it considered as a disquisition on *Sociology* in general. As in the one case he commits the error already referred to of aiming at the welfare of the State rather than of the individuals composing the State, so in the other he commits the error of aiming at what is favorable to the *form* of a government rather than directly at what is favorable to the government itself, essentially considered. Thus throughout his work we find him repeatedly and elaborately inquiring what is most favorable, under various circumstances, to a monarchy, an oligarchy, and a democracy, and what most favorable to a royalty, an aristocracy, and a republic, † (which he, perhaps, over-nicely attempts to distinguish from the three former,) instead of coming at once to the real question, what is most favorable, under the various circumstances in which mankind may be placed, to *good government*.

This error, which is in fact a characteristic one of Aristotle, and, to a great extent, of the Greek philosophers in general, it must be admitted, is another testimony to the general correctness of Comte's favorite theory, as to the tendency of the human mind to pass through the theological or fictitious stage, and the *metaphysical* or abstract, before coming to the *positive* or scientific. For upon the supposition that Aristotle, and the Grecian philosophers in general, were in this second or metaphysical stage, as Comte regards them, the general characteristics of their reasonings would be entirely consistent with the theory, as we see strikingly illustrated in the leading characteristics of Aristotle, as a sociologist and mere political philosopher, so conspicuously discernible in those fundamental errors now under review. For these errors betray nothing so conspicuously as a tendency to dwell upon *abstractions* rather than *positive substance*. ‡

\* See Thornton on Over-Population, chapters 7 and 8.

† The word which Aristotle uniformly uses for that form of government which he seems to consider the best, and of which he regards *democracy* as a corruption, is *Politeia*, which may be literally rendered a *polity*. And so Mr. Walford, in his Oxford translation, uniformly, or for the most part, renders it. Mr. Gillies, on the contrary, renders it *republic*, which seems to the author of the present inquiry decidedly the best rendition.

‡ Comte does not take the same view of Aristotle as that here given. In the brief allusion which he incidentally makes to the *Politics* of Aristotle, he rather regards it as containing the germs of the *Positive Philosophy* and being decidedly in advance of his times, which was undoubtedly true. But had Comte examined Aristotle on politics more closely, he would have discerned that the work was much more in violation of the positive philosophy than in accordance with it, and that a powerful illustration of the truth of his leading theory might be deduced from that very fact.

Another great fault of Aristotle, as a political as well as a mere fundamental social philosopher, is that he reposed too much confidence in the efficacy of mere political regulations, wherein he practically disregards the great truth which, as we have already seen, he theoretically recognizes, that causes, more fundamental than merely political ones, really determine the destiny of nations. Thus we find him repeatedly dwelling upon the great advantages, in respect to the mode of appointing to office, of an *aristocracy*, which he uses in its strict and literal sense, as the government of *the best*, and in which men are elected to office, not in reference to any property qualification, or because they are rich or because they are poor, not yet by lot, but in reference to *their merit and fitness* for the office. Where is the government, in modern times, nay, we might almost say, in any times, that does not theoretically recognize the correctness of this principle? But where is the tyro—the merest child in political science, in modern times, who could not inform this great philosopher of Greece that the theoretical recognition of this principle does not, by any means, or to any very important extent, insure its practical realization? In the great American republic, or, as Aristotle would have termed it, the great American *Aristocracy*, because, forsooth, men are universally elected to office therein, *theoretically* and *in contemplation of law*, on grounds of merit and personal qualification, is it not notorious that, in point of fact, there is as little electing of real merit to office as there could well be if the mode of appointing to office were the *choosing by lot* from the great body of citizens possessed of even a very moderate share of intelligence—nay, if anything, really less, since in choosing to office by *lot* the *wise* and *good* would stand a fair chance with the rest, while under the present system they stand none at all, or, at the best, a very unequal one.

But the most specifically faulty portion of Aristotle's work, as a disquisition on mere politics, is that in which he discusses the very important question—how far the lowest order of society, the great body of those who are without property, and, for the most part, without intelligence, shall be permitted to participate in the affairs of government. The conclusion at which he arrives is, that they should be totally excluded from office, but be allowed the right of voting in the popular assemblies, not only in the electing of magistrates, but in the decision of those judicial as well as legislative affairs, which, in Grecian republics, as well as in that of Rome, were decided in the popular assemblies.\*

Now, it would seem that the very reverse of this should be considered the wiser plan, namely, to render all, of whatever condition, eligible to office, but to exclude those of this class from the right of voting. The common opinion, even of the present enlightened age, is to be seen with Aristotle on this point. But this is rather another proof that mankind do not, on all points, progress in knowledge. What should appear more obvious than that the field, from which the selection of the magistracy of States is to be made, should be as extensive as possible, but that the number of those who are to make the selection, should be restricted to persons of undoubted qualification for so responsible a trust. Is the creature to be considered greater than the Creator in politics, any more than in theology? Or is it a light error to confer on those who are utterly

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\* See Politics, book iii., chapter 11.

unfit to hold office themselves the power of deciding who are fit to be office holders.

It must be admitted that Aristotle argues the matter well, in favor of universal suffrage, and as plausible as it can well be presented. He admits the general proposition that "to elect a person in any line is the business of those who are skilled in it." But he argues, further on, "In some particular arts it is not the workman only who is the best judge of them. Thus, he who builds a house," he says, "is not the only judge of it, for the master of the family who inhabits it is a better; thus, also, a steersman is a better judge of a tiller than he who made it;" and by parity of reasoning we might argue still further along—the passengers on board a ship are better judges of good sailing than the commander.

Nevertheless, and despite the specious plausibilities of Aristotle, prudent men will still doubt whether a general interference on the part of those who wish to have houses built with the plans of their architects, will tend to improve the style of architecture; and they will still doubt whether "universal suffrage" on the part of "those who go down to the sea in ships," is the best plan for improving navigation, or for taking a ship safely through the dangers of a stormy sea.

Polybius, who flourished about two centuries after Aristotle, and when Greece had become completely overshadowed by Roman power, in his justly renowned general history, has made some remarks on government which proves him to have been an eminently profound and accurate political philosopher. In the political disquisitions of Plato and Aristotle, we find much to condemn as well as to approve, but in that of Polybius we find matter only for unqualified approbation. In his disquisition we find none of the vagaries of Plato, nor the frivolities of Aristotle. His remarks are replete with solid sense and sound political doctrine.

As to the structure of government, Polybius, like every true philosopher, discards at once the idea of a simple government, or one grounded solely upon any one of the three elementary principles of human society, (monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy,) and declares the best government to be that which is mixed or compound, and embraces all the three principles, like those of Sparta, Carthage, and Rome.

The remarks of Polybius on the natural transitions to which human societies, and more particularly their governments, are subject, are well deserving of consideration, and are, doubtless, in the main, entirely correct. After distinguishing, with more precision than Aristotle, between the three elementary forms of government, and their respective corruptions, as between royalty, aristocracy, and democracy on one hand, and monarchy, (or tyranny,) oligarchy, and what may be termed a mobocracy\* on the other, he proceeds to remark that the first government, in the course of nature, is the monarchy, or the forcible government of one man, by virtue of superior strength and courage, which gradually becomes improved into a royalty, or government of one man by the consent of the governed, which government, in time, becomes corrupted into a monarchy again, or tyranny. Then follows an aristocracy, or government in which the superior classes of society, rebelling against the tyranny, take the government of the State into their hands, and this, in time, degenerates

\* This word is the coinage of the author of this review. The translator of Polybius, Mr. Hampton, uses the phrase *government of the multitude*, for which the liberty has been taken by the present reviewer to substitute *mobocracy* as more expressive as well as more concise.

into mere oligarchy, which is an unjust and corrupt aristocracy. Then follows a democracy, or government in which the general mass of society, rebelling against the injustice and oppression of the few, take the government into their own hands, according to the rules of sobriety, law, and order, and this, in time, degenerates into a mobocracy, in which the people, disregarding all law, and running into many licentious excesses, find no remedy for their disorders except in a return to monarchy.\*

The only criticism to which this view of the natural transitions of society is justly amenable, is perhaps this, that it is wrong in regarding pure monarchy as the first kind of government developed naturally in human society. The truth would rather seem to be that the first government is *patriarchal monarchy*, or what Polybius, in common with Aristotle, regards as a royalty, or mere *chieftaincy*, to which the community yield a ready and voluntary assent. It is only after society has run through all the other transitions referred to by Polybius, and has thus completed the *circle of human progress*, that it returns to monarchy indeed, but a different sort of monarchy from that from which it originally departed, not a mild royalty, nor a mere chieftaincy, but a pure monarchy, or rather absolute monarchy, since there is nothing pure in which the one man rules by virtue of armed legions, rendering the last state of that society worse than the first, as we find the second childhood of the individual worse than the first, or more hopeless and more afflicted by pains and infirmities. It should be superfluous to remark that this *natural course* of human society is often, and indeed very generally, modified and changed by accidental circumstances.

Another remark of Polybius in this connection is also deserving of special notice. It is that "above all others the Roman government, both in its first establishment and subsequent increase, displays a close conformity with the settled laws and regular course of nature."† The justness of this remark must be apparent to every political philosopher of the present age. But it is very remarkable that a philosopher should have had the discernment to make it, as Polybius did, before its correctness had been entirely verified by history. Rome was in the youth of its glory when Polybius made this remark; but with true philosophic precision he foresaw the end which awaited her; and in a subsequent part of his reflections on government, he distinctly pointed out the catastrophe which befel her about a century later, and the very causes by which she would be brought to that condition.‡

The distinguishing characteristic of the sociological reflections of Polybius is this, that they give distinct prominence to the idea, altogether too little regarded by statesmen, as well as by mankind in general, that *nations, like individuals, have their prescribed lifetime, longer or shorter, according to circumstances, and that their manifestations of activity and general destiny, under various circumstances, depend, to an important extent, upon the period in which a nation may be, or its age, at the time.*

Polybius seems to have been thoroughly imbued with the great truth that all things are in perpetual motion; that there is no standing still in the universe; that the law of decay and death, of retrogression and de-

\* See Polybius's General History, book vi., chapter 1.

† See General History, book vi., chapter 1.

‡ See General History, book vi., chapter 2.

cline, is as completely and inseparably connected with the machinery of creation as the law of renovation and life, of progression and improvement. "All things are subject to decay and change," he says\*—a volume in a sentence is here spoken by this profound philosopher of antiquity—a volume, however, which seems to have been utterly unread by many modern philosophers, especially those who are constantly prating about unlimited progress, as if, forsooth, all things in the universe were moving upwards and none downwards.

Polybius seems, indeed, to have been fully alive to the great truth which Fourier, in modern times, a far less sound political philosopher, has grandly uttered, that "all things have a beginning, a middle, and an end in the natural course of their existence. Animals, vegetables, minerals, planets, suns, solar systems, universes, biniverses, triniverses; all things, great and small, in the creation, have a natural career from birth to death, from the commencement to the close of their visible existence."†

We find Polybius uttering almost precisely the same idea, though upon a less grand scale, as follows:—For as nature has assigned to every body, every government, and every action, three successive periods; the first of growth, the second of perfection, and that which follows of decay; and as the period of perfection is the time in which they severally display their greatest strength, from hence arose the difference that was then found between the two republics." This he said in allusion to Carthage and Rome, in their great contention, known as the second Punic war. It is in this connection that Polybius made the remark, already referred to in the foregoing part of this review,‡ in relation to the Sociology of Carthage, as to the cause of Roman superiority in that memorable war, Rome being then in its period of perfection, and Carthage in its period of decay.

The same remark which Polybius made concerning Carthage and Rome, or a similar one, might, with equal propriety, be made concerning Britain and America, in modern times. The great advantages which the latter would possess over the former, in a hostile collision or contention in arms, are referable almost entirely to the fact that one is young and the other old. America may be compared to an adventurous, intrepid, raw-boned, young giant of *nineteen*, Britain to a hale, hearty, old hero of *sixty*, strong in muscle, brave in spirit, and with somewhat superior bulk of body, yet rather slow in his motions, stiff in his joints, and not capable of recuperating quickly from the effects of stunning blows.§ Should not these young giants in the arena of nations, however, be admonished to show a *proper respect for age* in their fellow nations, if not by any higher and nobler considerations, at least by the reflection that they, too, must before long, in the inevitable course of nature, pass into the feebleness and decrepitude of old age—if, indeed, they do not permanently end their career by their recklessness and folly?

\* See General History, book vi., chapter 2.

† See Hugh Doherty's introduction to Fourier's "Passions of the Soul," translated by Rev. J. R. Morrell, page 6.

‡ See *Merchants' Magazine*, December number, page 669.

§ In one important point the parallel between Carthage and Britain does not hold. Carthage, according to Polybius, in its period of old age and decay, was under the rule of the populace; Britain, in its old age, is even more under senatorial rule than young America. This only proves that the character of a nation's government is no reliable criterion of its age. In fact this question as to the age of a nation is one of the most difficult to be encountered by the Social Philosopher, and will hereafter be more particularly considered.

In reviewing the Sociology of Greece, we should not omit notice of the celebrated remark of Solon, the great Athenian lawgiver, who, when asked if he had given the Athenians the best laws, is said to have replied, "the best of which they are capable." That was spoken like a true philosopher. In this brief speech, again, we find a volume in a sentence. It is worth nearly all that Plato and Aristotle have said in their long and elaborate disquisitions on Sociology. For the good which they have spoken is so much obscured and involved in the bad and indifferent, that its value is thereby greatly impaired. But this remark of Solon stands out in bold relief, like the famous oracle of Delphi, "Know thyself." It is a direct, distinct, and unqualified recognition of the great truth, that there are laws, more fundamental than mere human enactments, determining the condition and destiny of nations—laws in deference to which all human statutes must be enacted, in order to render them of any real efficacy.

It has been already stated that Aristotle distinctly enough recognizes this truth in several passages of his disquisition on Politics, but it has also been shown that the force of his recognition is greatly impaired by the fact that in many of his most prominent aims he practically ignores it.

Nor should we omit reference, in this connection, to the remark of a similar import, which has been attributed to Anacharsis, the Scythian, who, himself a wise man, was attracted to Greece by the fame of its wise men in the time of Solon. This Scythian sage, in conversation with Solon one day, is said to have expressed his astonishment that he should expect to restrain the avarice and injustice of men by written laws, and to have remarked, "Your writings are like spiders' webs. They may catch and entangle the weak and little flies, but the rich and powerful will break through and despise them." This remark much resembles that which has been subsequently made by an English statesman—Lord Chatham—"You may entrench yourself in parchment to the teeth—the sword will find its way to the vitals of the constitution." But the remark of the Scythian sage evinces much more profundity of thought than that of the English statesman, since any one may readily see that the sword can cut its way through the cobwebs of the law and its paper fortifications, but it requires considerable sagacity to discern that there are forces in society, far less palpable and obvious than that of the sword, which can as effectually do so.

Our review of the Sociology of Greece, thus far confined almost exclusively to its speculative ideas, would seem to demand some notice of its practical Sociology, as illustrated at least in the two famous States of Sparta and Athens. Our notice of both these States, a just consideration of either of which would be an ample theme for an elaborate essay, must, however, in accordance with the vast scope of the present review, be contracted within the compass of a few sentences.

Much may be condensed in a few words concerning the sociological condition of these two famous States of antiquity, by remarking that Sparta, as organized by Lycurgus, bore a near resemblance to the model republic of Plato, already considered; and that Athens, as organized by Solon, bore a near resemblance to that kind of State which Aristotle seemed most to approve, so far, indeed, as we can get at any definite idea what his opinion on this point was. Nor is it a little remarkable and noteworthy that these two renowned States should have had two such il-

lustrious patrons respectively—that Sparta should have had Lycurgus for its lawgiver and Plato for its eulogist; and that Athens should have had Solon for its lawgiver and Aristotle for its eulogist. For though Plato did not directly eulogize the constitution of Sparta, nor Aristotle that of Athens, yet they indirectly and virtually did so, by highly commending, or at least specifically recommending, institutions prominently observable in these States respectively.

Sparta, like the ideal republic of Plato, was composed of three great classes: the artisan or labor class—the helots, as they are commonly called, who were slaves, and denied all participation in State affairs, except in respect to working, and occasionally fighting; the warrior class, or gentleman of leisure, who did nothing particularly but eat, talk, and fight, who were the real citizens of the State; and the magistracy, which consisted of two hereditary chief magistrates or kings, an elective Senate of *thirty*, and the five Ephori, a more popular species of magistrates, designed as a counterpoise to the aristocratical power of the Senate.

Like the ideal republic of Plato, the republic of Sparta aimed at equality of individual fortune among its real citizens, and as nearly attained it as is possible, perhaps, in a human society on so large a scale, and having equally as extensive aims; though, unlike the ideal republic, it did not aim at absolute community of property, still less of wives and children. Yet even on these points, it much more nearly assimilated the ideal republic than any other known human society that has existed, among Europeans at least. For in Sparta no man was permitted to have any *home* in the generally received sense of that word. Every man, woman, and child belong to the State, in contemplation of Spartan law. Even their *very meals* were all in common, and their lodgings also—at least, so the histories tell us; so that no man was permitted to occupy his wife's chamber, their interviews being altogether clandestine. Like Plato, too, the grave and unimpassioned lawgiver of Sparta seems to have entertained no very sublimated ideas as to the chastity of women, or the propriety of fostering the passion of jealousy. Jealousy was scouted at Sparta as a passion unworthy of a man, and if a woman found herself at any time a mother, provided she had furnished the State with a stout, healthy child, especially one capable in time of wielding a lance, no questions was asked as to its paternity. The child belonged to the State. In the parlance of Plato, *every man was its father*; by the way, a far nobler sentiment than that abominable one of some modern nations, that such a child is the *child of no man—nullius filius*. But shame on Lycurgus, he permitted and recommended the exposure of feeble and deformed children.

Like Plato, too, Lycurgus practically attended to the laws of genealogy, and in doing so also carried out some of Plato's ideas as to the propriety of regarding women as the equals of men, and educating them in the same manner. The women of Sparta were exercised in running, wrestling, and throwing the quoit and javelin, that by these manly exercises they might be better capable of producing a noble offspring. Mitford has perhaps justly remarked that "Lacedaemon is the only country known in history where attention was ever paid to the breed of men." But honor to Plato, Lycurgus was not the only statesman who ever had the sagacity to perceive its importance.

One notable peculiarity in the constitution of Sparta, observable also in that of Rome, where it was doubtless borrowed directly from Sparta,

is worthy of special notice, the more so as it is a peculiarity no longer observable in human society. *This was a direct representation of the more popular power of the State as a counterpoise to other powers in the executive department of the government.* This representation at Sparta was made in the persons of the five *Ephori*,\* as at Rome in the persons of the ten Tribunes. These Ephori were executive magistrates, whose authority was exerted in check-mating or restraining other powers in the government, whether legislative, judicial, or executive, and whose power extended even to the arresting and imprisoning of their kings—a power which was actually exercised on one occasion in the person of Pausanias.

In all approved modern governments, as in those of Britain and America, the popular power of the State, as contradistinguished from the more aristocratical, is directly represented only in the legislative departments of the government. There alone is the checking and balancing of power carried on, except in so far as the several departments are checks upon each other, and in so far as the different courts in the judicial department are also checks upon one another. But the executive department in all the most approved modern governments is a unit. The head of the executive, the chief magistrate, king, or president, can be impeached only in the legislative department of the government. In Sparta, on the contrary, as in Rome, this power was delegated to special executive magistrates.

Another noteworthy fact concerning the Spartan constitution, as established by Lycurgus, is, that there was a singular scarcity, if not a total absence, of *written laws*. The great aim of the Spartan lawgiver seems to have been to write his laws on the hearts of the people, and to *instil them into their habits*. Therein he proved himself a profound social philosopher. For Aristotle has wisely taught, in his Ethics, that virtue consists in certain energies or habits of the soul, and it is undoubtedly as true that *the habits of men are the real laws of society*.

One other remark it is important, and due to the cause of sociological science, that we should make on the constitution of Sparta, though it must appear a severe criticism upon the opinion which has passed current among the wise, as well as the commons, for upwards of twenty centuries—*Lycurgus did not so much give laws to Sparta, as draw out and mould into the manners of the people those laws which were already inscribed, in broad and natural outlines, on the character of Spartans, and which their environment or surrounding circumstances were eminently well fitted to maintain for many years.*† The laws which he prescribed were, in fact, in perfect harmony with the stern Doric character which was indigenous to the Spartans, who were by nature *stoics*, and they were eminently adapted to a small, isolated community of rude warrior, which the Spartans continued to be until, at least, the laws of Lycurgus went the way of all

\* The Ephori were not created by Lycurgus, but were subsequently introduced.

† Mr. Mitford, in his history of Greece, has undertaken to combat a somewhat similar idea to that of our text, namely, that the laws of Lycurgus were but revived usages of the heroic ages, or those of the rude Doric highlanders. He undertakes to assure us that Lycurgus *did it all himself*, and tells us that Xenophon, Thucydides, and others, all said so; in other words, showed that they understood the matter as little as Mr. Mitford. This somewhat renowned modern writer might hereafter have stood better as a philosophical historian if he had not taken such special pains on this point to write himself unacquainted with some of the most fundamental principles of Sociology. It is positively nauseating to read some of the puerilities of Mitford, as to the wonderful things that Lycurgus did. It seems he would have us believe that the Spartans only laughed because Lycurgus told them they ought sometimes to be merry. See Mitford's Greece, ch. iv., sec. 3.

things human. To these facts we must attribute mainly their efficacy and their durability.

It must not be denied, of course, that much credit is due to Lycurgus. But his great merit consisted in this, that he rightly interpreted the character and destiny of the Spartans. Lycurgus did something, compared with what ordinary men do, in fact, a great deal, as do the great ones of humanity generally—all, in short, or nearly all, that humanity does at all. Man, like his great original, the unseen God, is, in his little sphere, to some extent, a creator, or rather a modifier. But all that he can do, either as a lawgiver or otherwise, is as nothing compared with what he cannot do.

As for the saying, which has been upon the lips of men for now upwards of twenty centuries, that Lycurgus, by the mere force of his *ipse dixit*, banished all money from Sparta except iron, it must appear to the well-read social philosopher, nay, to the mere political economist, like some nursery story, as if one should say, the king of Siam passed a law that water should not freeze in all his kingdom, and after that day ice was never seen in all the country of the king of Siam.

Doubtless, the laws of Lycurgus, concurring with the natural traits of the Spartans, and their surrounding circumstances, to isolate the community, and to keep them in such a rude condition that iron money would suffice for the very few exchanges which would naturally take place in such an economical condition, no other than iron money may have circulated generally in Sparta for many years, for Adam Smith tells us, in his great work on the "Wealth of Nations," that even in his time there were some villages in secluded parts of Scotland in which common nails answered all the purposes of the few exchanges which took place among the inhabitants. But when, in course of time, the Spartans had acquired, by foreign conquests and other influences, other aims and other desires, than were consonant with the laws of Lycurgus, either in respect to money or other things, and when those laws were no longer a *true reflex* of the real character of Spartans, away went the laws of Lycurgus, and away went his iron money, affording another demonstration among many of the impotence of all attempts, either in human affairs or any other, to turn or to stem those mighty currents of eternal destiny upon which all things drift.

The main difference between the constitution of Athens and that of Sparta, as, indeed, between the constitutions of most nations, consisted in, or resulted from, the difference between the habits and character of the two people, which latter difference itself resulted partly from fundamental difference of race, and partly from difference of occupation or leading pursuit—the leading pursuit of the Spartans being *war*, and that of the Athenians *trade*. Hence it happened that, with very nearly the same forms of government, the one was practically an extreme democracy, the other a decided aristocracy—another proof how little depends upon mere law, that is, political law, since everything is according to law of some kind. The law-making power in Sparta, as well as at Athens, resided with the people; for though the Spartan Senate could propose laws, they had to be submitted to the assembly of the people, and by them ratified before they could take effect, just as was the case at Athens when the council of 500, or 400, as Solon ordained it, proposed laws, and the popular assembly adopted or rejected them. Yet while such was the

case in point of law, in point of fact the popular assembly was scarcely anything at Sparta, and almost everything at Athens.

One cause of a political nature for this difference between the Spartan and Athenian States, may have been that at Athens they had no special magistracy to represent the popular power of the State, like the Ephorality of Sparta, which may have rendered the Spartan people generally so secure as to their political rights that they were much more indifferent about the popular assemblies than the Athenians.

The fact that the kings of Sparta were hereditary, and the Archons of Athens elective, constitutes but a small point of difference, where such a small amount of political power was wielded as by these functionaries respectively. But while, in this respect, Athens was more democratical than Sparta, in another it was decidedly less so. For at Sparta all the elective magistrates were chosen from the great body of the people, with this qualification only, that the Senate must be chosen from among those over sixty years of age, whereas at Athens the whole magistracy of the State were to be chosen from those only of a certain rank as to fortune, a large portion of the people being totally ineligible to office.

And this brings us to the most noteworthy feature in the Athenian constitution, the more noteworthy because it seems almost exactly to reflect the political ideas of Aristotle on that point. The Athenian constitution, as modified by Solon, practically ordained what Aristotle theoretically recommended—that the magistracy of the State should be chosen only from a limited class, or limited number of classes, while to the whole body of the people should be confided the all-absorbing power, not only of making laws, but of electing the magistracy. This stupendous error Solon committed, according to nearly all the historians, from constraint, deeming it impracticable, under the circumstances, to obtain the popular consent to the surrender of this vast power which they already possessed. But what excuse can be framed for Aristotle, the idol of Mr. Gillies and others, as a political philosopher, who deliberately indorsed and approved the monstrous error, and theoretically recommended it?

Solon divided the Athenians, not slaves, into four classes, according to fortune, from the first three of which alone could any of the magistracy be chosen, but all had an equal voice and right in the popular assembly—the wise idea which the Romans afterwards adopted, of giving all a vote, indeed, in the popular assembly, but a vote assayed according to fortune, duly weighed and assorted, seems never to have occurred to Solon, nor to Aristotle, as it seems, indeed, to have passed out entirely from the wisdom of the present age.

As some check to the far too great power of the popular assembly, Solon devised the feeble institution of the council of 400, afterwards enlarged to 500, a sort of elective Senate, whose only prerogative was to frame all laws before they could be submitted to the assembly of the people. The Senate, in short, was to debate matters, but the populace were to decide them. It was this provision of Solon's constitution which provoked from Anacharsis, the Scythian, who has been already referred to, the tremendous criticism, "I wonder, Solon, that you empower the wise men only to deliberate and debate upon affairs of State, and leave the decision of them to fools."

From this withering criticism of the Scythian sage we are enabled more thoroughly to appreciate the great superiority, in some important

respects at least, of the modern nations to those of antiquity in political science. For while, in the most approved modern States, the rights of the people are guaranteed and protected to an extent unknown to the most democratical of the ancient nations, such a monstrosity as a popular assembly exercising either legislative or judicial authority, especially as a *finality*, is utterly unknown among them. For, be it known, that the popular assemblies of Greece, and even of Rome, exercised not only legislative, but in some important cases judicial authority also, so that, if we are correctly advised as to the jurisprudence of Athens, a decision of the high and world-renowned court of the Arcopagus might, in some instances, have been reviewed and reversed by a popular assembly of the Athenians. What would be thought, at the present day, of submitting an act of Parliament of the British empire to the London populace for ratification? Nay, what would be thought of a "Tammany Hall gathering," or a "grand mass meeting" before the east front of the capitol at Washington, to review a decision of the august tribunal of the Supreme Court of the United States, and to adjudge *whether it should be law?* Such monstrosities the ancient democracies, nay, their gravest philosophers, beheld without astonishment.

This, perhaps already too extended, review of Grecian Sociology will be concluded with this general remark, which may be safely deduced therefrom—that *the average level of humanity, and more particularly of its lower strata, was considerably lower in the Grecian age than in the present*; for we find that not only was slavery universal throughout the States of Greece, the most enlightened and advanced people of their age, whereas it has almost entirely disappeared from modern society, but the condition of the great *artisan* or *mechanical class* seems to have been very much inferior to what it is in modern times. The great contempt with which this class is habitually spoken of by Plato and Aristotle is incompatible with any other or different conclusion. To what causes this *upheaval of humanity* is referable, it is not among the specific objects of the present inquiry to consider. But some of those causes will be incidentally noticed in subsequent parts of this review.

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#### Art. II.—REMARKS ON LANDED CREDIT.

IN January, 1807, Sir Samuel Romilly moved, in the British House of Commons, for leave to bring in a bill "for making the freehold estates of persons dying indebted, assets for the payment of their simple contract debts." His bill, for the ten succeeding years, was always thrown out by the Lords. All he succeeded in obtaining was an act passed with the same object in view, but confined to *persons in trade*. But after the passing of the Reform Bill, his son, the Master of the Rolls, succeeded in getting all his father desired. Sir Samuel reasoned that a person owning a freehold estate should be liable for all his just debts of all kinds to the full value of that estate. The then existing law provided "that a man seized of a freehold estate may contract debts to any amount without subjecting the fee of such property to any responsibility for their discharge, provided he has not entered into any bond or security *under seal*." He

argues that this person may go on in a system of profusion more generous than just, and incur debts, and at last leave that estate, which had been the source of the creditor's confidence, to an entire stranger, and thus defeat the just claims of the creditors. But Sir Samuel Romilly overlooked the important fact that that estate, if exonerated by law, could not be involved in any just claims, for the lenders must surely have known the law, or ought to have known it. And the risk of lending was accordingly taken. The law, as it stood, was a good law. It simply declared that the ground—the soil—should not be liable for these debts. And has a government not the deepest interest in the permanent preservation, to their just owners, of all soil rights? The whole argument of Sir Samuel Romilly was in favor of the lenders—to give usury further powers and further chances of eating up the country. The effectual and hereditary preservation of the soil rights lie at the foundation of all good and permanent government. Debt, either in a social or moral point of view, is never a good thing. The law, *that the soil shall not be mortgaged*, was a warning to all, that if they lent, they must do it on other securities; and a just declaration of the rights of the people, and of the determination of the law to preserve to them the comforts of home, the security of title, and all those numerous and highly important advantages, individual and social, local and general, which flow from the uninterrupted and undisturbed rights of the freeholders. This law, which Sir Samuel Romilly labored so ardently to overthrow, was a warning to usurers that whatever other interests their cupidity might lead them to destroy, the vitals of the country should at least remain untouched.\*

The principles of the laws of entail and of primogeniture are coeval with the existence of man, and are the chief pillars of the agrarian system. There is no insolent prerogative in the one, as Gibbon so unjustly remarks; neither is there in the other anything but what is eminently fitted to secure the chief agricultural interests of a nation. And surely no Legislature can look with indifference upon any measures calculated to secure the uninterrupted descent, from sire to son, of homestead rights and privileges.

In the *Edinburg Review*, for October, 1857, there is an article on Landed Credit. One of the reasons urged by the reviewer for the establishment of land banks is, that in Britain, "by reason of entail, large tracts of land are almost permanently locked up in such a manner that, from want of capital, they remain in their unimproved state." This reason cannot apply to America, where the land is neither held in entail, nor subjected to the evils of extensive proprietorship. But the above quotation contains really no argument at all. For the owners of these entailed estates must either be indebted or clear of debt. If indebted, it surely cannot be any relief to have that indebtedness still further increased. If

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\* Since the period of the last commercial crisis, a reaction seems, in some measure, to have set in. Last spring it was proposed by the press in Western Canada to put an arrest on the legal power of collecting small debts. The Lord Chief Baron Pollock, of England, has recently proposed to abrogate that power, and the *New York Tribune*, and other papers in the United States, have echoed the sentiment. We have long been of the opinion that this is the radical cure for the evils of usury—at least it is the only one within our reach. It would obviously tend to destroy the present system of credit, by making cash the rule, and credit the exception. It would be a warning to all, that if they lend on interest, or sell on credit, they must do so on their own responsibility. But we shall hardly see such a measure passed in our days. What, for example, would be the effect of such a measure upon the legal profession, the avarice of whose followers has been a proverb since the world began? Would it not undergo the fate of Samson when he was shorn of his locks?



capital could not produce more food. How is it possible that an increase of gold can produce an increase of food? Cover Great Britain from John O'Groats to Land's End with golden sovereigns, would they have any more bread, or beef, or porridge? There has, for many years, been an uninterrupted flow of gold into Great Britain. But are they better off on this account? Has pauperism decreased? Has crime decreased? What amelioration has there been in the condition of the laboring population? Have the mill workers been removed a degree beyond pauperism? Have commercial convulsions become less frequent? It takes now the enormous sum of twenty millions of dollars annually, to feed the hungry paupers of England and Wales alone.

Money, real money, is neither more nor less than an instrument of exchange, and as it, also, is one of those things for the possession of which the miner must give his labor, so, instead of "capital producing labor," it is just the reverse, for labor must produce capital.

Nature has imposed no obstacles to the proper flow of labor to the land. The application of labor is the only capital which it demands. But usury has diverted the labor from the land, and disarranged the whole constitution and division of society. One-fifteenth part only of the population of Britain is engaged in agriculture, and there are not more than 150,000 able-bodied laborers in the whole country. As the result of the speculation engendered by usury, large cities have been fostered into an abnormal state of growth, and have drawn to them, as to a focus, a large proportion of that energy and labor which ought to be devoted to the cultivation of the soil. Whether, therefore, we look at the effects of usury on commerce or agriculture, we see nothing but the same pernicious results.

An increase of the metallic currency in any country must ever indicate, or ought ever to indicate, that it has been received in exchange for articles of similar value. Can any one really imagine that this great law of our social economy, applicable to nations and to the world at large, can every be made to bend to the so-called interests of a particular class?

It is true, I admit, that the lands of Great Britain do not yet produce near the quantity of food they are capable of doing under different division and management. But a system of mortgages, such as desired, would only aggravate those evils introduced and propagated by the feudal tenure. The land of Britain might possibly be induced to feed its present population. But under its present state of division the thing is impossible. Enormous estates have engendered many hurtful lusts. Enormous wealth and power have their counterpart in abject misery and pauperism. To speak the truth, there is no country in a more dependent position than Britain in her present circumstances; a fact which is but too well evidenced by the alarming results of every fresh commercial convulsion. She is entirely dependent on foreign demands; and there is a sort of necessity imposed upon her to force poor John Chinaman to buy her opium and calicoes at the point of the sword.

Destroy the paper currency of Britain, and she becomes at once the most helpless nation in the world. And it cannot be otherwise with any community which has, for two centuries, deluded itself and neighbors with *promises* to pay; and in which the usury of money, the usury of goods, and the usury of land, have held long, free, and full development. A commercial revulsion, which would only cripple the United States,

would dismember Great Britain. Let the readers of this magazine attentively weigh the results of the crisis of 1857 upon both countries.

The arguments in favor of facilitating the means of mortgaging lands, by encouraging a flow of capital to the soil in the way of borrowing, overthrow the first and most essential principles of trade and labor. For these principles plainly teach us that the natural flow of capital to the soil, depends upon the amount and value of the labor expended on that soil. The introduction of foreign capital to be incorporated with the soil, introduces foreign interests, foreign partnerships, and, too often, foreign possessors. It is a method of progress which, in its vain and foolish anticipations, subverts all the simple order of nature.

No one can calmly read the article in the *Edinburg Review* without coming to the conclusion, that those obstructions in the way of land owners borrowing money on the security of their lands, which the reviewer labors to prove so detrimental to national and individual interests, are, in reality, their best and surest safeguards. Mark this language—the italics are ours—"If persons possessing capital once found they could lend or invest their money with ease, and the present system were altered, we should, in all probability, soon find the *class of persons who borrow on landed security no longer confined to those who do so from hard necessity, and to whom secrecy is of importance.* On the contrary, another class would be *tempted to come forward, in whose case the fact of borrowing would be no sign of poverty, but one of the best means of developing their own resources, and those of the nation!*" This writer sees not one of the thousand evils of property groaning under debt. He deliberately shuts his eyes to these evils, and holds forth the strange doctrine, that debts and indebtedness indicate a state of health and prosperity, and would remove every obstacle on the way to destruction. If these are considered the means of developing our national wealth, the sooner society is purged of such foolery the better.

We must clearly class the Edinburg writer with the worthy Scottish baronet of the past generation. Sir John Sinclair dabbled in finance. He says, "the public debts of a nation not only *attract riches from abroad with a species of magnetic influence, but they also retain money at home.*" An idea as ridiculous as it is contrary to fact.

The reviewer would wish to see created in England and Scotland a sort of national landed debt. He speaks familiarly of payments towards interest and sinking funds, and of ultimate redemption. Perhaps he has forgotten to inquire to what extent the soil of Great Britain is already mortgaged on account of debts, or of its ability to bear further pressure. I am sure I need not remind him, that a *tax* must be ground out of somebody to pay the interest of this borrowed money. He would like to see the mortgages canceled at some period in the distant future. But—to use his own argument—why cancel the debt at all? Would not the same desire, on the part of these thrifty borrowers, to have their lands progressing on this road to unlimited wealth, exist then as now? If the debt is a good thing now, it would be a good thing then. Happy English people! Happy Scottish people! who can swallow such bait, and deliberately pile debt upon debt, tax upon tax. You seem amazingly to delight in trusts and pledges, debts and mortgages. But the *mortuum vadum* will yet prevail.

The Land Credit Institutions of the continent of Europe "create habits

of order among proprietors, by *vigorously enforcing* the punctual payment of the interest when it becomes due." Here is a new way of having things done decently and in order. Now, what hope can there be of ultimate redemption if the very interest has to be vigorously enforced? How will they *vigorously enforce* punctual payment of interest but by bringing the property to sale? Whether will such a system as this conduce to order or disorder? Such means may lead to misery and distress, but to thrift and order, never. "By receiving and investing certain small annual payments at compound interest, they not only are enabled to restore to the borrower his estate perfectly free, but also *make him feel* that every year his debt is decreasing in amount, *through his own prudence.*" Most generous and disinterested people!

On the whole, it appears that these land-credit banks are nothing but gambling institutions, designed to *create debts*, and to introduce, through the negotiation of *lettres de gage*, &c., the landed property, with all its important interests, into the excitement and speculation of the "money market." No man can be otherwise impressed who reads carefully the account of the figure cut by these *lettres de gage* in their various perambulations in the hands of scheming financiers. It is stated, and with an air of satisfaction, that not less than twenty millions worth of *lettres de gage* circulate in a German population of twenty-eight millions! The *Credit Foncier* of France is a villainous system of lottery and hazard, having its gambling features only perhaps a little more prominent than those of similar institutions in other countries. It requires small reflection to see that the principles upon which all such institutions are founded, though by whatever name known, subvert the simple order of nature, destroy all manly independence of character, open wide doors for schemers and gamblers, encourage want of faith in the never-failing promises of God, and result in misery and sorrow, when once the sleeping suspicions—misnamed *commercial confidence*—of the public are aroused.

The reviewer refers to the Mosaic law regulating the restoration to property on the year of jubilee. I give him credit for not speaking flippantly of this right royal law. But does he propose any such safeguard against the rapacity of usury? Or would he like to see such a law enforced? I would recommend him to reconsider his rudiments of social science, for it appears to me he has a deal of rubbish to clear away before he gets down to the solid rock of the Mosaic social economy.

The Mosaic law of release is one of the most benevolent laws of that benevolent system, and well worthy of being copied by modern governments. With regard both to the release of the seventh year, and to that of the fiftieth, there is a wisdom exemplified which it is impossible for us too much to admire. Both of these laws proceed upon the assumption of the greatest good for the greatest number, a principle upon which the whole economy of our social existence rests. As the year of release of the seventh year provided a positive national remedy for the evils introduced by those who had contravened the anti-usury Mosaic laws bearing upon money, goods, and chattels, so the law of release of the fiftieth year provided a great national barrier against the accumulation of large landed estates; and, at the same time, exercised a remedy for those who had been compelled by indebtedness, or other misfortune, to sell their paternal properties. If the seventh year's release provided a remedy for the evils of the usury of money and goods, the fiftieth year's

release provided a remedy for the evils of the usury of land. Practically, a Jewish family never could become a race of wanderers or outcasts; for, though it might, for a time, undergo the trials and sorrows of expatriation, yet the trumpet of jubilee was sure, at no very distant date, to usher in the joyful day of return to home and possession. And let him who has experienced the fulfillment of hopes long deferred, endeavor to realize, if he can, the glory of that morn which should fill a nation's heart with joy and gladness. There is a perfection, a simplicity, a perpetuity, about the Mosaic agrarian laws which, on sober reflection, must commend them to every mind. The lawful possession of property was fenced on every side, and defended from every intruder. These laws, whilst recognizing universal equality as a very good thing, form, at the same time, the only sure safeguard against that inequality in the possession of property, which has been the bane of every civilized nation; which has exposed thousands of homes to the inroads of poverty and distress; and created, especially in high commercial communities, the invidious distinction of a *laboring* class. It is impossible for us to conceive the beauty and rich profusion of a Jewish harvest home, in those times of comfort and peace, when God bestowed upon their highly favored land the blessings of His good treasure. The heart of the Christian world beats high with anticipation that that goodly time shall soon be reproduced on a mightier scale—when the sword of war shall be beaten into the plowshare of peace—and earth's long drawn furrows shall proclaim that the years of complaining have ceased, and that the long promised years of rest have come. In a word, the Old Testament social economy is founded on the eternal principles of truth, justice, and equity, and must, therefore, be of universal application.

These laws acknowledged a principle which, I think, has only to be stated to be approved—*that he who owns the land should cultivate it, and that he who cultivates the land should own it.*

The written constitution of the Bible acknowledges no system of tenancy. In truth, we cannot disassociate the usury of land from the usury of money, or the usury of goods. The renting of land is the usury of land, and is to be condemned equally with the usury of money. Commerce suffers by the one, agriculture by the other. The land cannot, indeed, be bartered away like an article of merchandise, or a piece of money, and the evils of the system of tenancy may not on this account be just so patent as those which are seen every day in the usury of money. Yet, in the long run, the effects are pretty much the same. He who rents a piece of land must sell his produce at an enhanced rate in order to pay a profit to both landlord and tenant, in precisely the same manner as he who buys his cottons with borrowed money, must sell them at a fictitious price, in order to pay both merchant and banker. On the other hand, he who owns and cultivates the land, can afford to sell at a cheaper rate, just as he who buys his cottons with his own ready money, can afford to undersell his neighbor who trades with borrowed money. All who have ever rented an acre of ground, will at once subscribe to the truth of these statements. In both cases, the industrious must support the idle; in both cases production is circumscribed; and in both cases prices are enhanced beyond the natural and healthy limits imposed by the inexorable rules of demand and supply. These three pernicious results of usury, again, react upon society in producing untold misery and wretchedness. The healthy division of labor is altogether disarranged,

and hosts of people, who ought to be producing their share of the great staples of life, spend their lives in a state of inaction, in meretricious display, or in pursuits which only minister to and foster depraved tastes. And, however active such people may be in following such pursuits, they are, in reality, as much pensioners upon society as the positively idle. To usury, and to usury alone, must we trace that feverish anxiety which we now yearly witness, regarding the yield of the growing crops. And it must be confessed that there is enough, in the present crowded and dependent state of our large cities, to warrant the most anxious solicitude. So thorough is the disarrangement caused by this mighty system of evil, that our fair, our beautiful, our bountiful earth, is in danger of being reproached with inability to support its human inhabitants. The evils of the tenant system, or of one man holding more of the world's surface than will afford a comfortable maintenance to himself and family, are so well exemplified in the territorial divisions of England and Scotland, in the estates and middlemen of Ireland, and in the serfdom of Russia, that I need not add more than merely refer to them. True freedom, true independence, true patriotism, can never consort with such unequal divisions. There must everywhere be a healthy limit to territorial possession. Rollin has truly said that "the soul of popular States is equality."\*

I am thus particular in specifying some, at least, of the evils of the usury of land, because the European system of land banks has recently been introduced, with no small flourish, into the American continent. The all but universal individual proprietorship which so happily prevails here, is one of the most prominent and interesting features of the social system of America. This is the brightest star in her banner, and the surest safeguard of her liberties. But monopolizing forces are at work which may overturn this state of things, and lead to the same evils as were engendered by the feudal system of Europe. By all means let us keep a jealous eye upon European fashions and institutions, and especially beware of land sharks. Let me enjoin American farmers and owners of land to turn a deaf ear to all such charmers. The introduction, into the soil, of foreign capital, and foreign interests, will, by no means, conduce to the greenness of the fields of America.

W. B.

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### Art. III.—CANALS OF THE UNITED STATES.

A BRIEF VIEW OF THE CANALS, THEIR PAST HISTORY AND PRESENT STATE—LIKE CAUSES PRODUCE LIKE EFFECTS—CERTAINTY AND CELERITY, WITH SAVING OF TIME, AND THIS, TOO, EVERY DAY IN THE YEAR, ARE THE WATCH-WORDS OF COMMERCE, PRODUCED BY RAILWAYS, TO THE DECADENCE OF CANALS.

THESE plain axioms have produced the revolution taking place in the mode of transportation, both in Europe and the United States. It is a fact, now well established, that all tonnage of value, cattle, and perishable articles are leaving the canals for the railways, more and more each successive year, as the consumer and producer will pay for time, certainty, and celerity, while banks patronize railways to get short drafts.

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\* Sixty thousand families own all the territory of Great Britain. Five noblemen own about one-fourth of all Scotland.

We took this ground, twenty years ago, to endeavor thereby "to do the State some service," as in part stated in the November number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, (page 547.) We will further enlarge on this subject, to correct, if possible, at another time, the views entertained in 1840 by the canal advocates in this State and in Pennsylvania, who proclaimed as their creed, "that canals are always growing better, while railways are growing worse," a doctrine that, unfortunately for the rising generation of taxpayers, the State of New York has acted on, at one period and now, to the serious detriment of her credit, with the certain prospect of increased taxation to sustain her credit and pay her State indebtedness.

The present canal system, and the political management of our canals by conventions held in Rochester and Utica, and by Clinton Leagues in New York, to make political capital, under the absurd plea of "saving them," and their "more speedy enlargement," and in propounding questions to members nominated to the Legislature in all parts of the State, has become an evil that requires correction.

*Experiencia docit* is a good motto of the Latins. Experience, however, does not teach the statesmen of New York. They shut their eyes to the history of canals in the States around them. We have been infatuated with our success with the Erie Canal, a work unique in its character, uniting, with the Oswego Canal, as they do, inland seas, and the vast and fertile coasts on their borders, with the city of New York.

To recount, as briefly as possible, the fate of canals in the several States, is by no means a pleasant task. It may, however, be a useful lesson to our next Legislature to ponder on, and may be useful in illustration of our text—"like causes produce like effects"—while experience should teach us that all the wisdom of the State is not concentrated in a self-constituted league of forwarders and seedy politicians, who would use the canal mania, with which the State of New York has been inoculated, to still ride this political hobby; and, let us add, to such an extent, that it is high time the people should pause, and take soundings for a new departure. We say this, in view of the reckless, the heedless expenditures on the log-rolling lateral canals, under the plea of repairs, "to be made on the plan of the enlarged canal," when the whole of these lateral canals have been superseded by railways, with the exception of the Oswego Canal, and this important work would not be an exception, if the Oswego and Syracuse Railroad was *finished*; that is to say, connected with the mills and harbor of Lake Ontario, or, what would be better, (our favorite hobby,) a direct railway from Oswego to Troy, to intersect at that point the Hudson River Railroad and the Hoosic Tunnel route to Boston, and thus connect the West with the wharves of New York, and with Boston, on a line, and *the only one*, that can contend successfully with the Great Western and the Grand Trunk railways of Canada, leading through manufacturing New England to Boston and Portland, as well as Quebec, destined, in looking to the future, to relieve the Erie and Oswego canals of all plethora of business.

But to refer to the history of canals, and their fate, in sagacious New England. The Essex Canal, in Massachusetts, has been superseded by the Boston and Lowell Railroad; the Blackstone Canal by the Providence and Worcester Railroad by its side. The tow-paths of these canals are serving for railways, while the water in them is being diverted and used to supply mills and spinning-jennies. The Farmington Canal—to repeat

an old story—to open which, and for the important occasion, Governor Clinton and the magistrates of New York were invited to attend, and a great deal said of its importance and of its future success, has gone into oblivion. A railway is constructed on and near its tow-path, and is vivifying the manufactures and agriculture of Connecticut by producing celerity and certainty.

The six New England States, while they have abandoned the construction of canals as an obsolete idea, have completed, up to 1st January, 1858, (see the *Merchants' Magazine* for March, 1858, page 385,) 3,884 miles of railways, at a cost of \$146,805,163; and as a whole system and investment, (although there are many competing and premature lines running north and south,) they have paid about 6 per cent per annum since their commencement. The State of Massachusetts, in her sagacious enterprise, has the honor of having completed the first railway in the United States—the Quincy, on which to transport her granite to market. Then Maryland followed with her Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, to pass the Alleghany ridge, 2,700 feet high, and with very exceptionable grades; yet over 2,000,000 barrels of flour were transported in 1857-8 over this road to Baltimore, principally from the valley of the Ohio, formerly controlled by the New York canals. Of this 2,000,000 barrels of flour, more than one-third was shipped coastwise to Philadelphia, New York, and the New England States. "The value in *grain* transported over this road in 1858 was \$5,300,000; provisions, \$6,000,000; live stock, \$4,174,000; dry goods, \$30,000,000. The hog receipts in Baltimore in 1858 was 183,161." "Of 43,031 beef cattle slaughtered in Baltimore, 14,400 came over the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and 47,881 sheep."

The engineering wisdom of the State of New York next came into the field, and projected and built the Albany and Schenectady Railroad, with two inclined planes, that have since been superseded, and laid a track down State-street, on the call of the citizens of Albany, which of course had to be abandoned, also the dark, pick-pocket *dépôt* of 30 feet by 100, in which the great trade and travel to and from the West was to be concentrated.

In New Jersey, the Morris Canal, 101 miles long, to Easton, Pennsylvania, constructed at a cost of \$4,300,000, has sunk its capital to reach the coal mines, and we believe only lives in the memory of the stock dealers of Wall-street. It has never *earned* a dividend, and is now superseded by railways parallel to it, contending for the same trade. Such is also the case with the Delaware and Raritan Canal, 43 miles long, 7 feet deep by 70 feet wide, costing \$3,000,000. This canal has two or three locks, starting from Trenton, on the Delaware, and terminating at New Brunswick. It commenced with steam and horse power, and is now operated mainly by mule-power. Comparatively, with its capacity, it does a very limited business. At its commencement, it did not earn one per cent net on its cost. Family and political influence, it is said, was brought to bear in the New Jersey Legislature on the proprietors of the Camden and Amboy Railroad, costing about the same sum as the Delaware and Raritan Canal, and this latter bad investment was forced on the railroad, with special privileges granted to make it a monopoly for transportation through New Jersey. The railway was to have the privilege (a doubtful constitutional one) to charge, we believe, about one dollar per head for each foreign passenger passing through the State for the benefit of the

treasury of New Jersey! The railway has regularly, for a number of years, earned from 15 to 16 per cent, and divides the same with the canal in 8 per cent dividends on both canal and railway.

The history of the canals, and other State improvements of Pennsylvania connected with them, in the log-rolling principle on which the canals were constructed, presents a costly and painful exhibition of the mania caught by that State from the State of New York, after our first success with the Erie Canal. Pennsylvania, after having been forced to suspension in paying the interest on her State indebtedness, (exceeding \$35,000,000—we believe near \$40,000,000,) and finding, after a fair trial, (as we shall find in New York,) that the State, confessedly, “was incompetent to manage her public works with economy;” that the canals were fair game for each political party to plunder as they came into power, came to the sound conclusion that it was best to sell her public works, particularly the main stem from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, if she could get \$7,000,000, at which they were limited. They were in the market two years, before the Central Railway of Pennsylvania was induced by the State to purchase them. The result has been, as the late Governor tells us, that the canal is better managed by private enterprise than it was before under appointments made for political services, liable to constant change by a popular vote, perhaps just at the moment the incumbent had just learned his duties. The Schuylkill Canal, under private management, has been enlarged to 6 feet by 60, (the best possible size,) 108 miles long, and has a descending lockage all the way from the coal fields, and has a constant and steady business in the transportation of coal. Before the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad was projected and completed, the stock of this canal company was up to \$160 for \$50 paid per share, giving at that time 20 per cent dividends. In the contest with the railway for supremacy, the canal had to intermit its dividends four years, contending for the same trade. The railway, finally, we believe, dictated terms, or rates of transportation, to the canal. They have now, we believe, mutually agreed on a rate to remunerate them for transportation, which, for the railway, for 1857, was \$1 41, and in 1858, \$1 21, (the average of the seasons, \$1 31,) per ton per mile. We have not the official report for 1859. The railway carried also 577,330 passengers, or equal to 211,568 through, during 1857–8, with 4,069,956 tons, (of 2,000 lbs.,) or above two millions of tons per annum. The canal, during the same period, did not transport half that quantity, and during its seven to eight months of navigation is not competent to transport half the quantity the railway has proved itself competent to transport, say four millions of tons per annum. The canal, on an average, is closed one year in three, and in New York a longer period.

The Delaware and Hudson Canal, supplied by a railway from the mines in Pennsylvania, has sustained itself in name as a canal, and has paid regular and good dividends to its stockholders. This arises, however, from its owners mining and transporting their own coal to the New York market, and then dividing the profits. This is also the principle on which the Lehigh Canal is managed.

The five Middle States had open and in operation to January 1, 1858, 6,894 miles of railroad, costing \$309,376,488. We have not at hand the average net earnings on this capital.

From the experience of Pennsylvania with her canals, owned and man-

aged by the State—a complete failure—we pass to the State of Delaware. She has a large or “ship canal,” to pass coasters between the Delaware and Chesapeake, excavated through a deep cut, at a great expense. The last we heard of this canal, after its completion, was that it passed into the hands of a receiver, to pay Mr. J. Randall, the engineer, and the contractors, for building it. It has disappointed, we believe, its projectors, in passing the coasting trade from Philadelphia through this channel to Baltimore, the railway between these places transporting the valuable tonnage.

The Governor of Maryland, in his message two years ago, informed the Legislature that the State had once been offered one million of dollars for what had cost her above eight millions, invested mainly in the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, and if the State could again get a like sum offered, it would be best to take it. Further, that the interest on the bonds granted to the Baltimore and Ohio and other railroads had been punctually paid, and was no burden on the State treasury.

Virginia called to her assistance a distinguished French engineer to scale her Alleghany ridge. She has not been successful with her “James River Improvement,” nor in her expenditures on the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, although aided largely by the General Government with funds invested in this work—lost entirely—which in part justifies her in not aiding, or mixing herself with or in, the internal improvements of the several States. Breakwaters, the improvement of harbors, and light-houses on our sea and lake coasts, are legitimate objects of expenditure from the revenue derived from imposts, not the internal improvement of States. An appropriation of funds to construct a Northern and Southern Pacific Railway to the port of San Francisco, and to the Straits of Fuca and the mouth of the Columbia River, derived from the sale of the public domain, or this source of revenue to be used to pay the interest on the cost, and finally the cost itself, of these two works, calling their cost to be at from one to two hundred millions, and to be managed by private enterprise and directors—a part, say one-third to one half, to be appointed by Congress, and also to be under the supervision of the President and his cabinet—we think a legitimate enterprise for the General Government, under the peculiar circumstances of the case. We are opposed, from past experience, to the General or State governments constructing or managing public works of internal improvements and intercourse between the States.

From Virginia we pass to North Carolina. Between these States we have the Dismal Swamp Canal, constructed originally with the desire and hope of avoiding the risk of Cape Hatteras to the coasting trade of the Chesapeake and the Delaware. In the time of war, if we had not railways, it would be an admirable internal improvement. It has not paid 2 per cent per annum on its cost since its completion.

The other Southern States have but few and short canals. South Carolina has eight river improvements, numbering 52 miles; Georgia two, of 28 miles; Alabama two, of 51 miles; Louisiana, 28 miles; Kentucky five river improvements, of 486 miles, of which we have no account.

The five Southern States have completed and opened, up to January 1, 1858, 4,058 miles of railway, costing \$94,885,632. The seven Southwestern States, to the same period, have 2,438 miles opened and in operation, at a cost of \$67,128,946; the whole of which is a paying invest-

ment, managed by private enterprise, and of incalculable value to bind the interests of these States together, and to connect them with the Western and Northern States. The \$900,000,000 invested in 26,000 miles of railway, up to January 1, 1858, is next in amount to the investment in agriculture. It is of the first importance to bind the States and their interests together in iron bands; to distribute intelligence and literature by the mails; and railways make the country invulnerable to foreign attacks.

We now pass to the State of Illinois, where the first emigrants, mainly from the State of New York in the first instance, and settled in and south of Chicago, projected and completed the Michigan and Illinois Ship Canal. Although this work started and turned public attention to Chicago as a distributing point to the West, it has been nearly superseded by the numerous railways constructed nearly parallel to it, some thirteen of which have their termini at Chicago, making it the greatest receiving and distributing point of grain in the world, numbering twenty-one millions of bushels.

Statistical reports present the fact that the State of Illinois has doubled her population every five years for the last fifteen years. If the whole amount expended in this State for railways was obliterated, the people and taxable property in it would still be benefited. It is true the new Western States have been constructing railways, for speculative purposes, and *in advance of population*, to sell lands on grants made to them by the General Government, that has brought the system into discredit as paying works. Eastern capitalists have been tempted by the high rates of interest with mortgages on farms situated on the line of these enterprises, particularly in Wisconsin, to invest their money. We trust, with a little more time, the borrower and the lender will secure the benefit of these investments, as the motto of railways over the whole world is "*upward and onward.*"

The State of Indiana must, forsooth, follow the example of the great State of New York, to her cost and shame, by repudiation. She projected and completed the Wabash and Erie Canal, 469 miles in length, costing, we believe, about \$22,000,000—"the longest canal in the United States;" but was obliged to intermit paying the interest on her debt for its construction. At this stage, the unpaid contractors and bondholders took the canal off the hands of the State at half cost—at the time thought a great bargain. The sequel is—and the lesson should teach the State of New York, (the only one that thinks of canals, except as a bad speculation, and for the management of a State,)—that the purchasers of the canal have been before the Legislature of Indiana with petitions complaining of their unfortunate purchase, and claim that, as the State had granted charters to railways parallel to this "magnificent canal," the construction of which had carried off the business of the canal, although the State engineers of Indiana, at the time of sale of the canal, had, like those of New York, stated to the public in their official reports, and in their hot zeal for canals—or in their ignorance—that railways could not, under any circumstances, compete with canals, they should be remunerated for their loss. One engineer in the State of New York palmed off his official opinion "that it would take six double-track railways by the side of the Erie Canal to do its through business," when he should have known that, at the time, the people were humbugged with this opinion, being about the time the nine millions of dollars was to be borrowed for

the more "speedy enlargement"—a work, to the disgrace of the State or the engineering talents she has employed, has been twenty-four years in the course of prosecution, and as yet the Canal Board for the season of 1859 have ordered, by resolution, that "no boat be permitted to draw over five feet," yet with this depth of water the new and improved canal-boat has carried 213 tons from Rochester, and about the same through the Oswego Canal. They have also touched bottom on the long level at Rome, during the summer, drawing only four-and-a-half feet—*pro pudor*.

As our remarks on the history of canals in the United States, although as brief as possible, have extended beyond the space we had intended to confine ourselves, we will therefore merely say of Ohio, (a State that has been bit with the canal fever to the extent of 796 miles of canals,) that her Governor has told the last two Legislatures in his messages, that railways were yearly reducing the receipts on the State canals—like in the State of New York—and the question must be met—whether, from past experience, it would not be better for the State to sell out her public works, and let them be managed by private enterprise.

We will not now touch on the errors and the past experience of New York, in her log-rolling system of lateral, pauper canals. If time and health permits, we will give the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* "our experience" on this subject, and their political management, for more than one third of a century, and endeavor to show that it is high time to pause in our mad career of further spending money on our canals, beyond perfecting a uniform depth on all our canals to six feet of water, and to foster and protect railways and private enterprise, and not tax it.

J. E. B.

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#### Art. IV.—COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER LXXI.

##### CINCINNATI, OHIO.

CINCINNATI THE PIONEER—LAYING OFF—VALUE OF THE SITE—TRIBUTARY TERRITORY—ADVANTAGES OF A CENTRAL SITUATION—POPULATION—COMPARATIVE POPULATION—WEALTH OF CINCINNATI—HAMILTON COUNTY—CONCENTRATION OF CAPITAL—ITS ACCUMULATION—MANUFACTURES—VALUE OF LEADING ITEMS—STEAM TONNAGE—RAILROADS—COST—MINERAL REGION—ITS EXTENT AND CONNECTION—COAL—IRON—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—IMPROVED CONDITION OF THE CITY—CROPS—RECEIPTS OF LEADING CROPS—PROGRESS OF PRODUCTION—HAY CROPS—COMPARISON WITH 1854—EFFECTS OF GOOD HARVESTS.

CINCINNATI has been the pioneer of Western cities, and the model for emulation among all the cities which have sprung up with such rank growth, "west of the mountains," during the first half of the present century. In that period it has witnessed the greatest vicissitudes, as successive waves of speculation have rolled over it, each one, like the rising tide, carrying the line of population further to the westward, and subsiding into a season of depression, but leaving signs of greater wealth and abundant elements of more enduring prosperity. In 1788, September 6, there appeared in the *Kentucky Gazette*, printed at Lexington, an advertisement, signed by three persons, who, being owners of land at

the mouth of the Licking River, proposed to "lay off a town" there. The meeting took place. The town was laid off by marking the streets on the trees, and it was called Losantiville, subsequently Cincinnati. That city has now swollen to a great magnitude, but has apparently just begun to grow.

The natural site of any place has much to do with its prosperity; indeed, more than any one thing. In this respect, Cincinnati has been peculiarly fortunate. It is central to the Ohio Valley in situation, and in its actual locality could not be better placed for convenience and comfort. The Ohio Valley comprehends full 220,000 square miles of area, and in the very center of this immense space, containing greater natural resources than any other equal area on the earth, lies Cincinnati, which is, and must forever be, its natural metropolis, controlling the great body of its trade and production.

The commerce of the Miami, of the Wabash, of the Scioto, the Muskingum, and the Kenhawa, almost exclusively belong to Cincinnati; while, on the other hand, the trade, at particular points, extends far beyond the natural boundary of the Ohio Valley. Thus iron is brought to Cincinnati from Northwestern Georgia, while the stoves, which are manufactured from iron, are carried to Missouri, Iowa, and Kansas. Sugar is sold from Cincinnati on the shores of the lakes, and immense amounts of provisions and general produce are carried to the Gulf of Mexico. These facts, geographical and commercial, prove that Cincinnati, by its central position, is naturally the metropolis of the Ohio Valley. The territory, which is thus exclusively within the control of Cincinnati trade, extending from the sources of the Kenhawa to those of the Wabash, and comprising 220,000 square miles, is equal to the extent of France, and is double that of Great Britain and Ireland. Its capacities for feeding a population, and of furnishing materials for manufactories, are greater than that of either of those great empires. It is safe to say that it will contain a population of not less than fifty millions, and that it will attain that within a century. Within the circle of population, defined by the trade of a city, experience has proved that the population of the central mart may, and generally does, reach one-tenth that of its commercial district. At present, the population of Cincinnati, Pittsburg, and Louisville, taken together, make about one-tenth of the population of the Ohio Valley proper.

A central city enjoys the great advantage of collecting products from every quarter. It is not a coast city, accessible to the interior only on one side. This advantage enables it to centralize industry and production; but, as one city cannot consume all products, it must have equal means of diffusion, and an ability to choose between foreign and domestic markets. Interior cities are now furnished with this ability, united with the utmost speed and greatest facility of transit by railway locomotion. The moment this is accomplished, the comparative commercial power of interior cities is measured by the extent of the radial lines to the places of supply, and to the ports of foreign commerce; and in this view, no place is more entirely central than Cincinnati, since it is nearer the Atlantic and the Gulf, at every point, than Chicago, and nearer than St. Louis and Louisville to every point except Mobile and New Orleans.

The country which contributes its agricultural wealth to this central city, is of unsurpassed fertility, and abounds with every element of suc-

cessful manufactures. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that its population has increased with marvelous rapidity. This rapidity of growth being relative, can be compared only with other American cities. Cincinnati was founded in 1788; Louisville in 1773; Pittsburg in 1784; St. Louis in 1764; New York in 1613; New Orleans in 1717. The population of each has progressed as follows:—

|            | Cincinnati. | Louisville. | Pittsburg. | St. Louis. | New Orleans. | New York. |
|------------|-------------|-------------|------------|------------|--------------|-----------|
| 1800 ..... | 750         | 359         | 1,565      | 1,000      | 6,000        | 60,489    |
| 1810 ..... | 2,540       | 1,357       | 4,768      | 1,600      | 17,242       | 96,373    |
| 1820 ..... | 9,642       | 4,012       | 7,248      | 4,598      | 27,176       | 123,706   |
| 1830 ..... | 24,831      | 10,341      | 12,368     | 5,852      | 46,310       | 202,589   |
| 1840 ..... | 46,338      | 21,210      | 21,204     | 16,469     | 102,193      | 312,710   |
| 1850 ..... | 115,436     | 43,194      | 46,601     | 77,860     | 116,375      | 515,547   |

The average increase of Cincinnati has been higher than that of either of the other cities, and the wealth of Cincinnati has increased quite as fast as its population. This may be known best by the successive valuations of the county. Four-fifths of the wealth of the county is in the city, and they may be taken, for this purpose, as nearly identical. The valuations of Hamilton County have been as follows for many years:—

|           |              |           |              |
|-----------|--------------|-----------|--------------|
| 1841..... | \$10,764,494 | 1852..... | \$84,314,491 |
| 1845..... | 12,442,091   | 1855..... | 112,945,419  |
| 1847..... | 51,756,740   | 1857..... | 120,890,791  |
| 1850..... | 55,670,631   |           |              |

From 1840 to 1857, the increase of population was 300 per cent; but the increase of wealth was 1,100 per cent. From 1850 to 1857, inclusive, the increase of population was 56 per cent; but the increase of wealth was 120 per cent.

This fact shows the concentration of capital and industry in a very high degree, without which no such result could occur. In 1840, the property of Cincinnati amounted to \$230 for each living soul. In 1850, it was \$400 to each person. In 1857, it was \$660. Absolutely, then, the people of Cincinnati have added 50 per cent to their wealth in the last seven years.

Looking at this fact in another point of view, we can readily see the relation of production to consumption, or, in other words, the accumulation in Cincinnati. This accumulation is precisely equal to the increased value of its property—which is seven per cent annually. This accumulative value is a gain on capital. It is just so much as the products of the earth, industry, and skill, exceed the consumption of the people. In 1855, 1856, and 1857, this was \$5,000,000 per annum. If, as we suppose, the exports amount to about \$60,000,000, it was nearly seven per cent on the exported values.

This, however, is not the true test of the value of interest; for it is the accumulation, or the use of capital, not regarding either the labor, or raw material. It may be they would be idle, without borrowing money. In that case, a loan of half the amount of capital employed would afford a profit of 14 per cent, and thus justify the manufacturer or tradesman in borrowing at 10 per cent.

The manufactures of the city of Cincinnati have increased in a surprising ratio. According to the census returns of the United States for 1840 and 1850, and a careful canvass made by C. Cist, Esq., for the *Gazette* of that city, the aggregate value of the various departments in

1840, was \$17,780,033; in 1850, \$54,550,134, and in 1860, \$112,254,000, having more than doubled in the last ten years.

These embrace every variety of handicraft, of which boots and shoes figure for \$1,750,000; agricultural implements, \$1,290,000; butchers, \$4,370,000; candles, \$6,114,000; builders, \$2,760,000; clothing, \$15,000,000; flour, \$3,500,000; castings, \$6,353,400; furniture, \$3,656,000; iron, \$5,334,000; liquor, \$17,800,000; medicines, \$1,960,000; milling, \$1,750,000; pork packing, \$6,300,000; publishing \$2,610,000; sashes, \$1,380,000; stone cutting, \$1,125,000; tailoring, \$2,035,000; tanning, \$1,520,000; tobacco, \$1,667,000.

Of the 37,000 miles of coast, belonging to the Mississippi, Missouri, and Ohio, with their several tributaries, each and every part is as accessible to boats from Cincinnati, as they are to any other place on these great rivers. As a consequence of this fact, the increase of navigation at Cincinnati has kept pace with the increase of commerce in the whole valley of the Mississippi. Since 1811, the era of steam navigation in Ohio, Cincinnati has been one of the chief places for steamboat building in the West.

The increase of navigation at Cincinnati is indicated by the following table of the number and tonnage of steamboats and barges arrived at Cincinnati annually:—

|              | Steamers. | Tons.  |              | Steamers. | Tons.  |
|--------------|-----------|--------|--------------|-----------|--------|
| 1850-51..... | 233       | 49,274 | 1855-56..... | 365       | 92,401 |
| 1851-52..... | 263       | 60,542 | 1856-57..... | 357       | 87,453 |
| 1852-53..... | 298       | 76,647 | 1857-58..... | 319       | 74,483 |
| 1853-54..... | 314       | 80,266 | 1858-59..... | 327       | 73,222 |
| 1854-55..... | 318       | 80,874 |              |           |        |

At an early day the people of Cincinnati recognized the importance of railways as a means of transportation, and they proceeded to plan and execute those vast lines which now radiate from Cincinnati to every point of the compass, and which have so much interfered with the traffic of the State canals. Of these roads there are ten or twelve direct *commercii radii*, of which most are complete. In this relation the New York lines terminate at Cleveland, the Philadelphia line at Pittsburg, the Baltimore lines at Wheeling; the North line direct at Sandusky, the Northwest line at Chicago, the West line at St. Louis, the Southwest line at Nashville, the direct South line at Pensacola, and the Southeastern lines at Savannah, Charleston, and Norfolk. There are 10 roads now centering in Cincinnati, of which the cost was \$50,000,000, and these carry a very large proportion of the produce to and merchandise from Cincinnati.

Great and important as is the railway development, in considering the future growth of Cincinnati, it is perhaps of less importance than another, which we shall now mention. This is the future development of the mineral region around Cincinnati. The past experience of the city, as well as that of Philadelphia, proves that it is not at all necessary that a city should be in a mining region, in order to derive advantage from the raw material used in manufactures. But it is necessary that such a city should be comparatively near, and have commercial facilities of transportation to such a mining region. In this respect Cincinnati is almost unrivaled, and it is this fact which has made her what she is as a manufacturing place. The advantages which Cincinnati has as a manufacturing place, she has hardly more than begun to enjoy. This will appear from

certain geological facts, stated by geologists who have made personal examinations of the surrounding country.

From the summits of the Alleghany and Cumberland mountains, southward for hundreds of miles, the whole country is underlaid with coal, forming a part of the great central coal basin. In Ohio it extends nearly to the Scioto River. It comprehends Western Virginia, Eastern Kentucky, and East Tennessee. Within easy reach of Cincinnati by railway there must be at least 40,000 square miles of coal-strata, three times the amount possessed by Great Britain. These coal-beds crop out in thousands of places, so as to be convenient for the common fuel of the people, while in numerous places the coal lies in thick strata, intersected by various railways now constructing, and enumerated in the foregoing tables. Over thousands of miles the beds of coal are interstratified with iron, in quantities sufficient to supply the demands of manufactures through countless ages. Already between sixty and seventy furnaces, in Southeastern Ohio and Eastern Kentucky, are actively and profitably engaged in supplying iron, chiefly for Cincinnati. The demand for this article is so constant and so increasing, that many new furnaces are now erecting on the lines of the new railways. On the other hand, the demand for coal at Cincinnati, to manufacture the raw iron into castings and machinery, is so great, that in the last few years the consumption of that article has increased fourfold, and in time, the railways, by moving coal at all seasons of the year, will make the supply of this important product certain and uniform. Passing further into the Southeast, we find the mountain country of East Tennessee, Southeastern Kentucky, and Southwestern Virginia, filled with the most valuable mineral productions; some of which are the only ones necessary to perfect the machinery and manufactures of Cincinnati. In that region are not only coal and iron, in inexhaustible quantities, but also copper and zinc; two metals, in modern manufactures, of inestimable value. From the copper mines of East Tennessee, millions of pounds of copper have already been carried to Savannah, Georgia, and shipped thence to the manufactures of the East. From these mines to Cincinnati is a much less distance, by railway, than to Savannah and Charleston, and less than half the distance from Cincinnati to the mines of Lake Superior, or from the latter to the nearest Eastern manufactures. Hence, the manufacture of all wares involving copper, may, at Cincinnati, have a double advantage over all others, for the supply of the whole interior of the West and South. She may obtain the raw material cheaper, and she may transport the manufactured article to the consumer cheaper. The same is true of the entire iron manufacture, which, it is said, in the West can be carried on far cheaper than anywhere on the Atlantic. It is estimated, that by railway, iron can be obtained at Cincinnati, from East Tennessee, cheaper than from any other quarter. The iron men of East Tennessee make iron at the prime cost of \$10 per ton—carry it down the Tennessee, and up the Ohio, and sell it in Cincinnati at a profit. It is estimated that iron may be brought from these furnaces by railway, at \$5 per ton, and sold in Cincinnati for \$15; thus cheapening the raw material to the manufacturer below any price which can possibly rule in the Atlantic States; and affording Cincinnati, if she should avail herself of these advantages, a substantial monopoly of the iron manufacture for millions of people.

Nor is this all. Zinc, lead, and marble are found in East Tennessee,

and salt water, stronger than any in the United States, is found in South-western Virginia. In fine, the opening of the railways to East Tennessee would furnish Cincinnati immediately with inexhaustible quantities, at the cheapest rates, of all the raw materials needed in any of the arts, and place her artisans beyond the power of competition from any quarter whatever.

The aggregate imports and exports of the city for many years have been as follows:—

|            | Imports.     | Exports.     |            | Imports.     | Exports.     |
|------------|--------------|--------------|------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1851-2.... | \$41,256,199 | \$33,234,896 | 1855-6.... | \$75,295,901 | \$50,744,786 |
| 1852-3.... | 51,290,644   | 36,266,108   | 1856-7.... | 77,090,146   | 55,642,171   |
| 1853-4.... | 65,730,029   | 45,432,780   | 1857-8.... | 80,144,747   | 52,906,506   |
| 1854-5.... | 67,501,341   | 38,777,394   | 1858-9.... | 96,213,274   | 66,007,707   |

The Cincinnati *Price Current*, in remarking upon the trade of the year ending September, 1859, says, commercially and financially, the past year has been one of general prosperity, and the increase in the commerce and the industry of the city has been, at once, large, legitimate, and healthy. In the introductory remarks, in our last annual statement, it became our duty to give a rather mournful history of the preceding twelve months, and to detail the sad ravages consequent upon the crisis of 1857. The dark clouds which then hovered over the commercial and financial world, and which still hung over our industry and commerce, though giving some indications of clearing off, have all been dispersed during the past year, with the exception of a vestige here and there, and prosperity again beams upon the trade of Cincinnati with unusual splendor. Buildings—massive and extensive, have been erected the past year, including the most splendid Opera House in the country. Whole squares have been so changed by replacing the old buildings by new, as not to be recognized, new streets opened, and the city rapidly extending over the available space on the west.

The general increase in commerce is quite remarkable, but the increase in the grocery trade will attract attention. The imports of coffee increased 11 per cent; of sugar, 30 per cent; and of molasses, 60 per cent. We imported about one-sixth of all the sugar made in Louisiana, and one-fifth of all the molasses. One-eighth of all the coffee imported into the United States from Brazil came to this market; and notwithstanding these heavy importations, they were not in excess of the demand, which has been large and steady throughout the season.

The crops of the vast area commanded by the railroads and steamboats, governed by the commercial influence that centers in Cincinnati, are the source of her trade; and the abundance of these, more or less, in successive years, forms the index of the year's business. The following table gives the quantities of leading articles imported and exported for each of the last fourteen years:—

|           | Wheat imported, bush. | Flour imported, bbls. | Flour exported, bbls. | Corn imported, bush. | Oats imported, bush. | Hay imported, bales. | Cheese imported, boxes. |
|-----------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1846..... | 434,486               | 202,319               | 194,700               | 57,245               | 106,852              | 8,092                | 99,059                  |
| 1847..... | 590,809               | 512,506               | 581,920               | 896,258              | 372,127              | 7,049                | 120,301                 |
| 1848..... | 570,813               | 151,518               | 201,011               | 361,315              | 194,557              | 8,036                | 138,800                 |
| 1849..... | 385,388               | 447,844               | 267,420               | 344,810              | 185,723              | 12,751               | 143,265                 |
| 1850..... | 322,699               | 231,859               | 98,908                | 649,227              | 191,924              | 14,353               | 165,940                 |
| 1851..... | 388,600               | 482,772               | 390,131               | 489,195              | 164,238              | 12,691               | 205,444                 |
| 1852..... | 377,037               | 511,042               | 408,211               | 653,788              | 197,868              | 9,270                | 241,753                 |

|           | Wheat<br>imported,<br>bush. | Flour<br>imported,<br>bbls. | Flour<br>exported,<br>bbls. | Corn<br>imported,<br>bush. | Oats<br>imported,<br>bush. | Hay<br>imported,<br>bales. | Cheese<br>imported,<br>boxes. |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1853..... | 343,649                     | 449,089                     | 812,841                     | 723,334                    | 283,251                    | 6,432                      | 202,337                       |
| 1854..... | 408,084                     | 427,464                     | 332,778                     | 745,455                    | 427,423                    | 19,424                     | 216,892                       |
| 1855..... | 437,412                     | 342,772                     | 199,276                     | 845,579                    | 480,178                    | 37,914                     | 183,379                       |
| 1856..... | 1,069,468                   | 546,727                     | 509,061                     | 978,511                    | 403,920                    | 41,696                     | 190,983                       |
| 1857..... | 737,723                     | 485,089                     | 416,789                     | 1,673,363                  | 534,312                    | 57,722                     | 176,623                       |
| 1858..... | 1,211,543                   | 633,318                     | 609,215                     | 1,090,236                  | 598,950                    | 39,812                     | 199,573                       |
| 1859..... | 1,274,685                   | 558,173                     | 633,318                     | 1,139,022                  | 557,701                    | 47,276                     | 223,250                       |

We have in these figures the progressive production of the region whence the city draws its supplies; and these are the greater that, through the enterprise of the citizens of Cincinnati, a broader circle of outlet for their surplus has been obtained.

We have shown above that Cincinnati is nearer the Atlantic and the Gulf than most other cities; hence she is the most available reservoir into which to pour the produce of this section, and from which to draw supplies. Of the wheat and flour which arrives at that city, the largest portion leaves by the railroads for the East. Of the corn, a considerable portion goes by the way of the river, as also the oats. Cheese and butter also find a market down the river, on the lower Mississippi. In relation to the hog crop, which forms so important a part of Ohio business, the "Price Current" gives the following returns from the various leading packing places in the Western States, as follows:—

|                      | 1857-8.   | Weight,<br>lbs. | 1858-9.   | Weight,<br>lbs. |
|----------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------|-----------------|
| Ohio.....            | 610,060   | 211             | 619,285   | 196             |
| Illinois.....        | 464,260   | 202             | 599,128   | 183             |
| Iowa.....            | 85,583    | 194             | 165,440   | 173             |
| Wisconsin.....       | 16,000    | 235             | 33,600    | 230             |
| Missouri.....        | 177,349   | 202             | 158,174   | 174             |
| Kentucky.....        | 372,609   | 212             | 397,117   | 217             |
| Indiana.....         | 441,885   | 202             | 407,636   | 186             |
| Tennessee.....       | 42,875    | 213             | 65,172    | 218             |
| Grand totals.....    | 2,210,621 | ...             | 2,445,552 | ...             |
| Total of 1857-8..... |           |                 | 2,210,621 |                 |
| Increase.....        |           |                 | 234,931   |                 |

As regards the average weight of hogs, the returns were obtained from one hundred and seventy-nine places, and it appears that the total weight of hogs packed at these places last year was 411,199,140 pounds. The weight of a similar number packed at the same places this year is 386,009,183 pounds. This is slightly over 6½ per cent of a decrease in weight, which is equal to 149,253 hogs; which, being deducted from the excess as given above, leaves the net increase in number 85,678, thus showing a net increase of a shade over three-and-three-fourths per cent as compared with the crop of last year. The hog crop of 1858-59, compares, then, as follows with that of the last two years:—3¼ per cent greater than that of 1857-58; 18½ per cent greater than that of 1856-57.

As regards the falling off in the lard, the average yield per hog, as shown by the returns, was 30 pounds last year, and 25½ pounds this year. Now, by multiplying the whole number of hogs packed both years, as reported above, by the yield of lard per hog each year, we can arrive at the comparative supply of this article with all the accuracy necessary:—

|               | Hogs.     | Pounds per hog. | Pounds.    |
|---------------|-----------|-----------------|------------|
| 1857-58 ..... | 2,208,975 | 30              | 66,269,250 |
| 1858-59 ..... | 2,486,863 | 25½             | 61,530,691 |
| Decrease..... |           |                 | 4,738,459  |

This is about 7½ per cent of a decrease as compared with last year. An impression prevails, very generally, that the deficiency in lard is much greater than this; but it seems to have been overlooked that while there is a large falling off in the yield per hog, there is a greater number of hogs from which to obtain the article this year than last.

The results of the crop figures for the year 1859, show the deliveries of a bad harvest generally. The year now commencing promises unusual abundance, and a corresponding revival of business may be looked for. The state of affairs is not unlike what it was at the close of 1854.

At that time commercial confidence had almost disappeared, and every man became afraid of his fellow. Banks, merchants, manufacturers, and all kinds of business men were looked upon with suspicion. Bankruptcy at the East, at the West, at the North, and at the South prevailed. Failures of a startling magnitude were continually announced, blasting whatever hope remained with those who still continued to ride against the storm. This was the state of matters in the fall of 1854. But a few months rolled on, and confidence became gradually restored; the seed time and the harvest came; and the results were the most luxuriant vegetation and the most abundant harvest ever gathered, and the close of the year found confidence fully restored.

The figures for the crop receipts in 1856 show the sure basis on which the renewed prosperity of Cincinnati was based. The present year must show similar results. The utmost abundance is said to exist among the producers; and with the realization of those crops, a returning demand for goods must manifest itself, giving new life to industry and calling into use the vast elements of national wealth with which the great valley of the Mississippi so profusely abounds, and of which Cincinnati is the natural point of concentration.

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#### ART. V.—SINGAPORE, PENANG, AND SUMATRA: THEIR COMMERCE AND PRODUCTIONS.

At the extremity of the Malay peninsula, which forms the eastern coast of the Bay of Bengal, is situated a cluster of islands which separate the Indian Ocean from the China Sea. The passage between these islands and the main land is known as the Straits of Malacca, and is the great thoroughfare for ships of all nations trading between China and the East Indies. The most important of these islands is Singapore and Penang. This group of islands is quite distinct from the Indian archipelago proper—the members of which are all situated south of the equator, and are under the Dutch protectorate; of these, Sumatra is the chief. The Malacca group is much infested with Malay pirates, who interfere greatly with that development of commerce of which the islands are susceptible under a strong and liberal government.

The inhabitants, like most islanders, have strong nautical propensities, and the soil furnishes the most abundant crops of desirable articles of commerce, yet trade shrinks before the dangers that beset it in those unprotected seas. It is only of late years that the straits trade has become of general importance to American shipping. Formerly the Dutch influence was overshadowing in those waters, and the American flag was comparatively a stranger. At that time Batavia, in Java, and Padang, on the coast of Sumatra, the point where the Dutch government sales of coffee are held, formed the destination of most American ships, and they were required to submit to the exactions of the Dutch government, which generally influenced an advance in prices on the occasion of their arrival. These ships, after completing their pepper purchases, would visit Singapore or Pulo Penang, to invest the residue of their Spanish dollars in banca, tin, or spices; and then, after recruiting her stores, would proceed on her long homeward-bound voyage.

Of late years a considerable change has taken place, both in the mode and in the magnitude of the trade; and this has been effected, to a considerable extent, by the gold discoveries in Australia and San Francisco, giving a new impulse to the trade of the East. The fine class of clipper-ships built for that trade, after discharging their outward cargoes at Melbourne or San Francisco, now proceed to Singapore for orders, and are generally taken up to proceed to Rangoon, Moulmein, or Akyab, to load rice for some European port at a rate ranging from £2 10s. to £3 15s. sterling per ton, and sometimes timber from Moulmein. The English house of Boustead, at Singapore, is the leading one in this business. Until the recent establishment of the house of Messrs. Williams, Anthon & Co., a branch of the successful house of that name in Hong Kong, there were no American houses at Singapore. There are also desirable freights offering to China and Siam since the latter has been opened to commerce. The trade between Singapore and Calcutta is mostly monopolized by the Peninsula and Oriental line of steamers.

Singapore, which is, from its commanding position, the chief of the Malacca group, is situated in latitude 1.17 north, longitude 103 east, and was, in 1818, established as a free port by Sir Stamford Raffles. The harbor and roadstead are always well supplied with shipping. Of these, the Chinese junks are the most numerous. They come down from China during the northeast monsoon, and remain in port until the setting of the southwest monsoon, when they return; thus protracting the voyage nine months for the sake of a fair wind in both directions. The most extensive establishment on the island is that of the Peninsula and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, at New Harbor, four miles from the town, where they have considerable machine-shops and material for the use of the fleet of steamships, including a stock of coal averaging 15,000 tons. There are some considerable native establishments for the manufacture of sago, tapioca, gambier, cocoa-nut oil, white pepper, &c. The first mentioned article is the farina from the stem of several palms indigenous to the island. Each tree when felled will yield from five to six hundred pounds of sago flour, from which the pearl sago of commerce is made by moistening the flour and passing it through a sieve into an iron vessel placed over a fire, when the heat causes it to assume a globular form. The flour is an article of extensive export to Europe, where it is used

for making starch and for other purposes. "Tapioca," which has become such a favorite with many pudding-eaters among us, is the bitter casava root ground into flour, which, being washed and dried on hot plates, granulates into irregular grains. "Gambier" is an astringent extracted from the areca nut, boiled in water and strained. It is exported in the form of cakes—a cubic inch in size, and is used for dyeing and medical purposes. White pepper is manufactured from the black pepper by soaking and rubbing off the black wrinkled coat. It is for some purposes thus enhanced in value, although its strength and flavor are reduced. These are the principal staple products of the island, but it is also the *dépôt* for the manifold productions of the surrounding tropical islands. It, therefore, offers attractions not only for vessels seeking freight, but for those possessed of the requisite credits to purchase cargoes on owners' account. "Point de Galle," at the Island of Ceylon, was formerly much frequented by ships to await instructions from owners. Its situation on the line of the overland mail route, by which orders could arrive in forty-eight days from home ports, made it a desirable rendezvous. The advantages of Singapore as a free port, and as the center of communication with all the East India and China houses, more than counterbalance the greater distance of ten days at which it is placed; since vessels there receiving orders to seek business, are already in the center of it. This process of concentration, favored by the fact that no pilotage, import, or export duties are exacted, has also attracted to Singapore the trade that formerly was enjoyed by the Dutch port of "Rhio," on Bintang Island, and which is the principal resort of the Malay prahaus.

Until within a very recent date the United States interest in the trade was not important. It consisted chiefly of some two or three eastern ship-owners who very successfully employed their capital in a sort of monopoly of the business. The apparent success of the operation drew large competition into it. The speculative year, 1857, witnessed the arrival of numbers of supercargoes at Singapore, by the overland route, without the indispensable knowledge of the Malay language, or of the details of the trade. This competition produced an active demand for produce on American account, raising prices, while dispatches from Europe, by the overland route, gave semi-monthly accounts of a growing depression. The cost of many of these purchases was enhanced by the necessity of shipping in foreign bottoms to the United States, where the goods arrived in the time of the panic. The losses thus entailed were a severe blow to the nascent trade. It has, however, assumed such a general position as to promise the most important development in the future.

The currency of Singapore is Spanish dollars, and sales of merchandise are made by weights as follows:—

|                                |                         |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 100 catties, equal to.....     | 1 picul of 133½ pounds. |
| 1 koyan, ".....                | 40 " 133½ "             |
| 1 corge, ".....                | 20 " 133½ "             |
| 1 koyan of salt, equal to..... | 52 " 133½ "             |

The bunkal, two Spanish dollars or 832 grains Troy. The leading importations from the United States are tobacco, cloaks, brown drills, thirty inch pieces, of thirty yards—average value \$48 per six hundred yards; sheetings, thirty-seven inch pieces, of forty yards—average \$60 per eight hundred yards.

There being, as we have said, no import or export duties, the revenues are derived from selling the monopoly of Chinese opium, and of spirits. For that privilege the farmer pays \$185,000 per annum, and realizes from it a fortune in addition. There is also a tax upon estates, which yields about \$15,000 per annum.

The Island of Pulo Penang was formerly a presidency of the East India Company. In certain localities it is exceedingly bracing and much frequented by residents of India seeking health. It is sixteen miles long and of an average breadth of eight miles. "Mount McAlister" being the highest of its hill ranges, is elevated 2,500 feet. It is divided from the province "Wellesly" by a narrow channel. The "dry and wet" seasons are not so distinctly marked as at other places in the East Indies.

Penang derives its importance from an unequaled freshness of climate, and from its being for many years the object of extensive cultivation of various spices and pepper, which business has, of late, been somewhat checked, attention being paid to other productions, consisting of cocoa-nut oil, betel-nut, camphor, rice, tin, sugar, rattans, and dragons' blood, which is extracted from the latter article. Boat-building is extensively carried on by the Malays. Georgetown is on the eastern end of the island, the harbor being southeast of it. The principal house of business in Penang is that of Revely & Co., American merchants, of which Mr. Currier is the head, and a gentleman well known to eastern travelers for his hospitality.

The Island of "Sumatra" is nine hundred miles long, and contains 460,000 square miles, and many years since was a resort of "American shipping" to a much greater extent than it now is. Previous to the expiration of the East India Company's charter, who monopolized the English trade of the island, forty American ships annually loaded at the various pepper ports. After that occurrence, the trade being open to all British ships, competition resulted. The much regretted treaty between Great Britain and Holland, in which the former ceded all her settlements on the Islands of Sumatra and Banca, has effectually reduced the commerce of all nations on these Islands, and in the principal ports the Dutch limit the production of the two most important staples of the island.

The ports open to commerce are Acheen and Sambalang on the north end, Amalaboo, Padang, and Bencoolen on the west side, and Palembang on the east coast. The pepper ports are Delli, Langkat, Balu, China, Sirdang, and numerous smaller ones of less importance. The collection of a cargo of pepper is a tedious process—ships are often six months on the coast. Formerly the payment to the natives was made in Turkey opium or Spanish "Carolus" dollars, which command a high premium. The race of "Battus," who bring the pepper down to the coast, hoard up the proceeds, either in concealing or melting it down into ornaments, as not a dollar is ever known to leave the country.

The locality of the productions on this island are as follows:—From Banca to River Rakim, 500 miles, sago, rattans, and dragons' blood; Rakim to Diamond Point, 240 miles, black pepper; Diamond Point to Acheen Head, betel-nut. The shores of the latter tract of country are washed by the Bay of Bengal.

The productions of Sumatra, in addition to articles already enumerated, are beeswax, gambier, and camphor. Imports into Acheen and Langkat are of considerable importance, and consist in part of opium, salt, cloths, sarangs, European chintzes, and American drillings and sheetings. Their

requirements, owing to the immense population in the interior, are very large. The different races on this island are as follows:—Malays, Sampangs, and Battaks, the latter somewhat inclined to cannibalism. Acheen was formerly the largest city in Sumatra, and had 36,000 inhabitants. The population of the island is estimated at 400,000.

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## JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

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DECISION IN ADMIRALTY ON APPEAL—COLLISION BETWEEN SAILING VESSELS—  
WHEN LARBOARD TACK MAY HOLD ON.

In the United States Circuit Court. Before Judge NELSON. William H. Wells *vs.* the schooner *Ann Caroline*.

NELSON, C. J.—The libel in this case was filed by the owner of the schooner John C. Wells, against the schooner *Ann Caroline*, to recover damages for a collision occurring in the month of February, 1854, on the eastern shore of the Delaware Bay. The two vessels were beating up the bay in company with several other vessels in a channel about a mile wide, between Crow Shoal and the Jersey shore. The wind was N. N. W., about a five or six knot breeze; the tide flood, setting up the bay. The John C. Wells was close hauled on her larboard tack, which was her long tack from Crow Shoal to the Jersey shore; the *Ann Caroline* close-hauled on her starboard tack on the opposite course from the Jersey shore to Crow Shoal. The Wells was very heavy laden—the *Ann Caroline* in ballast. The two vessels had tacked at the Crow Shoal upon their long tack nearly at the same time, the *Caroline* at the time being to the leeward of the Wells, and somewhat astern of her. The *Ann Caroline* ran out but one-half or two-thirds of her course, when she suddenly came round on her starboard tack, in consequence of a vessel ahead suddenly backing and obstructing her course. While on this course she came in collision with the Wells, striking her on her starboard side aft, about ten or fifteen feet from her taffrail, opening her side, and from which injury she sank to the bottom of the channel in a few minutes.

The main ground upon which the defence of the *Ann Caroline* is placed is, that she was on the starboard or privileged tack, and that it was the duty of the Wells to give way and pass to her right. This rule of navigation is admitted by the counsel for the Wells, but it is insisted, that it has no application to the relative position of the two vessels as made out upon the proofs in the case. It is claimed on his part that the Wells was to the windward of the *Caroline*, and ahead or above her in the channel, and that if this rule had been observed, and the Wells had ported her helm, a collision would have been inevitable; that the change of course would have brought her head against the starboard side of the *Caroline*, and that her proper maneuver in the emergency was to starboard her helm, which she did, and which would have avoided the other vessel if she had not ported her helm at or about the same time, which caused her to strike the Wells on her starboard side but a few feet from her stern. The controlling question in the case is whether or not the Wells was to the windward, and so far above the course of the *Caroline*, before the two vessels came together, as to forbid the application of this entitled rule of navigation, that when two vessels are approaching each other on opposite tacks, both having the wind free, the one on the larboard tack shall give way and pass to the right. On looking into the proofs in the case, which are very voluminous, it will be found that the testimony of the master and hands on board of the respective vessels, as usual, is contradictory—those of the Wells claiming that the course of the *Caroline* was to the leeward and southerly of that of their vessel, while those on the *Caroline* insist that her course was to the windward of the Wells.

If the case stood upon the testimony of these witnesses, we should regard it as so far conflicting and doubtful as to lead us not to interfere with the decree of the court below dismissing the libel. But there are four witnesses, master and hands upon other vessels, engaged at the same time in beating up this channel, and who were on the same tack with the Wells, but to the leeward and a little to her stern, who witnessed the collision, and the course of the vessels previous to the accident, and they all concur in confirming the testimony of the master and hands of the Wells as to the course and relative position of the two vessels. The testimony of one of these witnesses has been taken in this court and was not before the court below, which is very explicit and direct upon this question.

I do not put this case upon a rule stated in some of the books, and which was referred to in the case of the *Neptune*, (10 How., 581.) which states that if the vessel on the larboard tack is so far to the windward that if both persist in their course the other will strike her on the lee side abaft the beam, or near the stern, in such case the vessel on the starboard tack must give way. The objection to this rule is, that it is too precise and exact for practical use. The better opinion is that the vessel on the larboard tack must give way, even though she be a point or a point-and-a-half to the windward. But while no encouragement should be held out to any very nice calculation of the vessel bound by the general rule to give way, as to the precise course of the two vessels, it is clear that she may be so far to the windward of the other, as to entitle her to keep her course, and make it a fault of the one on the starboard tack to change her course and attempt to pass to the right. In the case before us, the witnesses on the vessels accompanying the two in question, say that if the *Ann Caroline* had kept her course, instead of porting her helm, she would have passed under the stern of the Wells, and the place where she struck her confirms that view.

There were several considerations urged on the argument by the counsel on both sides in support of their respective views of the case, which, as they rest principally upon a controverted state of facts we do not deem it important to notice. We must, therefore, reverse the decree of the court below, and direct a reference to a commissioner to take proofs, and report upon the libellant's damages in the case.

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DECISIONS IN ADMIRALTY ON APPEAL.

In the United States Circuit Court. Before Judge NELSON, October 11. John H. Brower, *et al.*, vs. the brig *Water Witch*; Wm. H. Sheldon vs. the same; John Clifton vs. a quantity of cotton.

NELSON, C. J.—The libels in the first two cases were filed to recover damages for injuries to a cargo of cotton shipped in the brig *Water Witch*, from Lavacca, on the bay of Matagorda, Texas, to this port, in May, 1854.

The libelants were the consignees of the cotton. The libel in the third case was filed by the owner of the brig to recover his freight money. A special contract was made between the shipper at Lavacca and one MITCHELL, who represented himself as agent of the vessel. She lay at the port of Indianola, situated on the same bay as Lavacca, but several miles distant. The cotton was carried in a lighter from Lavacca to the vessel. After it was delivered from the lighter and received on board the vessel, the master refused to sign the bills of lading, upon the ground that the cotton was not in good order and condition, and pending this dispute he sailed for New York with his cargo. The shipper, on learning that the vessel had sailed without having signed the bills of lading, forwarded the bills unsigned to the consignees named in them, stating the circumstances of the refusal of the master to sign them. The consignees made advances upon the cotton. On the arrival of the vessel at this port, the master notified the consignees to whom the cotton was consigned, and discharged his cargo, but in a very damaged condition. He also demanded his freight from them, the payment

of which was refused, and the above suits afterward instituted by the respective parties.

It is proper to state further that the brig was under a charter-party from the owners to a firm in New Orleans, and that MITCHELL, with whom the contract was made for the shipment of the cotton, represented this firm. By this contract the shipper was to deliver the cotton at Lavacca, to be received on lighters by MITCHELL, and placed by him at his expense on board of the vessel, to be carried to New York for the freight of 1½ cents per pound.

This agent also objected to the bills of lading, because they did not contain a stipulation that part of the cotton might be shipped on deck. The shipper refused to admit such a stipulation, as it was not contained in the agreement between the parties, which was in writing.

1. We perceive no well-founded objection to the right of the assignees to maintain these suits. They were the persons to whom the cotton was shipped, and were recognized by the master as the proper parties to receive it, and to whom it was delivered by him, and the freight demanded. They had made advances upon it in the usual way, and as between them and the owners for whose benefit the advances were made, they had the same interest in the cotton as if the bills of lading had been duly executed.

2. We should have no difficulty in this case in holding the carrier to the common law liability on the shipment of the cotton, even if no bill of lading or other agreement had been entered into by the master, as his consent to receive it on board his vessel and carry it to the port of destination subjected the ship to this liability.

But in addition to this, the agent of the charterers, in whose service the brig was at this time, and who were interested in procuring cargo, entered into a written agreement fixing the terms upon which the shipment was to be made. The vessel was bound by it, and although it does not contain the stipulations usual in bills of lading, it carries with it by implication the common law obligations of a common carrier.

We lay entirely out of view the charter-party between the owner and the firm in New Orleans, as the shipper in this case had no notice of it; and if, therefore, there had been anything in this agreement repugnant to the charter-party, it could not be permitted to affect injuriously his interests.

3. Having disposed of these somewhat technical questions, we come to the main question in the case; and that is, whether or not the damage to the cotton was the natural, if not necessary, effect of its condition at the time of shipment developed in the course of the voyage, or produced by the dangers of the navigation, without any fault of the ship, or whether all or any part of it is attributable to bad stowage, or absence of proper care and attention on the part of the master.

Some one hundred bales of cotton were shipped on deck. It has been argued that the right thus to ship it is fairly to be inferred from the terms of the agreement between the shipper and agent of the vessel. We think not. It is also argued that there was a usage of the trade between the ports of Texas and New York in the shipment of cotton which justified the master in shipping it on deck. We think that the proof fails altogether to establish any such usage. The freight to be paid was the usual rate for cotton under deck.

It has further been strongly argued that the whole damage to the cotton as disclosed on discharging it at this port was the effect of the country damage existing at the time of shipment, or was produced by a storm which the vessel encountered in the voyage. The evidence in the case is very conflicting upon these questions, and difficult, indeed impossible, to be reconciled. The court below came to the conclusion that, according to the weight of it, the cotton had sustained sea damage, for which the vessel was responsible. We are inclined to concur in this conclusion. The testimony is pretty strong that the cotton was badly stowed, and, also, that sufficient attention was not paid to the sea water in the hold of the vessel by using the pumps. The cotton was very wet when discharged from the hold of the ship.

The court below, in the case of the libel of the owner to recover freight, dismissed the same after applying so much of the money awarded for damage to the cotton as equaled the freight money. This, we think, was erroneous. The consignees had each filed his libel to recover this damage, and has succeeded. It is true each set up in his answer to the suit for freight damage to the cotton by way of abatement of the sum claimed. But these parties could not thus split up the claim for damages by applying a portion in extinguishment of the freight money, and then ask for a decree for the excess over this sum. If they insist upon recovering damages on an independent suit, they cannot apply any portion of them, by way of abatement, in the suit for the freight money. The damages are an entirety.

We must, therefore, reverse the decree in the case of *CLIFTON vs.* a quantity of cotton, and direct a decree to be entered for the libelant for the full amount of the freight money and interest, with costs. And, as the full amount of freight, at the rate of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cents per pound, will be recovered, the error will be corrected in the court below, reducing the freight of the portion of the cotton carried on deck to deck freight, and at the same time holding the brig responsible for the transportation of it under deck.

The decree in the other two suits are affirmed, with costs.

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DECISION IN ADMIRALTY ON APPEAL—WAGES.

In the United States Circuit Court. Before Judge NELSON. Albert E. Shaw *vs.* Thomas Collier.

The libel was filed in this case by the libelant as master of the steamboat *George Law*, against the respondent in personam, the owner, to recover wages for the year 1854 and 1855. The court below, on the cause being called, heard evidence sufficient to show that the libelant had been in the employ of the respondent as master of the vessel, and that the principal question was as to the amount due for the services, if any; referred it to a commissioner to take proofs as to the full extent and value of the services, and as to the payment of other deductions to be made, if any, and report thereon. The case was heard, accordingly, before the commissioner, and a balance reported in favor of the libelant of \$334 74, which report was subsequently confirmed by the court, and a decree entered for that amount against the respondent. It is now objected that the court erred in referring the cause to the commissioner instead of taking testimony in open court; but we cannot perceive any foundation for this objection. The court had ascertained, from the hearing before it, that the main questions in controversy were in respect to the questions between the parties as master and owner of the vessel, and very proper, therefore, to be referred to a hearing by a commissioner. The rights of the respondent were not prejudiced, as the whole case could afterwards be presented to the court upon the proofs, and exceptions to the commissioner's report, and much of the valuable time of the court thus saved by the reference. It has also been objected that the court had no jurisdiction of the case, as the question of the service claimed in the year 1854 was upon a vessel engaged in the purely internal business and commerce of the State. But it is a sufficient answer to say that this objection has no application to the service in the year 1855, and the balance of wages decreed after deducting the payments, is less than the amount of wages for that year. A great deal of testimony has been taken as to the services on the vessel, whether as master or clerk, and as to the competency as master, the value of the services, &c. These are matters of fact, pending upon conflict of evidence which we shall not enter into. We are satisfied at the conclusion arrived at by the court below. Decree affirmed.

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**COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.**


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FALL BUSINESS—IMPORTATIONS—SUPPLY ON THE MARKET—WESTERN TRADE—CROPS—SALES OF GOODS IN THE SOUTH—ELEMENTS OF A DEMAND FOR MATERIAL—CURRENT OF GOLD—SUPPLY IN BANKS—RECEIPTS OF GOLD—BANK DISCOUNTS—INFLUENCE OF TAXES ON LOANS—RISE IN MONEY—RATES FOR THE YEAR—BANK DEPOSITS—CITY LOAN—STATE LOAN—KENTUCKY DEBT—MISSISSIPPI BONDS—MISSOURI DEBT—EXCHANGE—SIGHT BILLS—COUNTER EXCHANGE—RATES OF BILLS—CONTINENTAL BILLS—EXPORT OF SPECIE—SUPPLY OF BARS—ASSAY OFFICE—MINT—SPECIE BASIS AT THE WEST—NATIONAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—BALANCE DUE THE COUNTRY—INTEREST DUE ABROAD—TRAVELERS' EXPENSES—ABSORPTION OF BALANCE.

THE fall business closed with a degree of heaviness, and there is, at least, a usual stock of goods remaining over. The importations of the past year have, no doubt, been large, as compared with the previous year, but the quantities on hand and bonded were much less; hence the aggregate put upon the market was probably no larger this year than before.

Nevertheless, the markets have dragged, since the small crop and low prices of last year left the West with small means wherewith to make new purchases. There was, therefore, a fair amount of goods at the close to go over to the spring trade, and the imports continue very considerable, as will be seen by reference to our usual commercial tables appended hereto. The events of the past two years have been such as to induce most merchants to seek purchases for goods in the South rather than at the West. The crops of that section have not only been large, but they have sold well, affording a broad basis for enlarged trade. In Virginia an official return to the Legislature of the State, in relation to the tax on sales of goods within the State, shows an amount of \$41,154,000 sold during the year 1858, by 6,634 merchants. This amount of sales in Virginia gives about \$45 per head on the population per census of 1850; and, at the same ratio, the sales in all the Southern States would reach \$270,000,000 for the year 1858, which was one of paralysis and very small business comparatively. This sum forms a very important item in sales of the northern cities, and has been enhanced, to some extent, in the present year, by the means taken to attract southern rather than western custom. For the coming year the prospect is still more flattering, since the cotton crop delivered thus far greatly exceeds even the large crop of the past year, and its prices remain firm in view of the circumstances of the commercial world. These exhibit a combination of cheap food, money, and labor, all of which tend to swell the demand for those raw materials necessary for their own employment. The export movement to meet the required payments for the large importation, continue to be mostly cotton and gold. The latter seems to concentrate in New York from various parts of the Union, whence it proceeds in a ceaseless stream to Europe. The banks of the four leading cities held January 1, 1859, \$58,710,000, and this had fallen to \$40,276,000 at the close of November, showing a decline of \$18,434,000 in addition to the \$39,476,007 that in the same period had arrived from California. Under these circumstances, and in face of the approaching close of the year, when accounts are balanced preparatory to the opening of the spring business, a more decided demand for money sprung up. At the higher rates attained in the first week in December, the banks were willing to increase their loans; and by reference to the weekly returns of the banks appended to this article, it will be observed that

there was a steady increase in the amount of loans outstanding. The rise from October 1 to December 17, was from \$118,206,752 to \$123,903,777, equal to \$5,697,025; but of this aggregate increase, the Shoe and Leather Bank, which receives the city taxes, payable at that season, and reloans them, counted more than half. The comparison was as follows:—

|            | Shoe and leather— |             |             | All other—    |              |              |
|------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|
|            | Loans.            | Deposits.   | Specie.     | Loans.        | Deposits.    | Specie.      |
| Oct. 1...  | \$2,993,271       | \$2,072,683 | \$407,797   | \$115,215,481 | \$68,739,422 | \$18,851,629 |
| Dec. 3...  | 5,134,416         | 6,289,293   | 2,294,935   | 117,102,618   | 69,969,429   | 17,752,332   |
| Increase.. | \$2,141,145       | \$4,216,610 | \$1,887,138 | \$1,887,137   | \$1,230,007  | .....        |

These figures show that the increased loans by the city banks are not an indication of greater mercantile movement so much as a fiscal movement of the city. Its agent has collected four-and-a-half millions of taxes, and in so doing has drawn nearly \$2,000,000 of specie from the other banks. These funds have been loaned "at call," making money easier in that shape than on long paper, on which money has become dearer. As the city uses its funds, the "call" loans will diminish, and in all probability the rates for money will rise. In fact, it has gradually become dearer during the year, the quoted rates being as follows:—

|                 | On call |         | Indorsed— |            | Single names. | Other good. | Not well known. |
|-----------------|---------|---------|-----------|------------|---------------|-------------|-----------------|
|                 | Stocks. | Other.  | 60 days.  | 4 a 6 mos. |               |             |                 |
| Nov. 1st, 1858. | 3 a 3½  | 5½ a 4½ | 4½ a 5    | 5 a 6      | 5 a 7         | 7 a 8       | 8 a 10          |
| Dec. 1st.....   | 3½ a 4½ | 4 a 5   | 4½ a 5½   | 5 a 6      | 5½ a 7        | 7 a 8       | 8 a 10          |
| Jan. 1st, 1859. | 4 a 4½  | 4 a 5   | 4 a 5     | 5 a 6      | 6 a 7         | 7 a 8       | 8 a 10          |
| Feb. 1st.....   | 5 a 6   | 6 a 7   | 5 a 6     | 6 a 7      | 7 a 7½        | 8 a 9       | 9 a 10          |
| Mar. 1st.....   | 4 a 5   | 4½ a 6  | 4½ a 5½   | 5½ a 6½    | 6 a 7         | 7 a 8       | 9 a 10          |
| Apr. 1st.....   | 4 a 5   | 5 a 6   | 5 a 5½    | 6 a 6½     | 6½ a 7        | 8 a 9       | 9 a 10          |
| May 1st.....    | 5 a 6   | 6 a 7   | 6 a 6½    | 6½ a 6     | 7 a 9         | 9 a 10      | 10 a 12         |
| Jun. 1st.....   | 6 a 7   | 7 a 8   | 6½ a 7    | 7 a 8      | 8 a 9         | 9 a 10      | 10 a 12         |
| July 1st.....   | 5 a 6   | 6 a 7   | 6½ a 7    | 7 a 7½     | 8 a 9         | 10 a 12     | 12 a 15         |
| Aug. 1st.....   | 6 a 7   | 7 a 8   | 6½ a 7½   | 7 a 8      | 8 a 9         | 11 a 13     | 12 a 15         |
| Sep. 1st.....   | 5½ a 6  | 7 a 8   | 6 a 7     | 7 a 7½     | 8 a 8½        | 11 a 14     | 12 a 16         |
| Oct. 1st.....   | 5½ a 7  | 6 a 7   | 6½ a 7    | 7 a 8      | 8 a 9         | 10 a 12     | 12 a 18         |
| Nov. 1st.....   | 5 a 5½  | 6 a 7   | 6½ a 7½   | 7½ a 8     | 8½ a 9½       | 12 a 15     | 12 a 18         |
| Dec. 1st.....   | 5 a 5½  | 6 a 7   | 6 a 7     | 7 a 8½     | 8 a 9         | 9 a 10      | 12 a 18         |
| Dec. 17th.....  | 5½ a 6  | 6 a 7   | 7 a 7½    | 7½ a 8½    | 8 a 9         | 9 a 10      | 12 a 18         |

There has thus been a gradual rise through the year in almost all classes of loans, indicating an absorption of capital, also observable in the column of deposits in the bank table, which stand \$16,000,000 less than at the commencement of the year. The city of New York has issued, during the month, \$650,000 of the "water stock of the city of New York of 1854." The principal is redeemable in 1875, and it bears 6 per cent interest payable quarterly. The whole amount of bids reached \$1,224,900, at a range of par a 101.29. The stock was awarded at 55 cents a \$1 29 premium.

The Secretary of the Treasury issued proposals to be opened December 27 for \$3,000,000 of United States Treasury notes—interest not to exceed 6 per cent. The people of the State of New York having at the late election voted in favor of a loan of \$2,500,000 for canal purposes, the loan was put upon the market for bids at 5 or 6 per cent interest. The State of Kentucky advertises to pay on the 1st of January \$150,000 of bonds issued to the Lexington and Ohio road, and \$70,000 of bonds issued under acts of February 23, 1846, and March 1, 1847.

Governor M'Willie, of Mississippi, has again, in a message, recommended the recognition and payment of the Planter's Bank bonds issued by the State. The

people voted, in 1852, not to pay these bonds. The Governor now earnestly presses the revision of that decision, and the taking of some steps to pay them by taxation.

The State of Missouri, previous to the panic, had authorized the issue of \$24,950,000 in aid of railroads, and up to the panic of 1859, \$15,310,000 of these had been issued. At that time a law was passed suspending the issue until March, 1859, except \$2,120,000 that might be issued to certain roads for work nearly done. The debt now stands as follows:—

|                             | Inter'st.<br>p. c. | Authorized.       | Issued to<br>July, 1857. | Since<br>issued. | Total issued.     | To be<br>issued. |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Pacific Railroad.....       | *6                 | \$7,000,000       | \$6,380,000              | \$620,000        | *\$7,000,000      | .....            |
| Hannibal & St. Joseph..     | 6                  | 3,000,000         | 3,000,000                | .....            | 3,000,000         | .....            |
| North Missouri.....         | 6                  | 5,500,000         | 3,150,000                | 1,200,000        | *4,350,000        | 1,150,000        |
| St. Louis & Iron Mount'n    | 6                  | 3,600,000         | 2,600,000                | 901,000          | *3,501,000        | 99,000           |
| Cairo and Fulton ....       | 6                  | 650,000           | 180,000                  | 470,000          | 650,000           | .....            |
| Platt County.....           | 6                  | 700,000           | .....                    | 800,000          | 300,000           | 400,000          |
| S. W. Branch Pacific ..     | 7                  | 4,500,000         | .....                    | 2,800,000        | *2,800,000        | 1,700,000        |
| <b>Total for railroads.</b> | <b>6</b>           | <b>24,950,000</b> | <b>15,310,000</b>        | <b>6,291,000</b> | <b>21,601,000</b> | <b>3,349,000</b> |

The interest due January, 1860, on those marked \*, the State has to provide for, the roads being unable to do so. The amount of the interest due is \$516,190. This money is expected to be remitted to New York from the proceeds of the mill tax, levied especially, and also from some funds due by the United States. The State, meantime, has borrowed of the savings banks the money necessary to pay the January interest at 8 per cent per annum, and  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent premium for exchange. The money was borrowed for sixty days. The balance of the bonds amounting to \$3,349,000, as above, it is supposed, will be immediately issued to the railroads.

The rates of sterling bills continue to be such as to favor the export of ingots. The sales of sight bills bear a larger proportion to the general business than formerly, when the business was almost altogether sixty day bills. The rate is now with the banking-houses  $\frac{1}{2}$  a  $\frac{3}{4}$  per cent more than for sixty day bills, but the house of Belmont makes a difference of about  $\frac{1}{8}$  only. This state of the market may ultimately lead to a change in the international exchanges. The system of always buying bills for remittance to Europe, and never being drawn upon, has long been a serious evil in the markets. There is, in fact, no market in Paris and London for bills on America. This country, in that respect, occupying still a colonial position, a change from sixty day bills to sight bills may be followed by the introduction of American bills in the foreign markets, whereby the merchants here may have the benefit of both markets as well direct as by arbitrations. The rates of bills are as follows:—

RATES OF BILLS IN NEW YORK.

|                 | October 1.                          | November 1.                             | December 1.                             | December 15.                            |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| London .....    | 10 a 10 $\frac{3}{8}$               | 9 $\frac{7}{8}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$      | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$      | 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{7}{8}$       |
| Paris .....     | 5.15 a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$           | 5.13 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.13 $\frac{3}{4}$ | 5.15 $\frac{5}{8}$ a 5.18 $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| Antwerp .....   | 5.15 a 5.11 $\frac{1}{2}$           | 5.13 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.13 $\frac{3}{4}$ | 5.13 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 5.16 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Amsterdam.....  | 41 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 42               | 41 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 42                   | 41 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 42                   | 41 $\frac{3}{8}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$     |
| Frankfort ..... | 42 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 42 $\frac{1}{4}$ | 42 a 42 $\frac{1}{2}$                   | 42 a 42 $\frac{1}{2}$                   | 42 a 42 $\frac{1}{2}$                   |
| Bremen.....     | 79 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 80               | 79 $\frac{5}{8}$ a 79 $\frac{1}{2}$     | 79 $\frac{5}{8}$ a 79 $\frac{1}{2}$     | 79 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 79 $\frac{1}{2}$     |
| Berlin, &c..... | 73 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 74               | 73 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 73 $\frac{7}{8}$     | 73 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 73 $\frac{7}{8}$     | 73 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 73 $\frac{3}{4}$     |
| Hamburg.....    | 36 $\frac{3}{8}$ a 37 $\frac{1}{8}$ | 36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 37                   | 36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 37                   | 36 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 37                   |

The sales of continental exchanges have increased of late years. As the business direct with the continent has swollen in magnitude, new connections have

spring up, and there are elements of a more general market for the means of remittance through arbitrations. By these means the flow of specie at times may be checked, and kiting operations greatly curtailed. For the moment the outward flow of specie continues large, comparatively, being as follows:—

GOLD RECEIVED FROM CALIFORNIA AND EXPORTED FROM NEW YORK WEEKLY, WITH THE AMOUNT OF SPECIE IN SUB-TREASURY, AND THE TOTAL IN THE CITY.

|            |         | 1858.       |            | 1859.       |             |                         |                    |
|------------|---------|-------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------|--------------------|
|            |         | Received.   | Exported.  | Received.   | Exported.   | Specie in sub-treasury. | Total in the city. |
| Jan.       | 8.....  | \$2,398,684 |            | \$1,052,558 | \$4,202,151 | \$32,601,969            |                    |
|            | 15..... | \$1,607,440 | 1,045,490  | \$1,876,300 | 218,049     | 4,312,987               | 33,693,699         |
|            | 23..... |             | 1,244,368  |             | 567,398     | 4,851,666               | 34,323,766         |
|            | 30..... | 1,567,779   | 57,075     | 1,210,713   | 467,694     | 7,230,004               | 34,985,294         |
| Feb.       | 5.....  |             | 2,928,271  |             | 606,969     | 8,103,546               | 34,095,987         |
|            | 13..... | 1,348,507   | 48,850     | 1,319,923   | 361,550     | 8,040,900               | 33,460,000         |
|            | 20..... |             | 641,688    |             | 1,013,780   | 6,770,555               | 33,115,510         |
|            | 27..... | 1,640,430   | 128,114    | 1,287,967   | 358,354     | 7,193,829               | 33,664,000         |
| Mar.       | 5.....  |             | 297,898    |             | 1,427,556   | 7,215,928               | 33,915,893         |
|            | 12..... | 1,279,134   | 225,274    | 933,130     | 307,106     | 8,677,357               | 34,207,411         |
|            | 19..... | 11,000      | 116,114    |             | 870,578     | 9,046,759               | 34,089,942         |
|            | 26..... | 1,403,949   | 88,120     |             | 208,955     | 8,041,268               | 34,227,800         |
| Apr.       | 2.....  |             | 115,790    | 1,032,314   | 1,343,059   | 7,686,700               | 32,918,800         |
|            | 9.....  |             | 250,246    |             | 576,107     | 7,232,451               | 32,981,118         |
|            | 16..... | 1,825,198   | 203,163    | 1,404,210   | 1,637,104   | 7,079,111               | 32,557,778         |
|            | 23..... | 41,208      | 15,850     |             | 1,496,889   | 6,894,310               | 32,972,965         |
|            | 30..... | 1,550,000   | 136,878    | 1,723,352   | 1,680,743   | 6,568,681               | 32,897,686         |
| May        | 7.....  |             | 106,110    |             | 2,169,197   | 6,481,913               | 32,568,545         |
|            | 14..... | 1,626,171   | 720,710    | 1,480,115   | 1,926,491   | 6,020,400               | 31,191,731         |
|            | 21..... |             | 532,862    |             | 2,223,578   | 5,488,205               | 31,578,209         |
|            | 28..... | 1,575,995   | 400,300    | 1,938,669   | 5,126,643   | 4,752,084               | 29,171,906         |
| June       | 5.....  |             | 51,425     |             | 2,325,972   | 4,327,155               | 32,055,464         |
|            | 12..... | 1,446,175   | 16,616     | 1,513,975   | 1,877,294   | 3,684,754               | 25,816,954         |
|            | 19..... |             | 68,318     |             | 1,669,263   | 3,604,800               | 26,790,017         |
|            | 25..... | 1,799,502   | 276,487    |             | 1,620,731   | 4,493,200               | 26,253,081         |
| July       | 2.....  |             | 317,110    | 2,041,237   | 1,861,163   | 4,086,751               | 27,028,416         |
|            | 9.....  | 1,500,000   | 564,030    |             | 1,398,885   | 4,278,400               | 26,773,049         |
|            | 16..... |             | 637,240    | 1,736,861   | 2,495,127   | 4,282,600               | 27,506,279         |
|            | 23..... |             | 1,028,270  |             | 2,030,220   | 5,114,600               | 26,361,512         |
|            | 30..... | 1,163,818   | 303,318    | 2,145,000   | 2,344,040   | 5,116,800               | 25,881,300         |
| Aug.       | 6.....  |             | 786,841    |             | 1,284,855   | 5,341,000               | 25,424,877         |
|            | 13..... | 1,531,514   | 440,729    | 1,860,274   | 1,505,389   | 5,347,389               | 26,085,269         |
|            | 20..... |             | 844,781    |             | 1,594,933   | 4,960,400               | 26,363,343         |
|            | 27..... | 1,434,674   | 187,941    | 2,126,332   | 1,584,879   | 4,869,800               | 25,597,866         |
| Sept.      | 3.....  |             | 562,087    | *962,030    | 509,649     | 4,877,200               | 26,355,494         |
|            | 10..... | 1,796,139   | 227,980    | 2,046,006   | 2,363,385   | 4,919,788               | 26,687,036         |
|            | 17..... |             | 1,361,110  |             | 1,760,331   | 5,067,200               | 21,579,880         |
|            | 24..... | 1,570,924   | 474,945    | 2,042,363   | 2,727,194   | 5,190,600               | 25,851,036         |
| Oct.       | 1.....  |             | 1,126,404  |             | 1,414,590   | 5,230,400               | 24,489,500         |
|            | 8.....  | 1,322,005   | 675,817    | †2,350,670  | 727,981     | 4,719,100               | 24,214,200         |
|            | 15..... |             | 886,234    | 1,833,670   | 1,430,833   | 4,648,500               | 24,299,793         |
|            | 22..... | 1,352,101   | 401,866    |             | 1,109,608   | 4,703,300               | 25,610,397         |
|            | 29..... |             | 593,310    | 1,871,554   | 2,059,492   | 4,850,700               | 26,099,675         |
| Nov.       | 5.....  | 1,672,656   | 184,452    |             | 1,519,673   | 4,608,687               | 24,836,930         |
|            | 12..... |             | 142,130    | 1,568,107   | 1,068,407   | 5,094,642               | 25,281,598         |
|            | 19..... |             | 13,832     |             | 1,300,991   | 5,699,397               | 25,442,763         |
|            | 26..... | 1,816,532   | 1,064,038  | 1,721,342   | none.       | 5,877,600               | 24,709,524         |
| Dec.       | 3.....  |             | 133,802    |             | 940,201     | 5,840,432               | 25,887,090         |
|            | 10..... | 1,643,140   | 825,000    | 1,869,429   | 675,697     | 6,099,000               | 25,849,535         |
| Total..... |         | 34,024,017  | 25,898,483 | 41,345,436  | 68,775,583  |                         |                    |

There is at this moment quite a demand for bars for shipment. The rates are

\* From New Orleans.

† \$500,000 silver from Mexico.

not sufficiently high to transmit coin generally. The amount exported from Boston for the month of November was \$432,845, and for the year \$5,995,720, against \$2,551,653 same time last year. The arrivals of gold from California are in excess of last year, and the Assay-office in New York has operated as follows :—

## NEW YORK ASSAY-OFFICE.

## DEPOSITS.

|           | Foreign. |           |           |          | United States. |             |          |          |
|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------------|-------------|----------|----------|
|           | Gold.    |           | Silver.   |          | Gold.          |             | Silver.  |          |
|           | Coin.    | Bullion.  | Coin.     | Bullion. | Coin.          | Bullion.    | Coin.    | Bullion. |
| January.. | \$4,000  | \$13,000  | \$23,380  | ....     | ....           | \$365,000   | \$2,500  | \$4,120  |
| February. | 6,000    | 10,000    | 57,700    | \$9,000  | ....           | 669,000     | 2,300    | 6,000    |
| March...  | 8,000    | 3,000     | 82,000    | 3,000    | ....           | 351,000     | 3,500    | 4,500    |
| April ... | 8,000    | 10,000    | 31,000    | 28,000   | ....           | 328,000     | 1,000    | 4,000    |
| May ....  | 5,000    | 10,000    | 29,000    | 2,000    | ....           | 162,000     | 600      | 7,000    |
| June....  | 20,000   | 20,000    | 25,500    | 3,500    | ....           | 185,000     | 2,000    | 4,000    |
| July..... | 12,000   | 8,000     | 33,400    | 6,400    | ....           | 137,600     | 1,000    | 3,100    |
| August..  | 16,000   | 8,000     | 30,800    | 10,000   | ....           | 201,000     | ....     | 3,200    |
| Septemb'r | 20,000   | 22,000    | 18,000    | 3,000    | ....           | 160,000     | ....     | 48,000   |
| October.. | 6,000    | 6,000     | 61,200    | 3,000    | ....           | 193,000     | ....     | 8,200    |
| November  | 10,000   | 12,000    | 36,600    | 3,000    | ....           | 372,000     | 1,000    | 6,400    |
| Total..   | 115,000  | \$122,000 | \$430,580 | \$70,900 | ....           | \$2,930,600 | \$13,900 | \$88,320 |

## PAYMENTS BY ASSAY OFFICE.

|                | Bars.       | Coin.       |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| January .....  | \$387,000   | \$252,000   |
| February ..... | 750,000     | 10,000      |
| March.....     | 255,000     | 290,000     |
| April.....     | 336,000     | 74,000      |
| May.....       | 156,000     | 59,600      |
| June.....      | 140,000     | 120,000     |
| July.....      | 155,000     | 46,500      |
| August.....    | 165,000     | 104,000     |
| September..... | 175,000     | 75,000      |
| October.....   | 180,000     | 98,000      |
| November.....  | 272,000     | 169,000     |
| Total.....     | \$2,971,000 | \$1,297,100 |

The deposits for November were large, and a considerable portion was ordered into coin. The mint operations proceeded as follows :—

## UNITED STATES MINT, PHILADELPHIA.

|                 | Deposits.   |          | Coinage.  |          |          |
|-----------------|-------------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|
|                 | Gold.       | Silver.  | Gold.     | Silver.  | Cents.   |
| January .....   | \$148,040   | \$51,635 | \$59,825  | \$56,000 | \$35,000 |
| February .....  | 80,155      | 77,650   | 147,983   | 127,000  | 27,000   |
| March.....      | 67,000      | 107,640  | 119,519   | 108,000  | 27,000   |
| April.....      | 74,200      | 100,015  | 42,520    | 128,500  | 29,000   |
| May.....        | 215,760     | 86,710   | 76,640    | 104,000  | 25,000   |
| June .....      | 104,710     | 64,230   | 180,060   | 90,000   | 36,000   |
| July.....       | 158,720     | 57,770   | 117,788   | 43,000   | 30,000   |
| August .....    | 111,650     | 64,900   | 92,151    | 54,487   | 25,000   |
| September ..... | 138,500     | 118,610  | 122,804   | 54,909   | 36,000   |
| October .....   | 151,784     | 43,336   | 194,661   | 122,000  | 30,000   |
| November.....   | 149,239     | 78,431   | 128,278   | 83,000   | 33,000   |
| Total.....      | \$1,381,753 | \$50,927 | 1,282,219 | 970,996  | 323,000  |

An interesting feature in the present mint returns is that of the deposits of gold, amounting to \$149,239—only \$29,928 is of California gold, but \$75,365 is of Kansas gold, and the balance from other sources. Kansas has thus become a recognized source of supply.

The quantity of the precious metals in the whole country has evidently undergone a considerable diminution during the past year. The gold of the West has found its way from the channels of circulation to England and Europe. This depletion leaves a considerable excess of bank credits, since there has been no diminution in either the number or the credits of the corporate institutions, corresponding either to the lessened business or the metallic basis.

There is, however, a good supply of produce underlying the western indebtedness. The availability of this depends upon the demand from abroad to a considerable extent. The prospect seems now to be that a fair demand for export will grow with the approach of the spring, and by so doing, impart much activity to the western commerce.

The exports of the federal government for the fiscal year, 1859, are by the official returns as follows, comparatively :—

|                            | 1858.                | 1859.                |
|----------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Cotton.....                | \$131,386,661        | \$161,434,923        |
| Tobacco .....              | 17,009,767           | 21,074,038           |
| Provisions.....            | 16,514,761           | 15,549,517           |
| Breadstuffs.....           | 35,924,848           | 22,487,570           |
| Fisheries.....             | 3,550,295            | 4,462,977            |
| All other .....            | 46,965,321           | 53,432,758           |
| <b>Total domestic.....</b> | <b>\$251,351,133</b> | <b>\$278,392,080</b> |
| “ foreign.....             | 30,886,142           | 20,000,000           |
| “ specie.....              | 52,633,147           | 57,502,305           |
| “ exports.....             | \$324,644,421        | \$355,894,385        |
| “ imports.....             | 251,727,008          | 336,900,000          |

The exports have been very large in the past year. The cotton value, in particular, has far exceeded that of any former year. The highest value ever before attained was in 1857, when the amount was \$131,575,857, and this year is greater by nearly \$30,000,000. The value of breadstuffs and provisions continues to fall, the amount being \$40,000,000 below that of 1857. The specie export was well maintained. It is to be here remarked that the exports, including specie, for the two years ending June 30, 1859, exceed the imports by over \$90,000,000, indicating that amount of payments. Nevertheless, the exchanges during the five months that have since elapsed, have been maintained at a high point, and the outflow of specie has been larger than ever. This would indicate a withdrawal of capital from this country, perhaps, in some degree induced by the discredit generated by the panic, and favored by the abundance of money. It is, however, to be borne in mind that in the last ten years there has been a flow of capital to this country for railroad and other investments, and this influx has covered the amounts due foreign creditors for interest and the expenses of Americans traveling abroad. This year that influx has been very greatly diminished, and those two items of interest and expenses fall directly upon the produce bills of the country, and it is probably these that absorb the large apparent balance due the country, in addition to the freights carried by American shipping.

The imports at the port for the month of November show a considerable excess over those of the corresponding month last year, and the aggregate is larger than for any preceding month of November. The quantity entered for warehouse is larger than last year, but not so large as for November, 1856, when the aggregate was nearly the same as now :—

## FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK IN NOVEMBER.

|                                | 1856.        | 1857.        | 1858.        | 1859.        |
|--------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Entered for consumption.....   | \$9,730,429  | \$2,792,185  | \$7,350,322  | \$9,978,720  |
| Entered for warehousing.....   | 3,318,842    | 5,821,588    | 1,725,318    | 2,794,108    |
| Free goods.....                | 1,097,524    | 1,776,384    | 1,425,520    | 1,955,087    |
| Specie and bullion.....        | 321,750      | 3,027,803    | 90,446       | 167,087      |
| Total entered at the port..... | \$14,468,545 | \$13,417,960 | \$10,591,606 | \$14,895,902 |
| Withdrawn from warehouse.....  | 1,725,544    | 3,152,316    | 2,124,655    | 1,970,134    |

The effect of the panic in 1857 manifested itself in large entries for warehouse, and extraordinary imports of specie. These imports leave the total foreign imports at New York, since January 1st, larger than ever before in a corresponding period as follows:—

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

|                                | 1856.       | 1857.       | 1858.       | 1859.       |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Entered for consumption.....   | 148,562,621 | 120,107,089 | 93,167,226  | 163,721,999 |
| Entered for warehousing.....   | 34,650,285  | 79,033,885  | 24,115,146  | 33,340,134  |
| Free goods.....                | 16,760,950  | 19,063,434  | 20,039,083  | 26,573,198  |
| Specie and bullion.....        | 1,567,549   | 12,216,910  | 2,200,987   | 2,631,787   |
| Total entered at the port..... | 201,541,405 | 221,421,318 | 139,523,442 | 226,257,118 |
| Withdrawn from warehouse....   | 24,097,168  | 37,024,982  | 35,684,657  | 25,016,335  |

The imports of dry goods during the month of November show a higher figure than ever before in that month; a larger portion has been warehoused this year. The receipts, during the month of November are more than for the corresponding period of last year:—

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

## ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

|                              | 1856.       | 1857.     | 1858.       | 1859.       |
|------------------------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| Manufactures of wool.....    | \$834,527   | \$132,088 | \$1,052,067 | \$1,830,208 |
| Manufactures of cotton.....  | 746,138     | 67,042    | 687,389     | 939,007     |
| Manufactures of silk.....    | 1,074,671   | 83,748    | 1,019,817   | 1,406,923   |
| Manufactures of flax.....    | 543,868     | 56,012    | 465,008     | 664,648     |
| Miscellaneous dry goods..... | 274,144     | 59,281    | 265,760     | 358,220     |
| Total.....                   | \$3,473,348 | \$398,171 | \$3,490,041 | \$5,199,066 |

## WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

|                                 |             |           |             |             |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| Manufactures of wool.....       | \$82,988    | \$154,950 | \$203,011   | \$123,385   |
| Manufactures of cotton.....     | 135,307     | 74,239    | 72,653      | 43,090      |
| Manufactures of silk.....       | 155,945     | 127,187   | 78,766      | 47,650      |
| Manufactures of flax.....       | 57,739      | 26,715    | 117,901     | 74,563      |
| Miscellaneous dry goods.....    | 56,220      | 42,318    | 102,151     | 53,693      |
| Total.....                      | \$488,199   | \$425,409 | \$574,482   | \$342,381   |
| Add entered for consumption.... | 3,473,348   | 398,171   | 3,490,041   | 5,199,066   |
| Total thrown on market....      | \$3,961,547 | \$823,580 | \$4,064,523 | \$5,541,447 |

## ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

|                                 |             |             |             |             |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Manufactures of wool.....       | \$198,179   | \$424,866   | \$117,077   | \$348,028   |
| Manufactures of cotton.....     | 339,220     | 620,983     | 200,469     | 349,168     |
| Manufactures of silk.....       | 195,326     | 488,688     | 95,765      | 150,680     |
| Manufactures of flax.....       | 183,681     | 290,811     | 55,634      | 80,641      |
| Miscellaneous dry goods.....    | 63,357      | 230,579     | 49,169      | 97,385      |
| Total.....                      | \$979,763   | \$2,055,927 | \$518,114   | \$1,025,902 |
| Add entered for consumption.... | 3,473,348   | 398,171     | 3,490,041   | 5,199,066   |
| Total entered at the port....   | \$4,453,111 | \$2,454,098 | \$4,008,155 | \$6,224,968 |

This leaves the total imports of dry goods at New York, since January 1st, nearly \$50,000,000 more than in the corresponding period of last year. The warehousing account shows an excess entered for warehouse, indicating an accumulation :—

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

|                              | ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION. |                     |                     |                     |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
|                              | 1856.                    | 1857.               | 1858.               | 1859.               |
| Manufactures of wool.....    | \$23,060,524             | \$19,343,504        | \$15,951,589        | \$31,627,415        |
| Manufactures of cotton.....  | 14,103,863               | 13,911,067          | 8,774,510           | 20,579,673          |
| Manufactures of silk.....    | 27,335,024               | 22,141,161          | 16,344,300          | 30,038,842          |
| Manufactures of flax.....    | 7,601,581                | 5,170,527           | 4,240,801           | 9,380,326           |
| Miscellaneous dry goods..... | 6,535,099                | 5,550,137           | 3,190,458           | 5,294,699           |
| <b>Total.....</b>            | <b>\$78,636,091</b>      | <b>\$66,116,396</b> | <b>\$49,001,658</b> | <b>\$96,921,255</b> |

|  | WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE. |                     |                     |                    |
|--|---------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
|  | 1856.                     | 1857.               | 1858.               | 1859.              |
| Manufactures of wool.....              | \$2,570,682               | \$5,031,888         | \$4,507,237         | \$2,849,283        |
| Manufactures of cotton.....            | 2,024,250                 | 2,813,062           | 3,417,410           | 1,505,916          |
| Manufactures of silk.....              | 1,979,346                 | 4,039,982           | 3,198,729           | 372,496            |
| Manufactures of flax.....              | 985,013                   | 1,420,743           | 2,058,461           | 993,116            |
| Miscellaneous dry goods.....           | 423,328                   | 775,453             | 1,314,250           | 437,675            |
| <b>Total withdrawn.....</b>            | <b>\$7,982,619</b>        | <b>\$14,081,128</b> | <b>\$14,496,097</b> | <b>\$6,658,486</b> |
| <b>Add entered for consumption ...</b> | <b>78,636,091</b>         | <b>66,116,396</b>   | <b>49,001,658</b>   | <b>99,921,255</b>  |
| <b>Total thrown on market....</b>      | <b>\$86,618,710</b>       | <b>\$80,197,524</b> | <b>\$63,497,755</b> | <b>103,579,741</b> |

|  | ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING. |                     |                     |                    |
|--|--------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
|  | 1856.                    | 1857.               | 1858.               | 1859.              |
| Manufactures of wool.....              | \$3,124,867              | \$7,354,770         | \$2,120,741         | \$3,338,213        |
| Manufactures of cotton.....            | 2,228,952                | 4,178,679           | 1,927,260           | 1,733,076          |
| Manufactures of silk.....              | 2,133,144                | 6,013,955           | 1,172,538           | 938,224            |
| Manufactures of flax.....              | 1,123,993                | 2,561,074           | 864,413             | 880,937            |
| Miscellaneous dry goods.....           | 639,755                  | 1,904,663           | 584,319             | 534,013            |
| <b>Total.....</b>                      | <b>\$9,250,711</b>       | <b>\$22,513,141</b> | <b>\$6,669,271</b>  | <b>\$7,474,463</b> |
| <b>Add entered for consumption....</b> | <b>78,636,091</b>        | <b>66,116,396</b>   | <b>49,001,658</b>   | <b>96,921,255</b>  |
| <b>Total entered at the port....</b>   | <b>\$87,886,802</b>      | <b>\$88,629,537</b> | <b>\$55,670,929</b> | <b>104,395,718</b> |

The export trade for the month shows some recovery from the small figures of last year, but exclusive of specie they are still less than in some of the previous years. This is mostly attributed to the small export of breadstuffs :—

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

|                                      | 1856.               | 1857.               | 1858.              | 1859.               |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| Domestic produce.....                | \$7,541,595         | \$5,245,599         | \$3,481,654        | \$5,323,611         |
| Foreign merchandise (free).....      | 55,662              | 386,523             | 129,671            | 177,288             |
| Foreign merchandise (dutiabie)..     | 202,093             | 1,194,355           | 254,310            | 639,538             |
| Specie and bullion.....              | 2,955,839           | 3,239,231           | 471,970            | 4,383,123           |
| <b>Total exports.....</b>            | <b>\$10,755,189</b> | <b>\$10,065,713</b> | <b>\$4,337,605</b> | <b>\$10,523,560</b> |
| <b>Total, exclusive of specie ..</b> | <b>7,799,350</b>    | <b>6,826,482</b>    | <b>3,865,635</b>   | <b>\$6,140,437</b>  |

The exports, exclusive of specie, are small as compared with the years previous to the last, and the deficit is in breadstuffs :—

## EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR ELEVEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1.

|                                  | 1856.        | 1857.        | 1858.        | 1859.        |
|----------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Domestic produce.....            | \$71,007,627 | \$58,970,897 | \$50,249,635 | \$53,547,359 |
| Foreign merchandise (free).....  | 875,668      | 3,726,297    | 1,416,295    | 2,758,045    |
| Foreign merchandise (dutiab.)... | 2,887,023    | 6,104,554    | 3,600,167    | 4,569,642    |
| Specie and bullion.....          | 35,439,585   | 36,825,122   | 24,103,223   | 67,653,737   |
| Total exports.....               | 110,209,903  | 105,626,870  | 79,869,320   | 128,523,787  |
| Total, exclusive of specie...    | 74,770,318   | 68,801,748   | 55,266,097   | 60,875,050   |

A considerable part of the difference, as compared with the last and previous year, is owing, no doubt, to the falling off in values, as nearly all articles of domestic produce are entered for export at lower rates, and this is likely to be still more strongly marked during the next six months—a fact which may swell the quantity shipped.

The cash revenue shows a very considerable increase as compared with last year, both for the month and for the eleven months:—

## CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

|                          | 1857.           | 1858.           | 1859.           |
|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| First six months.....    | \$19,293,521 31 | \$11,089,112 57 | \$19,912,181 99 |
| In July.....             | 6,987,019 61    | 3,387,305 33    | 4,851,246 89    |
| In August.....           | 3,946,830 40    | 3,545,119 01    | 4,243,010 43    |
| In September.....        | 2,249,982 89    | 2,672,935 63    | 2,908,509 95    |
| In October.....          | 867,534 99      | 2,054,834 43    | 2,318,750 82    |
| In November.....         | 1,121,792 70    | 1,706,529 47    | 2,157,154 48    |
| Total since Jan. 1st.... | \$34,466,681 90 | \$24,455,835 46 | \$35,990,854 56 |

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


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## FINANCES OF VIRGINIA.

The biennial report of the Auditor of Public Accounts, J. H. BENNETT, Esq., to the Legislature of that State, contains the following in relation to the existing debt of Virginia. The taxable valuation of the State is \$996,000,000.

## THE PUBLIC DEBT OF THE STATE.

By the 129th section of article 4 of the constitution, it is provided that “there shall be set apart annually, from accruing revenues, a sum equal to seven per cent of the State debt existing on the first day of January, 1852. The fund thus set apart shall be called the sinking fund, and shall be applied to the payment of the interest of the State debt, and the principal of such part as may be redeemable.

By the first section of chapter seventeen of the act passed 26th of March, 1853, the public debt existing on the first day of January, 1852, was ascertained to be \$11,971,838 30, and \$838,028 68 were appropriated annually from the public treasury to be applied to the payment of the interest and the principal of such part of the State debt as was redeemable. Notwithstanding \$494,000 of this debt bears but five per cent interest, and \$1,226,500 has been redeemed, yet the annual appropriation for interest and sinking fund is not reduced, because it is necessary to be maintained to pay off the debt in thirty-four years.

THE NEW DEBT.

The same article of the constitution provides "that whenever after the first day of January, 1852, a debt shall be contracted by the Commonwealth, there shall be set apart in like manner annually, for thirty-four years, a sum exceeding by one per cent the aggregate amount of the annual interest agreed to be paid thereon at the time of its construction, which sum shall be a part of the sinking fund, and shall be applied in the manner before directed. This debt is redeemable for thirty-four years from its issue.

|  |                 |
|--|-----------------|
| The amount created after the 1st of January, 1852, and before the 1st of January, 1853, was .....        | \$2,962,687 00  |
| To 1st of January, 1854.....   | 4,571,416 87    |
| "    "    1855.....  | \$4,121,884 37  |
| Loss, amount returned by Selden, Withers & Co. ....  | 10,000 00       |
|  | <hr/>           |
| To 1st of January, 1856 .....  | 4,111,884 37    |
| "    "    1857 .....   | 1,405,403 09    |
| "    "    1858 .....   | 2,653,570 00    |
| "    "    1859 .....   | 583,060 00      |
| To 30th September, 1859, being for part of this calendar year, and ending with the fiscal year 1859..... | 1,866,800 00    |
|  | <hr/>           |
| Total.....   | \$19,480,321 33 |

Of this debt, \$1,865,000 bears five per cent interest, and \$15,615,321 33 bears six per cent interest. None of these debts are payable, but the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund have invested the one per cent per annum above the interest, which is contracted to be paid on them to the amount of \$1,083,657 20.

The entire debt of the State stands thus :—

|                                   |                 |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
| Registered stock, 6 per cent..... | \$15,928,816 63 |
| "    "    5 per cent.....         | 494,000 00      |
|                                   | <hr/>           |
| Coupon debt, 6 per cent .....     | \$11,902,500 00 |
| Sterling bonds, 5 per cent.....   | 1,865,000 00    |
|                                   | <hr/>           |
| Total.....                        | \$18,422,816 63 |

Of this the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund hold as an investment .....

|  |              |
|--|--------------|
|  | 1,083,657 20 |
|--|--------------|

Actual outstanding debt due to others than the State.....

|  |               |
|--|---------------|
|  | 29,106,659 43 |
|--|---------------|

For purposes of taxation, and to meet the requirements of the constitution, and the act creating the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, provision must be made from the accruing revenues of the State, for 7 per cent per annum on the old debt, exactly as though it was not reduced by redemption, to wit, for .....

|  |                 |
|--|-----------------|
|  | \$11,971,838 30 |
|--|-----------------|

For the new debt, including investment by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund .....

|  |               |
|--|---------------|
|  | 19,480,321 33 |
|--|---------------|

Total.....

|  |                 |
|--|-----------------|
|  | \$31,452,159 63 |
|--|-----------------|

Thus, for the old debt of \$11,971,838 30 the sum of ... ..

|  |              |
|--|--------------|
|  | \$838,028 68 |
|--|--------------|

For seven per cent on the new six per cent debt, amounting to \$17,615,321 33. ....

|  |              |
|--|--------------|
|  | 1,233,072 46 |
|--|--------------|

For six per cent on the new five per cent debt, amounting to \$1,865,000.....

|  |            |
|--|------------|
|  | 111,900 00 |
|--|------------|

Total.....

|  |                |
|--|----------------|
|  | \$2,183,001 16 |
|--|----------------|

## STATEMENT OF INTEREST ONLY AS CONTRASTED WITH THE INTEREST AND SINKING FUND.

|  | Amount.         | Interest.    |
|--|-----------------|--------------|
| Old debt, 6 per cent on.....six months | \$10,215,905 30 | \$306,479 85 |
| Old debt, 5 per cent on.....           | 494,000 00      | 12,350 00    |
| Total.....                             | \$10,709,995 30 | \$318,829 25 |
| New debt, 6 per cent on.....           | \$17,615,321 33 | \$528,459 63 |
| New debt, 5 per cent on.....           | 1,865,000 00    | 46,625 00    |
| Total.....                             | \$20,190,316 63 | \$893,914 48 |

Whole interest for the year will be \$1,787,828 96; but there will be redeemed \$201,150 of the five and six per cent debt, which saves the interest of that amount to add to the surplus required for redemption.

|                                |                |
|--------------------------------|----------------|
| The real amount is .....       | \$1,782,164 66 |
| Interest and sinking fund..... | 2,183,001 16   |

Excess over interest, applied to the extinguishment of the public debt for the year 1860..... \$400,836 50

If the debt of the State should not be augmented by any new issue of State bonds, until the year 1870, the amount redeemed on the old debt would be \$4,195,518 72, and the surplus of the annual appropriation, above interest, would be \$350,424 63. Of the new debt the State would own, by investment therein, \$4,423,411 45; and the annual fund applicable to further investment in this latter debt would be \$431,894 46; so that in 1870 the Sinking Fund Commissioners will have redeemed, and will own by investment \$8,618,930 17, and will have an annual fund for these two objects of \$782,319 09, which will be constantly increasing in a geometrical ratio. If the debt of the State should be increased, the latter fund will be increased correspondingly.

## BANKS OF NEW JERSEY.

The following is the summary of the quarterly statements of the New Jersey banks for October, compared with that of July, with the exception of the Iron Bank, Morristown, and the Hudson County Bank, Jersey City, statements from which had not been received:—

|                         | LIABILITIES.    |                 |                |
|-------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|
|                         | October, 1859.  | July, 1859.     | January, 1859. |
| Capital stock.....      | \$7,666,025 00  | \$7,714,806 00  | \$7,359,122    |
| Circulation.....        | 4,621,992 00    | 4,823,260 00    | 4,054,770      |
| Deposits.....           | 5,361,663 18    | 5,571,823 50    | 4,239,235      |
| Dividends unpaid.....   | 94,973 32       | 73,757 01       | .....          |
| Due to other banks..... | 810,902 12      | 653,028 87      | 770,935        |
| Other debts.....        | 33,119 63       | 32,312 15       | .....          |
| Surplus.....            | 1,379,035 98    | 1,395,792 48    | .....          |
|                         | RESOURCES.      |                 |                |
| Bills discounted.....   | \$14,755,206 53 | \$14,857,276 35 | \$12,449,460   |
| Specie.....             | 945,187 26      | 932,658 59      | 952,231        |
| Due by other banks..... | 1,997,203 64    | 1,824,283 31    | 2,223,935      |
| Notes, checks, do.....  | 553,289 80      | 726,165 74      | .....          |
| Real estate.....        | 417,074 63      | 451,853 81      | 420,793        |
| Stocks.....             | 728,953 49      | 862,609 65      | 785,723        |
| Other assets.....       | 411,828 27      | 491,044 95      | 391,194        |

CITY WEEKLY BANK RETURNS.

NEW YORK WEEKLY BANK RETURNS.—(CAPITAL, \$68,645,014.)

|         | Loans.      | Specie.    | Circulation. | Deposits.   | Average clearings. | Actual deposits. |
|---------|-------------|------------|--------------|-------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Jan. 8  | 128,538,642 | 28,399,818 | 7,930,292    | 113,800,885 | 20,974,263         | 92,826,622       |
| 15      | 129,349,245 | 29,380,712 | 7,586,163    | 116,054,328 | 20,598,005         | 95,456,323       |
| 22      | 129,540,050 | 29,472,056 | 7,457,245    | 116,016,828 | 20,950,428         | 95,066,400       |
| 29      | 129,663,249 | 27,725,290 | 7,483,642    | 113,012,564 | 19,174,629         | 93,837,935       |
| Feb. 5  | 130,442,176 | 25,991,441 | 7,950,855    | 114,678,173 | 22,712,917         | 91,965,256       |
| 12      | 129,106,318 | 25,419,088 | 7,872,441    | 109,907,424 | 20,560,606         | 89,346,818       |
| 19      | 127,476,495 | 26,344,955 | 7,766,858    | 108,937,564 | 19,911,207         | 89,026,357       |
| 26      | 125,866,083 | 26,470,171 | 7,736,982    | 109,000,892 | 19,785,055         | 88,215,837       |
| Mar. 5  | 125,221,627 | 26,769,965 | 8,071,693    | 108,646,823 | 22,626,795         | 86,800,028       |
| 12      | 126,205,261 | 25,530,054 | 8,100,021    | 107,458,392 | 21,270,283         | 86,188,109       |
| 19      | 127,587,943 | 25,043,183 | 7,996,713    | 108,353,336 | 21,911,543         | 86,441,793       |
| 26      | 127,751,225 | 25,182,627 | 7,998,098    | 106,581,128 | 20,237,879         | 86,343,249       |
| Apr. 2  | 128,702,192 | 25,732,161 | 8,221,753    | 110,176,088 | 22,438,950         | 87,737,138       |
| 9       | 129,865,752 | 25,748,667 | 8,449,401    | 111,692,509 | 23,549,945         | 88,142,544       |
| 16      | 129,968,924 | 25,478,108 | 8,293,459    | 111,695,711 | 23,607,914         | 88,087,797       |
| 23      | 129,192,807 | 26,068,155 | 8,289,112    | 112,627,270 | 23,671,453         | 88,955,814       |
| 30      | 128,706,705 | 26,329,805 | 8,300,672    | 113,217,504 | 23,655,166         | 89,562,338       |
| May 7   | 129,519,905 | 26,086,632 | 8,804,032    | 115,586,810 | 26,714,767         | 88,872,048       |
| 14      | 129,680,408 | 25,171,335 | 8,490,933    | 113,141,178 | 24,445,039         | 88,696,639       |
| 21      | 128,701,553 | 26,090,008 | 8,352,723    | 112,781,646 | 24,177,516         | 88,554,130       |
| 28      | 127,137,660 | 24,319,822 | 8,232,653    | 107,064,005 | 21,501,650         | 85,562,355       |
| June 4  | 125,006,766 | 23,728,311 | 8,427,642    | 103,207,002 | 20,628,166         | 82,578,836       |
| 11      | 122,958,928 | 22,132,275 | 8,391,116    | 99,042,966  | 20,159,422         | 78,883,536       |
| 18      | 121,800,195 | 23,192,217 | 8,231,111    | 99,170,335  | 20,042,356         | 79,127,979       |
| 25      | 121,744,449 | 21,759,881 | 8,216,043    | 97,353,393  | 19,160,273         | 77,193,115       |
| July 2  | 122,401,773 | 22,491,665 | 8,365,790    | 98,920,313  | 20,787,701         | 78,132,612       |
| 9       | 121,614,633 | 22,494,649 | 8,563,061    | 98,090,655  | 21,077,643         | 77,013,012       |
| 16      | 120,408,658 | 23,323,679 | 8,201,675    | 97,257,070  | 19,121,159         | 78,136,911       |
| 23      | 119,934,160 | 21,196,912 | 8,170,626    | 94,416,054  | 19,114,111         | 75,301,943       |
| 30      | 119,347,412 | 20,764,564 | 8,214,959    | 91,707,877  | 17,232,982         | 74,474,895       |
| Aug. 6  | 118,983,059 | 20,083,877 | 8,623,050    | 91,891,234  | 19,366,379         | 72,524,855       |
| 13      | 117,757,141 | 20,744,532 | 8,419,606    | 88,975,864  | 17,443,211         | 71,532,353       |
| 20      | 117,990,199 | 21,403,448 | 8,317,669    | 91,248,799  | 18,038,889         | 73,209,910       |
| 27      | 117,541,070 | 20,728,066 | 8,234,279    | 89,471,646  | 17,679,829         | 71,791,817       |
| Sept. 3 | 118,184,258 | 21,478,299 | 8,373,318    | 93,250,438  | 20,694,729         | 73,155,709       |
| 10      | 118,421,430 | 21,767,248 | 8,513,062    | 92,732,824  | 20,095,939         | 72,636,895       |
| 17      | 119,366,352 | 21,512,680 | 8,444,766    | 94,002,721  | 20,855,322         | 73,147,399       |
| 24      | 119,387,320 | 20,660,436 | 8,357,206    | 93,460,300  | 20,729,701         | 72,730,599       |
| Oct. 1  | 118,208,752 | 19,259,126 | 8,337,702    | 91,823,441  | 21,011,336         | 70,812,105       |
| 8       | 117,211,627 | 19,493,144 | 8,585,739    | 92,550,175  | 23,048,968         | 69,501,307       |
| 15      | 117,289,067 | 19,651,293 | 8,463,816    | 91,921,699  | 21,830,679         | 70,091,020       |
| 22      | 117,317,499 | 20,907,097 | 8,411,218    | 93,544,951  | 21,977,883         | 71,567,068       |
| 29      | 118,414,428 | 21,248,975 | 8,276,404    | 95,245,331  | 22,162,150         | 73,083,181       |
| Nov. 5  | 120,118,037 | 20,228,342 | 8,627,421    | 96,900,567  | 23,226,669         | 73,673,898       |
| 12      | 121,206,352 | 20,186,956 | 8,443,555    | 97,657,512  | 22,977,321         | 76,680,191       |
| 19      | 121,520,636 | 19,743,371 | 8,283,520    | 96,913,346  | 22,239,807         | 74,673,539       |
| 26      | 121,423,163 | 18,831,924 | 8,271,278    | 97,080,059  | 23,517,886         | 73,562,173       |
| Dec. 3  | 122,137,034 | 20,046,667 | 8,398,819    | 100,449,079 | 24,190,359         | 76,258,722       |
| 10      | 122,925,408 | 19,750,555 | 8,481,486    | 99,524,708  | 22,953,281         | 76,571,427       |
| 17      | 122,903,577 | 20,420,839 | 8,393,026    | 98,996,569  | 21,710,094         | 77,286,475       |

BOSTON BANKS.—(CAPITAL, \$35,125,433.)

|           | Loans.     | Specie.   | Circulation. | Deposits.  | Due to banks. | Due from banks. |
|-----------|------------|-----------|--------------|------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Jan. 3 .. | 60,069,424 | 8,548,934 | 6,543,134    | 22,357,838 | 10,789,135    | 7,083,737       |
| 10 ..     | 60,310,965 | 8,295,392 | 7,016,104    | 21,615,468 | 11,263,766    | 7,137,234       |
| 17 ..     | 60,106,798 | 7,931,712 | 6,793,723    | 21,127,712 | 11,139,700    | 7,111,264       |
| 24 ..     | 59,400,354 | 7,383,391 | 6,609,374    | 20,727,905 | 10,430,454    | 7,037,715       |
| 31 ..     | 58,992,556 | 7,088,736 | 6,224,137    | 20,598,451 | 9,657,823     | 6,547,510       |
| Feb. 7 .. | 59,120,142 | 6,814,589 | 6,514,576    | 20,845,520 | 9,506,146     | 7,057,113       |

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|            | Loans.     | Specie.   | Circulation. | Deposits.  | Due to banks. | Due from banks. |
|------------|------------|-----------|--------------|------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 14 ..      | 59,087,249 | 6,671,619 | 6,332,342    | 19,983,531 | 9,391,733     | 6,763,270       |
| 21 ..      | 59,099,993 | 6,679,740 | 6,275,458    | 20,082,960 | 9,318,961     | 6,699,735       |
| 28 ..      | 58,636,328 | 6,410,563 | 6,283,959    | 19,469,489 | 9,184,941     | 6,815,160       |
| Mar. 7 ..  | 58,892,981 | 6,386,580 | 6,578,472    | 19,935,649 | 8,477,968     | 6,873,623       |
| 14 ..      | 58,436,379 | 6,265,661 | 6,372,298    | 19,202,029 | 8,456,312     | 6,330,719       |
| 21 ..      | 58,152,742 | 6,238,518 | 6,227,150    | 19,809,807 | 7,945,389     | 6,817,368       |
| 28 ..      | 57,672,804 | 6,370,283 | 6,108,505    | 19,908,785 | 7,767,582     | 6,864,684       |
| Apr. 4 ..  | 58,031,003 | 6,401,822 | 6,386,853    | 20,899,191 | 7,665,274     | 7,524,274       |
| 11 ..      | 58,320,346 | 6,488,147 | 7,358,869    | 21,422,531 | 8,410,087     | 8,569,638       |
| 18 ..      | 58,496,225 | 6,496,137 | 6,985,273    | 21,666,840 | 8,663,857     | 8,343,446       |
| 25 ..      | 58,160,215 | 6,726,647 | 6,812,855    | 21,663,615 | 7,857,561     | 7,834,888       |
| May 2 ..   | 58,178,264 | 6,910,187 | 6,658,260    | 21,990,246 | 8,250,530     | 7,346,135       |
| 9 ..       | 58,211,765 | 6,907,557 | 7,241,597    | 21,852,338 | 7,998,226     | 8,077,777       |
| 16 ..      | 58,445,596 | 6,851,787 | 7,064,757    | 21,466,639 | 7,704,870     | 7,805,577       |
| 23 ..      | 57,996,456 | 6,700,975 | 7,013,197    | 20,845,917 | 7,542,472     | 7,565,826       |
| 30 ..      | 57,318,243 | 6,874,399 | 6,664,483    | 20,769,103 | 7,289,123     | 7,549,033       |
| June 6 ..  | 57,430,695 | 6,738,384 | 7,009,378    | 20,718,977 | 7,090,735     | 7,852,924       |
| 13 ..      | 57,972,199 | 6,672,767 | 6,863,659    | 20,118,426 | 6,865,611     | 7,778,657       |
| 20 ..      | 58,203,731 | 6,453,596 | 7,082,781    | 20,229,249 | 7,134,285     | 7,460,245       |
| 27 ..      | 58,474,300 | 6,180,858 | 6,552,901    | 19,878,006 | 7,099,339     | 6,663,773       |
| July 4 ..  | 59,037,935 | 5,493,396 | 6,935,803    | 20,017,147 | 7,076,162     | 7,283,020       |
| 11 ..      | 58,802,700 | 5,234,600 | 7,371,600    | 18,846,900 | 7,307,000     | 7,300,400       |
| 18 ..      | 58,773,537 | 4,645,866 | 6,890,858    | 18,422,769 | 6,854,245     | 6,731,181       |
| 25 ..      | 58,214,940 | 4,662,014 | 6,987,221    | 18,201,927 | 6,388,207     | 7,110,420       |
| Aug. 1 ..  | 57,972,321 | 4,667,352 | 6,387,768    | 18,033,821 | 6,511,893     | 6,331,385       |
| 8 ..       | 58,122,483 | 4,926,056 | 6,678,754    | 17,957,506 | 6,580,316     | 6,359,393       |
| 15 ..      | 58,123,231 | 4,769,101 | 6,570,163    | 17,417,279 | 6,570,922     | 5,764,922       |
| 22 ..      | 58,016,685 | 4,922,414 | 6,444,603    | 17,602,981 | 6,857,693     | 6,090,950       |
| 29 ..      | 58,089,045 | 5,094,717 | 6,259,360    | 17,569,101 | 6,892,313     | 5,749,399       |
| Sept. 5 .. | 58,567,981 | 5,115,478 | 6,495,950    | 18,159,556 | 6,921,705     | 6,153,490       |
| 12 ..      | 58,765,279 | 5,129,751 | 6,612,539    | 18,190,067 | 7,009,345     | 6,237,555       |
| 19 ..      | 58,851,495 | 5,342,342 | 6,650,383    | 18,459,463 | 6,946,411     | 6,296,528       |
| 26 ..      | 58,580,748 | 5,164,191 | 6,548,230    | 18,527,936 | 6,979,094     | 6,724,476       |
| Oct. 3 ..  | 58,735,636 | 5,195,497 | 6,694,038    | 19,165,983 | 7,000,547     | 7,237,090       |
| 10 ..      | 58,881,297 | 5,451,900 | 7,420,173    | 19,635,881 | 7,018,707     | 7,975,757       |
| 17 ..      | 58,752,928 | 5,542,585 | 7,133,034    | 19,653,268 | 7,202,078     | 7,823,215       |
| 24 ..      | 58,433,628 | 5,648,712 | 6,991,568    | 19,379,720 | 6,961,026     | 7,416,931       |
| 31 ..      | 58,321,757 | 5,762,822 | 6,632,123    | 19,652,388 | 6,964,995     | 7,157,049       |
| Nov. 7 ..  | 59,036,007 | 5,447,489 | 6,983,075    | 20,344,878 | 6,575,609     | 7,650,086       |
| 14 ..      | 59,338,369 | 5,245,205 | 6,885,008    | 19,587,724 | 6,845,133     | 7,144,018       |
| 21 ..      | 59,488,359 | 5,045,853 | 6,816,774    | 19,555,348 | 6,908,100     | 7,110,252       |
| 28 ..      | 59,220,885 | 4,855,433 | 6,802,704    | 18,821,938 | 7,195,212     | 7,247,335       |
| Dec. 5 ..  | 59,528,260 | 4,715,576 | 6,773,030    | 18,971,401 | 7,209,628     | 7,440,365       |

## PHILADELPHIA BANKS.—(CAPITAL, \$11,632,295.)

| Date.      | Loans.     | Specie.   | Circulation. | Deposits.  | Due banks. |
|------------|------------|-----------|--------------|------------|------------|
| Jan. 3.... | 26,451,057 | 6,063,356 | 2,741,754    | 17,049,005 | 3,424,569  |
| 10....     | 26,395,860 | 6,067,222 | 2,854,398    | 17,138,607 | 3,297,816  |
| 17....     | 26,365,385 | 6,050,743 | 2,830,384    | 17,323,908 | 3,258,315  |
| 24 ..      | 26,283,118 | 6,099,317 | 2,769,145    | 17,498,219 | 3,093,921  |
| 31....     | 26,320,089 | 6,138,245 | 2,709,311    | 17,557,809 | 3,159,539  |
| Feb. 7.... | 26,472,569 | 5,970,439 | 2,786,453    | 17,007,167 | 3,307,371  |
| 14....     | 26,527,304 | 5,991,541 | 2,804,032    | 16,384,087 | 3,695,963  |
| 21....     | 26,574,418 | 6,017,663 | 2,782,792    | 16,129,610 | 3,964,000  |
| 28....     | 26,509,977 | 5,982,260 | 2,778,252    | 16,012,765 | 4,086,651  |
| Mar. 7.... | 26,719,383 | 5,926,714 | 2,901,337    | 16,372,368 | 3,854,990  |
| 14....     | 26,685,873 | 6,046,248 | 2,900,832    | 16,703,049 | 3,841,605  |
| 21....     | 26,856,891 | 6,136,539 | 2,923,551    | 16,899,846 | 3,929,010  |
| 28....     | 26,967,429 | 6,296,429 | 3,029,255    | 17,476,060 | 4,109,455  |
| Apr. 4.... | 27,737,429 | 6,363,043 | 3,425,196    | 17,154,770 | 4,329,343  |
| 11....     | 27,884,568 | 6,144,905 | 3,580,447    | 17,002,878 | 4,668,135  |
| 18....     | 28,808,106 | 6,404,375 | 3,364,531    | 17,829,494 | 4,519,146  |

|             | Loans.     | Specie.   | Circulation. | Deposits.  | Due banks. |
|-------------|------------|-----------|--------------|------------|------------|
| 25....      | 27,817,918 | 6,689,591 | 3,179,236    | 17,804,212 | 4,439,457  |
| May 2....   | 27,747,339 | 6,680,813 | 3,081,102    | 17,781,229 | 4,217,894  |
| 9....       | 27,693,408 | 6,349,390 | 3,152,725    | 17,441,125 | 4,160,780  |
| 16....      | 27,435,268 | 6,286,620 | 3,090,007    | 17,603,264 | 3,930,536  |
| 23....      | 26,837,976 | 5,922,147 | 3,014,659    | 17,182,349 | 3,462,753  |
| 30....      | 26,406,458 | 5,521,759 | 2,975,736    | 16,454,661 | 3,403,572  |
| June 6....  | 26,177,875 | 5,415,587 | 2,992,198    | 16,386,995 | 3,367,146  |
| 13....      | 25,920,993 | 5,521,188 | 2,918,426    | 16,207,149 | 3,177,859  |
| 20....      | 25,715,316 | 5,301,167 | 2,835,643    | 15,705,980 | 3,198,968  |
| 27....      | 25,406,842 | 5,066,847 | 2,729,953    | 16,114,269 | .....      |
| July 4....  | 25,416,440 | 4,897,863 | 2,808,208    | 15,533,496 | 2,855,312  |
| 11....      | 25,248,246 | 4,696,111 | 2,940,108    | 14,295,683 | 2,912,575  |
| 18....      | 25,200,073 | 4,824,864 | 2,873,947    | 15,011,670 | 2,803,179  |
| 25....      | 25,106,124 | 4,697,604 | 2,808,592    | 14,862,920 | 2,605,878  |
| Aug. 1....  | 25,007,875 | 4,942,313 | 2,775,043    | 14,854,543 | 2,789,268  |
| 8....       | 24,746,238 | 4,880,630 | 2,809,456    | 14,623,439 | 2,621,820  |
| 15....      | 24,497,730 | 4,996,541 | 2,736,302    | 14,249,758 | 2,721,907  |
| 22....      | 24,325,308 | 5,079,162 | 2,724,061    | 14,096,270 | 2,802,876  |
| 29....      | 24,363,912 | 5,235,976 | 2,655,866    | 14,292,308 | 3,003,258  |
| Sept. 5.... | 24,640,746 | 5,435,090 | 2,702,837    | 14,901,572 | 2,843,855  |
| 12....      | 24,686,821 | 5,431,509 | 2,785,146    | 14,909,709 | 2,861,091  |
| 19....      | 24,916,413 | 5,500,992 | 2,766,370    | 15,056,018 | 2,913,027  |
| 26....      | 25,125,114 | 5,437,722 | 2,730,835    | 15,243,099 | 2,780,398  |
| Oct. 3....  | 25,479,419 | 5,323,153 | 2,742,444    | 15,550,755 | 2,732,862  |
| 10....      | 25,687,358 | 5,233,622 | 2,910,908    | 15,459,055 | 2,763,141  |
| 17....      | 25,816,137 | 5,217,766 | 2,873,402    | 15,332,414 | 3,023,755  |
| 24....      | 25,634,207 | 5,023,745 | 2,809,752    | 15,093,336 | 2,923,502  |
| 31....      | 25,566,036 | 5,030,242 | 2,788,375    | 15,284,824 | 2,800,883  |
| Nov. 7....  | 25,658,286 | 5,017,936 | 2,737,150    | 15,480,452 | 2,742,790  |
| 14....      | 25,621,723 | 4,973,574 | 2,724,358    | 15,212,918 | 2,778,891  |
| 21....      | 25,401,032 | 4,755,889 | 2,654,119    | 14,973,280 | 2,663,857  |
| 28....      | 25,077,432 | 4,512,324 | 2,679,562    | 14,816,675 | 2,468,914  |
| Dec. 5....  | 24,963,565 | 4,564,453 | 2,648,226    | 14,852,018 | 2,398,251  |

NEW ORLEANS BANKS.—(CAPITAL, \$19,284,000.)

|           | Short loans. | Specie.    | Circulation. | Deposits.  | Exchange.  | Distant balances. |
|-----------|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|------------|-------------------|
| Jan. 3..  | 20,537,567   | 16,013,189 | 9,551,324    | 22,643,428 | 9,882,602  | 2,331,233         |
| 10..      | 20,453,417   | 16,294,474 | 10,383,734   | 21,756,592 | 9,866,131  | 2,540,573         |
| 17..      | 20,904,840   | 16,343,810 | 10,819,419   | 22,194,957 | 9,666,070  | 2,380,707         |
| 24..      | 21,442,167   | 16,279,655 | 11,224,464   | 22,549,305 | 9,492,871  | 2,057,217         |
| 31..      | 21,837,791   | 16,101,158 | 11,616,119   | 22,554,889 | 9,508,703  | 1,861,866         |
| Feb. 5..  | 21,809,628   | 16,365,053 | 11,913,009   | 22,743,175 | 9,747,755  | 2,000,056         |
| 12..      | 22,594,245   | 16,700,188 | 12,148,174   | 23,830,045 | 9,686,145  | 1,879,644         |
| 19..      | 22,677,390   | 16,949,263 | 12,241,954   | 23,620,711 | 9,474,473  | 2,174,619         |
| 27..      | 23,126,625   | 16,806,998 | 12,522,244   | 23,203,848 | 9,217,655  | 2,320,031         |
| Mar. 12.. | 22,944,605   | 16,828,140 | 12,581,934   | 23,501,784 | 9,046,372  | 1,959,638         |
| 19..      | 22,633,181   | 17,013,593 | 12,777,999   | 22,364,430 | 8,563,771  | 2,432,776         |
| 26..      | 22,420,444   | 16,837,405 | 12,681,931   | 22,589,661 | 8,770,788  | 2,420,725         |
| Apr. 2..  | 22,465,730   | 16,179,137 | 13,054,416   | 22,465,730 | 9,059,382  | 2,545,873         |
| 9..       | 21,655,921   | 16,250,790 | 12,985,616   | 22,066,164 | 9,493,761  | 2,582,084         |
| 16..      | 21,132,186   | 15,975,547 | 12,777,079   | 22,356,833 | 9,949,531  | 2,243,528         |
| 23..      | 20,287,903   | 15,705,599 | 12,666,116   | 21,792,705 | 10,055,454 | 2,449,421         |
| 30..      | 19,926,487   | 16,650,736 | 12,578,111   | 21,315,664 | 9,537,886  | 2,100,219         |
| May 7..   | 19,443,947   | 15,539,235 | 12,711,640   | 21,396,145 | 9,271,213  | 2,029,992         |
| 14..      | 18,948,824   | 15,534,148 | 12,513,001   | 20,569,681 | 8,439,088  | 2,127,956         |
| 21..      | 18,925,857   | 15,203,875 | 12,326,726   | 19,890,960 | 7,428,213  | 2,062,447         |
| 28..      | 18,594,556   | 14,784,944 | 12,032,821   | 19,445,178 | 7,190,460  | 2,089,701         |
| June 4..  | 18,350,758   | 14,587,357 | 11,994,591   | 18,683,911 | 6,614,289  | 2,040,656         |
| 11..      | 17,889,718   | 14,240,114 | 11,825,081   | 18,159,432 | 6,481,915  | 1,928,315         |
| 18..      | 17,525,037   | 14,151,040 | 11,708,131   | 17,804,674 | 6,076,239  | 1,770,409         |
| 25..      | 17,262,214   | 13,597,084 | 11,501,679   | 17,139,130 | 5,853,472  | 1,774,067         |
| July 2..  | 17,193,658   | 13,524,959 | 11,284,564   | 16,891,446 | 5,550,384  | 1,705,349         |

|           | Short loans. | Specie.    | Circulation. | Deposits.  | Exchange. | Distant balances. |
|-----------|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|-----------|-------------------|
| 9..       | 17,138,649   | 13,475,341 | 11,061,704   | 16,643,664 | 4,839,808 | 1,743,348         |
| 16..      | 16,763,853   | 13,666,522 | 10,743,414   | 16,330,871 | 4,043,047 | 1,642,797         |
| 23..      | 16,690,806   | 13,744,709 | 10,507,084   | 15,933,313 | 3,657,302 | 1,728,875         |
| 30..      | 17,020,100   | 13,763,222 | 10,338,819   | 15,940,824 | 3,197,339 | 1,694,469         |
| Aug. 6..  | 17,596,593   | 13,504,546 | 10,091,039   | 16,377,209 | 2,787,395 | 1,976,150         |
| 13..      | 18,032,892   | 13,124,146 | 9,951,954    | 15,356,742 | 2,647,128 | 1,852,705         |
| 20..      | 18,850,144   | 13,214,396 | 9,823,059    | 15,483,806 | 2,581,960 | 1,803,945         |
| 27..      | 19,505,226   | 12,924,929 | 9,788,919    | 15,314,628 | 2,411,899 | 1,788,802         |
| Sept. 3.. | 19,827,317   | 13,154,963 | 9,805,674    | 15,394,654 | 2,445,097 | 1,772,558         |
| 10..      | 20,629,817   | 12,749,427 | 9,567,333    | 15,260,331 | 2,003,175 | 1,619,886         |
| 17..      | 21,144,174   | 12,824,667 | 9,442,349    | 15,402,592 | 1,862,657 | 1,516,252         |
| 24..      | 22,228,245   | 12,601,590 | 9,306,194    | 15,596,759 | 2,001,524 | 1,525,035         |
| Oct. 1..  | 22,797,076   | 12,767,785 | 9,293,719    | 16,224,953 | 2,175,945 | 1,562,634         |
| 8..       | 23,189,871   | 12,815,675 | 9,376,949    | 16,325,445 | 2,587,384 | 1,717,069         |
| 15..      | 23,553,087   | 12,715,371 | 9,401,424    | 16,627,959 | 2,840,507 | 1,678,519         |
| 22..      | 24,228,872   | 12,663,741 | 9,454,114    | 17,088,401 | 3,246,394 | 1,163,523         |
| 29..      | 24,495,312   | 12,710,629 | 9,442,739    | 17,821,585 | 3,960,983 | 1,787,709         |
| Nov. 5..  | 24,650,793   | 12,309,920 | 9,676,084    | 17,688,094 | 4,578,944 | 1,877,009         |
| 12..      | 25,164,116   | 12,226,357 | 9,707,137    | 18,481,201 | 5,112,580 | 1,780,362         |
| 19..      | 24,887,928   | 12,076,239 | 9,787,424    | 18,049,797 | 5,402,418 | 1,711,166         |
| 26..      | 25,045,141   | 12,438,190 | 9,237,325    | 18,432,608 | 5,542,706 | 1,861,999         |

## PITTSBURG BANKS.—(CAPITAL, \$4,160,200.)

|              | Loans.    | Specie.   | Circulation. | Deposits. | Due banks. |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| Jan. 3.....  | 6,837,261 | 1,292,047 | 2,038,113    | 1,811,780 | 162,902    |
| 10.....      | 6,929,874 | 1,287,552 | 2,042,348    | 1,767,594 | 216,097    |
| 17.....      | 6,743,540 | 1,294,567 | 2,023,948    | 1,804,149 | 179,451    |
| 24.....      | 6,970,837 | 1,308,325 | 1,961,493    | 1,781,474 | 241,121    |
| 31.....      | 6,964,674 | 1,307,145 | 1,965,723    | 1,739,046 | 215,608    |
| Feb. 7.....  | 6,988,923 | 1,260,532 | 1,904,978    | 1,748,144 | 202,505    |
| 14.....      | 7,027,680 | 1,219,551 | 1,958,098    | 1,724,773 | 164,859    |
| 21.....      | 6,953,599 | 1,223,396 | 1,919,658    | 1,699,020 | 134,859    |
| 28.....      | 7,001,804 | 1,213,552 | 1,937,498    | 1,683,030 | 175,640    |
| Mar. 7.....  | 6,945,722 | 1,133,754 | 1,867,848    | 1,637,796 | 160,996    |
| 14.....      | 6,982,847 | 1,100,171 | 2,029,468    | 1,638,243 | 220,822    |
| 21.....      | 7,069,162 | 1,156,682 | 1,961,843    | 1,625,949 | 215,029    |
| 28.....      | 6,991,949 | 1,112,770 | 1,954,903    | 1,602,283 | 180,567    |
| Apr. 4.....  | 7,213,664 | 1,113,769 | 2,080,363    | 1,704,191 | 237,290    |
| 11.....      | 7,212,513 | 1,128,686 | 2,035,188    | 1,747,237 | 196,288    |
| 18.....      | 7,197,068 | 1,191,797 | 2,089,498    | 1,751,230 | 262,922    |
| 25.....      | 7,245,963 | 1,155,780 | 2,084,153    | 1,782,131 | 274,549    |
| May 2.....   | 7,327,114 | 1,182,273 | 2,000,344    | 1,856,843 | 291,061    |
| 9.....       | 7,276,965 | 1,141,556 | 2,010,948    | 1,899,305 | 212,682    |
| 16.....      | 7,235,561 | 1,089,513 | 2,101,348    | 1,865,657 | 228,187    |
| 23.....      | 7,161,874 | 1,053,799 | 2,024,673    | 1,774,093 | .....      |
| 30.....      | 7,082,987 | 1,036,945 | 1,952,238    | 1,699,393 | .....      |
| June 6.....  | 7,090,569 | 1,063,567 | 1,930,468    | 1,666,775 | .....      |
| 13.....      | 7,006,137 | 990,307   | 1,878,298    | 1,577,358 | 266,305    |
| 18.....      | 6,890,266 | 997,486   | 1,888,478    | 1,578,395 | 220,362    |
| 25.....      | 6,918,435 | 1,014,657 | 1,863,653    | 1,636,933 | .....      |
| July 4.....  | 7,006,116 | 1,018,635 | 1,874,093    | 1,694,895 | .....      |
| 11.....      | 6,944,732 | 1,025,986 | 1,824,928    | 1,718,566 | 225,404    |
| 18.....      | 6,955,020 | 1,052,191 | 1,868,923    | 1,734,554 | 266,888    |
| 25.....      | 6,961,268 | 1,119,255 | 1,868,243    | 1,750,513 | 232,171    |
| 31.....      | 6,929,136 | 1,091,462 | 1,835,333    | 1,741,538 | 257,160    |
| Aug. 7.....  | 6,915,619 | 1,079,179 | 1,780,298    | 1,695,557 | 239,571    |
| 15.....      | 6,829,277 | 1,095,789 | 1,776,633    | 1,646,966 | 248,565    |
| 22.....      | 6,809,909 | 1,076,376 | 1,805,178    | 1,645,959 | 222,021    |
| 29.....      | 6,767,148 | 1,099,419 | 1,735,336    | 1,657,486 | 200,076    |
| Sept. 5..... | 6,745,807 | 1,055,124 | 1,752,748    | 1,580,176 | 205,270    |
| 12.....      | 6,696,995 | 1,073,545 | 1,753,783    | 1,570,561 | 190,068    |

|             | Loans.    | Specie.   | Circulation. | Deposits. | Due banks. |
|-------------|-----------|-----------|--------------|-----------|------------|
| 19.....     | 6,705,683 | 1,055,006 | 1,816,468    | 1,570,561 | 181,605    |
| 26.....     | 6,689,029 | 1,042,775 | 1,781,793    | 1,596,295 | 182,642    |
| Oct. 3..... | 6,749,855 | 1,073,083 | 1,808,398    | 1,604,173 | 176,755    |
| 10.....     | 6,754,557 | 1,069,448 | 1,796,613    | 1,597,592 | 160,198    |
| 17.....     | 6,686,696 | 1,115,186 | 1,299,808    | 1,570,568 | 187,125    |
| 24.....     | 6,747,778 | 1,115,425 | 1,786,943    | 1,625,076 | 191,939    |
| 31.....     | 6,717,718 | 1,165,458 | 1,773,728    | 1,557,259 | 223,635    |
| Nov. 7..... | 6,795,301 | 1,115,226 | 1,731,738    | 1,704,208 | 184,249    |
| 14.....     | 6,748,821 | 1,073,171 | 1,748,963    | 1,634,232 | 203,154    |
| 21.....     | 6,771,160 | 1,097,597 | 1,797,393    | 1,634,123 | 259,356    |
| 28.....     | 6,784,440 | 1,093,318 | 1,855,898    | 1,590,844 | 253,958    |
| Dec. 5..... | 6,975,611 | 1,105,126 | 2,058,328    | 1,566,818 | 283,223    |

ST. LOUIS BANKS.

|              | Exchange. | Circulation. | Specie.   |
|--------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|
| Jan. 8.....  | 3,297,559 | 2,020,608    | 1,705,262 |
| 15.....      | 3,345,015 | 1,992,670    | 1,578,800 |
| 22.....      | 3,331,189 | 2,116,870    | 1,584,541 |
| 29.....      | 3,409,026 | 2,185,385    | 1,640,541 |
| Feb. 5.....  | 2,480,693 | 2,032,235    | 1,599,203 |
| 12.....      | 3,557,028 | 1,865,125    | 1,682,084 |
| 19.....      | 3,540,103 | 1,932,210    | 1,678,054 |
| 26.....      | 3,549,330 | 1,819,745    | 1,636,054 |
| Mar. 5.....  | 3,545,202 | 1,808,100    | 1,575,362 |
| 12.....      | 3,400,186 | 1,733,620    | 1,569,742 |
| 19.....      | 3,296,937 | 1,673,475    | 1,605,802 |
| 26.....      | 3,422,612 | 1,596,806    | 1,642,589 |
| Apr. 2.....  | 3,337,296 | 1,566,380    | 1,542,211 |
| 9.....       | 3,339,900 | 1,516,840    | 1,531,199 |
| 16.....      | 3,464,386 | 1,492,055    | 1,525,315 |
| 23.....      | 3,425,470 | 1,439,085    | 1,434,491 |
| 30.....      | 3,410,135 | 1,332,355    | 1,435,568 |
| May 7.....   | 3,435,940 | 1,360,835    | 1,549,133 |
| 14.....      | 3,475,945 | 1,359,241    | 1,574,657 |
| 21.....      | 3,691,958 | 1,333,815    | 1,542,616 |
| 28.....      | 3,615,197 | 1,274,605    | 1,373,194 |
| June 4.....  | 3,678,049 | 1,267,675    | 1,367,181 |
| 11.....      | 3,685,371 | 1,218,755    | 1,358,047 |
| 18.....      | 3,710,240 | 1,163,440    | 1,441,301 |
| 25.....      | 3,465,823 | 1,134,650    | 1,419,965 |
| July 2.....  | 3,331,027 | 1,028,760    | 1,353,069 |
| 9.....       | 3,418,224 | 1,035,845    | 1,339,076 |
| 16.....      | 3,419,031 | 1,042,310    | 1,325,552 |
| 23.....      | 3,492,105 | 975,220      | 1,275,820 |
| 30.....      | 3,358,648 | 942,460      | 1,229,777 |
| Aug. 6.....  | 3,265,140 | 919,415      | 1,120,829 |
| 13.....      | 3,353,358 | 816,895      | 1,002,615 |
| 20.....      | 3,317,433 | 778,365      | 986,750   |
| 27.....      | 3,190,259 | 714,060      | 1,013,160 |
| Sept. 3..... | 3,306,732 | 684,745      | 894,998   |
| 10.....      | 3,320,181 | 682,065      | 865,943   |
| 17.....      | 3,411,213 | 648,890      | 867,943   |
| 24.....      | 3,343,603 | 595,805      | 780,425   |
| Oct. 1.....  | 3,190,900 | 550,810      | 820,574   |
| 8.....       | 3,013,908 | 553,390      | 847,601   |
| 15.....      | 2,990,092 | 521,535      | 913,356   |
| 22.....      | 3,039,601 | 551,850      | 777,028   |
| 29.....      | 2,998,648 | 541,315      | 820,053   |
| Nov. 5.....  | 2,960,496 | 537,720      | 856,334   |
| 12.....      | 3,095,773 | 487,619      | 820,513   |
| 19.....      | 3,048,731 | 534,850      | 837,062   |
| 26.....      | 3,193,513 | 483,675      | 730,655   |
| Dec. 2.....  | 3,256,203 | 497,895      | 683,496   |

## PROVIDENCE BANKS.—(CAPITAL, \$5,636,269.)

|              | Loans.     | Specie. | Circulation. | Deposits. | Due oth. b'ks. |
|--------------|------------|---------|--------------|-----------|----------------|
| Jan. 17..... | 18,037,795 | 537,884 | 2,003,313    | 2,513,422 | 1,307,647      |
| Feb. 7.....  | 18,298,481 | 451,771 | 1,789,673    | 2,446,451 | 1,135,309      |
| 21.....      | 18,533,944 | 412,571 | 1,927,359    | 2,411,858 | 968,154        |
| Mar. 6.....  | 18,327,546 | 375,757 | 1,967,389    | 2,324,691 | 978,410        |
| 21.....      | 18,333,574 | 377,945 | 1,943,450    | 2,288,175 | 255,892        |
| Apr. 4.....  | 18,483,550 | 387,317 | 1,938,448    | 2,374,941 | 972,491        |
| May 2.....   | 18,260,520 | 399,294 | 1,920,391    | 2,394,688 | 803,729        |
| June 6.....  | 18,597,814 | 378,196 | 1,009,163    | 2,421,901 | 946,691        |
| July 4.....  | 19,124,155 | 336,398 | 1,407,141    | 2,399,843 | 1,076,323      |
| Aug. 4.....  | 18,972,736 | 315,810 | 2,018,775    | 2,331,568 | 1,559,874      |
| Sept. 5..... | 18,900,466 | 321,487 | 1,901,198    | 2,394,917 | 965,545        |
| Oct. 5.....  | 19,019,691 | 312,658 | 1,914,490    | 2,602,946 | 807,827        |
| Nov. 7.....  | 19,322,775 | 334,249 | 2,098,610    | 2,732,380 | 1,043,439      |
| Dec. 5.....  | 19,087,114 | 328,581 | 2,074,873    | 2,585,793 | 990,100        |

## PHILADELPHIA BANK PROFITS.

The following named banks of Philadelphia have announced their November dividends, which are presented in comparison with those made in May last. Some two or three of the new banks have, within the last half year, slightly increased their capitals, but the amount is not material. The Bank of North America divides in January and July:—

| Banks.                             | Capital stock. | Dividend, May. | Dividend, November. | Amount of dividend. |
|------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Philadelphia.....                  | \$1,800,000    | 5              | 5                   | \$90,000            |
| Farmers' and Mechanics'.....       | 2,000,000      | 4              | 4                   | 80,000              |
| Girard.....                        | 1,250,000      | 3½             | 3                   | 37,500              |
| Commercial.....                    | 841,400        | 3½             | 3½                  | 29,445              |
| Mechanics'.....                    | 800,000        | 5              | 5                   | 40,000              |
| Manufacturers' and Mechanics'..... | 570,150        | 4              | 4                   | 22,806              |
| City.....                          | 433,850        | 3              | 3                   | 13,015              |
| Western.....                       | 418,600        | 5              | 6                   | 26,116              |
| Consolidation.....                 | 267,560        | 3              | 3                   | 8,026               |
| Southwark.....                     | 250,000        | 10             | 5                   | 12,500              |
| Commerce.....                      | 250,000        | 10             | 5                   | 12,500              |
| Kensington.....                    | 250,000        | 5              | 5                   | 12,500              |
| Commonwealth.....                  | 189,645        | 3              | 3                   | 5,689               |
| Corn Exchange.....                 | 158,910        | 3              | 3                   | 4,767               |
| Union.....                         | 164,720        | ..             | 3                   | 4,941               |
| Tradesmen's.....                   | 150,000        | 4              | 4                   | 6,000               |
| Bank of Northern Liberties.....    | 500,000        | 5              | 5                   | 25,000              |
| Bank of Germantown.....            | 200,000        | ..             | 4                   | 8,000               |
| Bank of Penn Township.....         | 350,000        | 4              | 4                   | 14,000              |
|                                    | \$10,844,835   | ..             | ..                  | \$452,805           |

## OHIO BANKS.

The quarterly reports exhibiting the condition of the several incorporated banking institutions of the State of Ohio, on the first Monday of November, 1859, as made to the Auditor of State, show the following aggregates:—

|                  | Independent banks. |               | Free banks.     |               | State banks.    |               |
|------------------|--------------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|
|                  | November, 1859.    | August, 1859. | November, 1859. | August, 1859. | November, 1859. | August, 1859. |
| Specie.....      | \$121,544          | \$122,241     | \$117,444       | \$134,607     | \$1,423,362     | \$1,578,787   |
| Exchange.....    | 166,904            | 117,314       | 287,481         | 408,245       | 784,575         | 936,873       |
| Discounts.....   | 1,453,755          | 1,447,462     | 1,403,036       | 1,135,773     | 8,205,434       | 8,042,434     |
| Capital.....     | 650,000            | 612,500       | 719,645         | 662,270       | 4,005,500       | 4,404,500     |
| Circulation..... | 541,237            | 563,188       | 665,678         | 649,082       | 6,362,705       | 6,532,389     |
| Deposits.....    | 868,012            | 921,907       | 985,271         | 953,767       | 2,157,433       | 2,467,267     |

CANADA BANKS.

The following are some of the features of the Canada banks. These institutions pay interest on deposits:—

| Name of bank.                      | Capital paid up.       | Promissory notes in circulation not bearing interest. | Total liabilities.     |
|------------------------------------|------------------------|---|------------------------|
| Quebec Bank.....                   | \$996,400 00           | \$539,281   | \$1,198,365 80         |
| City Bank of Montreal.....         | 1,198,496 00           | 431,864   | 1,115,694 34           |
| Bank of Montreal.....              | 5,973,180 00           | 2,064,735   | 5,046,091 90           |
| Commercial Bank.....               | 4,000,000 00           | 1,200,163   | 2,888,712 07           |
| Bank of Upper Canada.....          | 3,127,215 00           | 2,119,052   | 7,383,988 80           |
| Banque du Peuple.....              | 1,101,615 00           | 235,421   | 807,127 51             |
| Molsons Bank.....                  | 937,773 60             | 253,514   | 904,366 28             |
| Bank of British North America..... | 4,866,666 00           | 942,685   | 2,582,493 00           |
| Niagara District Bank.....         | 252,741 81             | 144,444   | 267,688 06             |
| Bank of Toronto.....               | 533,430 00             | 316,457   | 550,091 81             |
| Ontario Bank.....                  | 461,742 00             | 191,753   | 326,961 22             |
| International Bank.....            | .....                  | .....   | .....                  |
| Colonial Bank.....                 | 112,000 00             | 77,000  | 97,830 16              |
| <b>Total.....</b>                  | <b>\$23,561,258 81</b> | <b>\$8,438,969</b>                                    | <b>\$23,139,410 40</b> |

| Name of bank.                      | Coin and bullion.     | Notes and bills discounted & other debts due to the bank not included under foregoing heads. | Total assets.          |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|--|------------------------|
| Quebec Bank.....                   | \$129,105 66          | \$2,139,633 55   | \$2,344,190 87         |
| City Bank of Montreal.....         | 156,268 28            | 1,948,819 21   | 2,501,429 40           |
| Bank of Montreal.....              | 650,621 27            | 9,607,957 77   | 11,974,844 94          |
| Commercial Bank.....               | 461,727 82            | 5,990,278 56   | 7,577,717 06           |
| Bank of Upper Canada.....          | 517,420 24            | 8,540,722 45   | 11,059,784 20          |
| Banque du Peuple.....              | 141,281 71            | 1,741,456 43   | 2,124,783 80           |
| Molsons Bank.....                  | 107,450 35            | 1,504,344 87   | 1,932,211 10           |
| Bank of British North America..... | 457,599 00            | 5,731,484 00   | 7,278,724 00           |
| Niagara District Bank.....         | 18,595 70             | 456,148 21   | 548,934 89             |
| Bank of Toronto.....               | 87,542 24             | 862,658 99   | 1,145,071 40           |
| Ontario Bank.....                  | 35,128 92             | 683,695 60   | 847,618 80             |
| International Bank.....            | .....                 | .....  | .....                  |
| Colonial Bank.....                 | 15,721 37             | 120,890 73   | 210,985 33             |
| <b>Total.....</b>                  | <b>\$2,718,462 76</b> | <b>\$31,328,090 32</b>   | <b>\$49,586,295 09</b> |

TAXABLE PROPERTY OF NEW ORLEANS.

We glean, says the New Orleans *Bulletin*, the following exhibit of the taxable property of our city from a summary of the assessment rolls for 1859, kindly furnished us by Mr. J. A. WATKINS, one of our most efficient State Assessors:—

|  | First district.     | Second district.    | Third district.     | Fourth district.   | Total.               |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| Real estate.....                           | \$37,379,820        | \$22,915,050        | \$8,180,395         | \$8,010,705        | \$76,485,970         |
| Number of slaves....                       | 4,224               | 3,585               | 1,406               | 1,642              | 10,857               |
| Value of slaves.....                       | 2,513,500           | 2,106,290           | 810,750             | 886,350            | 6,336,890            |
| Value of horses.....                       | 422,910             | 392,250             | 272,200             | 139,100            | 1,226,460            |
| Stock in steamers....                      | 497,925             | 20,500              | 319,000             | 4,000              | 841,425              |
| Money at interest....                      | 231,350             | 521,000             | .....               | 13,900             | 765,350              |
| Capital.....                               | 19,267,908          | 5,410,300           | 428,350             | 168,150            | 25,265,714           |
| Tax on trades.....                         | 138,195             | 67,670              | 27,045              | 11,230             | 244,140              |
| Number of polls.....                       | 6,296               | 2,607               | 1,628               | 1,328              | 11,859               |
| <b>Total.....</b>                          | <b>\$60,457,904</b> | <b>\$31,461,667</b> | <b>\$10,039,388</b> | <b>\$9,233,863</b> | <b>\$111,193,802</b> |
| <b>Total taxable property in 1858.....</b> |                     |                     |                     |                    | <b>\$108,651,135</b> |

## FINANCES OF NEW YORK CITY.

The New York *Courier and Enquirer* of a late date, in illustration of some remarks, contains the following table showing the population, valuation, and taxation, of the city of New York. In showing the wonderful progress of the commercial metropolis of the Union, inasmuch that the central city cannot grow without a corresponding increase in the prosperity of the vast circle of country of which it is the center, the table serves also as an index to the national progress. It proves, also, that the national wealth has more than doubled in the last 18 years, which period embraces the recovery from the disasters of 1837-39, and the great development which has since attended gold discoveries. The table will show the population of the city at each census since 1840, and the number at each intervening year, according to the ratio of increase indicated by the census. Also the total valuation of taxable property, taxes raised, and the rate of tax per hundred dollars:—

STATEMENT SHOWING THE RATES, ETC., OF TAXES FROM 1841 TO 1859.

| Years.     | Population. | Total valuation of taxable property. | Amount of tax raised. | Rate of tax on \$100. |
|------------|-------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1841 ..... | 322,000     | \$251,194,920                        | \$1,394,136           | \$0 56                |
| 1842 ..... | 334,000     | 237,805,651                          | 2,031,383             | 0 86                  |
| 1843 ..... | 346,000     | 229,229,079                          | 1,747,516             | 0 79                  |
| 1844 ..... | 358,000     | 236,727,143                          | 1,988,818             | 0 89                  |
| 1845 ..... | 371,223     | 239,994,517                          | 2,096,191             | 0 86                  |
| 1846 ..... | 396,000     | 244,952,004                          | 2,526,146             | 1 05                  |
| 1847 ..... | 423,000     | 247,153,299                          | 2,581,776             | 1 05                  |
| 1848 ..... | 452,000     | 254,163,523                          | 2,715,510             | 1 07                  |
| 1849 ..... | 483,000     | 256,197,143                          | 3,005,762             | 1 18                  |
| 1850 ..... | 515,394     | 286,061,816                          | 3,230,085             | 1 13                  |
| 1851 ..... | 535,000     | 320,210,857                          | 2,924,445             | 0 91                  |
| 1852 ..... | 556,000     | 351,768,426                          | 3,380,511             | 0 96                  |
| 1853 ..... | 578,000     | 413,631,382                          | 5,066,698             | 1 23                  |
| 1854 ..... | 601,000     | 462,021,734                          | 4,845,386             | 1 05                  |
| 1855 ..... | 629,810     | 486,998,278                          | 5,843,822             | 1 20                  |
| 1856 ..... | 654,000     | 511,740,492                          | 7,075,425             | 1 38                  |
| 1857 ..... | 680,000     | 520,545,282                          | 8,066,506             | 1 55                  |
| 1858 ..... | 707,000     | 531,194,290                          | 8,621,091             | 1 63                  |
| 1859 ..... | 735,000     | 551,923,122                          | 9,860,926             | 1 79                  |

## BANK SUSPENSIONS.

Governor GIST, in his annual message to the Legislature of South Carolina, on the subject of bank suspensions, remarks as follows:—

The report of the Controller will exhibit the financial condition of the State in all its details, and to it I refer you for information on that point. The banks, so far as I can learn, are in a sound and healthy condition, prepared to discharge all their obligations, and furnish a sound and stable currency for the State. Without being disposed to question the wisdom of the act of the Legislature in relation to keeping a certain amount of specie in their vaults, I would respectfully suggest, that while it would fail to remedy the evil of a suspension, (the banks frequently suspending with much less specie in their vaults than is now required,) it is an unnecessary tax upon them, without any great public good growing out of it. The banks, however, should not be exempted from a strict accountability; but it seems to me the best plan would be to put them immediately in liquidation upon the suspension of specie payments, and compel them to close business until new charters are obtained, open to all who may choose to subscribe, as when the banks were first chartered. If this is deemed too severe a penalty for suspending, something milder might be substituted that would tend to prevent a suspension, except under the most pressing necessity.

Governor HARRIS, of Tennessee, and Governor BROWN, of Georgia, both recommend the very severest limitations and restrictions upon the banks of those States. The latter says :—

I also recommend, that the penal code of this State be so changed as to declare that a future suspension of specie payment, by any bank in this State, shall be adjudged as conclusive evidence of fraud on the part of the president and directors of such bank ; and that the same be declared to be a high misdemeanor, and punished by confinement and hard labor in the Penitentiary of this State, for a term not less than five nor more than ten years ; and that the grand jurors of each county in this State, in which a bank is located, shall, at the opening of each term of the court, in addition to the oath now prescribed by law, further swear that they will diligently inquire, and true presentment make of all cases of bank suspension which have occurred in the county since the last term of the court ; and in case any grand jury shall present any bank as having suspended specie payment, that it shall be the duty of the Solicitor-General forthwith to make out bills of indictment against the president and directors of such bank.

CITIES OF OHIO.

The State Auditor of Ohio, Mr. WILLIAMS, has prepared the following table showing the taxable valuation of eighteen cities and towns in 1859, as compared with 1853.

It will be observed that there is a falling off in most of the places, though there is a small increase in the sum total. Columbus and Dayton change places—Dayton becoming third and Columbus fourth in taxable value. Toledo advances from the eighth to the fifth, and Sandusky falls from the sixth to the twelfth. Lancaster advances from the sixteenth to thirteenth ; Springfield from ninth to sixth ; Chillicothe maintains the same relative position, while Zanesville recedes from the fifth to the eighth.

The greatest increase per cent is in Toledo—104 per cent. Springfield increases 59 per cent. The greatest decrease is in Sandusky—72 per cent. Columbus decrease is 53 per cent :—

ABSTRACT, SHOWING THE TAXABLE REAL PROPERTY IN 18 PRINCIPAL CITIES AND TOWNS AS RETURNED TO THE STATE BOARD OF EQUALIZATION IN 1859, AND ALSO AS EQUALIZED IN 1853, TOGETHER WITH THE PER CENT, INCREASE OR DECREASE.

| Names of cities.  | Valuation of 1859. | Equalized valuation of 1853. | Inc. per cent.   | Dec. per cent.   |
|-------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| Cincinnati.....   | \$62,869,126       | \$55,595,825                 | 13               | ...              |
| Cleveland.....    | 14,157,711         | 15,947,768                   | ..               | 12 $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| Columbus.....     | 4,527,284          | 6,934,117                    | ..               | 53               |
| Dayton.....       | 5,749,804          | 5,309,928                    | 8                | ...              |
| Zanesville.....   | 1,547,538          | 1,788,389                    | ..               | 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Sandusky.....     | 1,005,898          | 1,732,558                    | ..               | 72               |
| Chillicothe.....  | 1,577,090          | 1,677,063                    | ..               | 6 $\frac{1}{2}$  |
| Toledo.....       | 3,229,030          | 1,578,134                    | 104              | ...              |
| Springfield.....  | 1,951,729          | 1,227,382                    | 59               | ...              |
| Hamilton.....     | 1,861,951          | 1,199,540                    | 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ | ...              |
| Porthmouth.....   | 1,294,253          | 1,171,044                    | 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ | ...              |
| Newark.....       | 858,546            | 917,223                      | ..               | 6 $\frac{1}{2}$  |
| Steubenville..... | 841,180            | 885,405                      | ..               | 5                |
| Marietta.....     | 835,984            | 867,358                      | ..               | 3 $\frac{1}{4}$  |
| Mansfield.....    | 802,685            | 840,483                      | ..               | 2                |
| Lancaster.....    | 873,320            | 807,219                      | 8                | ...              |
| Circleville.....  | 646,930            | 790,109                      | ..               | 23 $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| Mount Vernon..... | 682,301            | 761,023                      | ..               | 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Total.....        | \$104,824,304      | \$100,030,571                | 4 $\frac{1}{2}$  | ...              |

## DEBT OF SPAIN.

The total of the Spanish debt is 13,388,105,794 reals, or about £140,000,000 sterling. The interest paid for it is, however, according to the budget, only about £2,400,000 sterling per annum. This is so, because part of it does not bear any interest at all, and because the interest on another part is very small. The principal Spanish securities in which speculation is now taking place are of three kinds:—The consolidated, (interior and foreign,) the deferred, and the passive. The consolidated bears 3 per cent interest; the deferred pays at present  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, but is to increase every two years  $\frac{1}{4}$  per cent until it bears 3; the passive bears no interest at all, but is being gradually bought up by the government at the lowest price it can get accepted below par; so that the securities becoming every year rarer, will naturally become every year dearer, whereby those persons who hold longest will be benefited most.

## PAPER MONEY OF EUROPE.

The *Statistical Annual* of OTTO HUBNER, of Berlin, gives the following as the amount of paper issues by the governments of Europe, and also those of the banks, on the 1st of January, 1859:—

|                             | Government issues. | Bank issues. |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| Great Britain .....         | thalers            | 250,000,000  |
| France.....                 | .....              | 170,000,000  |
| Germany—                    |                    |              |
| Anhalt-Dessau .....         | 800,000            | 3,000,000    |
| Anhalt Bernburg .....       | 250,000            | .....        |
| Baden .....                 | 1,200,000          | .....        |
| Bavaria .....               | .....              | 4,600,000    |
| Brunswick.....              | 400,000            | 2,000,000    |
| City of Frankfurt .....     | .....              | 2,500,000    |
| Hanover .....               | 200,000            | 2,000,000    |
| Hesse-Cassel.....           | 1,800,000          | .....        |
| Hesse-Darmstadt.....        | 2,000,000          | .....        |
| Holstein .....              | 1,800,000          | .....        |
| Lippe-Schaumburg.....       | .....              | 300,000      |
| City of Lubeck.....         | .....              | 300,000      |
| Mecklenburg.....            | .....              | 500,000      |
| Nassau.....                 | .....              | 800,000      |
| Austria.....                | .....              | 250,000,000  |
| Prussia.....                | 16,000,000         | 70,000,000   |
| Principality of Reuss.....  | 300,000            | .....        |
| Saxony.....                 | 7,000,000          | 6,500,000    |
| The Four Saxon Duchies..... | 2,100,000          | 5,000,000    |
| Schwarzburg.....            | 200,000            | .....        |
| Waldeck .....               | 400,000            | .....        |
| Wurtemberg.....             | 1,700,000          | .....        |
| Denmark.....                | .....              | 15,000,000   |
| Greece.....                 | .....              | 500,000      |
| Holland.....                | 6,000,000          | 57,000,000   |
| States of the Church .....  | 4,000,000          | 1,000,000    |
| Naples.....                 | 2,000,000          | 2,000,000    |
| Portugal .....              | 7,000,000          | 3,100,000    |
| Russia.....                 | 840,000,000        | 14,300,000   |
| Sardinia.....               | .....              | 8,000,000    |
| Sweden and Norway.....      | .....              | 27,000,000   |
| Switzerland.....            | .....              | 2,500,000    |
| Spain.....                  | .....              | 11,000,000   |
| Tuscany .....               | .....              | 1,000,000    |
| Turkey.....                 | 18,000,000         | .....        |
| Total .....                 | 973,000,000        | 909,900,000  |

The total bank and government issues is here shown to be 1,822,900,000 Prussian thalers ; at 72 cents per Prussian thaler this would be \$1,312,488,000, nearly seven times the amount of paper money in circulation in the United States. The banks and governments circulate, it will be seen, about an equal amount, though the circulation of Austria, 250,000,000 thalers, which is put down as bank issue, more properly belongs under the head of government issue, since the bank is directed and supported by edicts compelling the people to recognize and circulate the notes. The last monthly return of the national bank shows a specie reserve of scarcely one-eighth.

The total specie currency of Europe amounts to about \$1,700,000,000.

OHIO CANALS.

Annexed is the exhibit of the receipts and disbursements on the public works of Ohio, for the year ending November 15th, 1859, and a comparative statement of the same for the year ending November 15th, 1858 :—

|                            | 1858.     |           | 1859.     |           |
|----------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
|                            | Receipts. | Payments. | Receipts. | Payments. |
| Ohio Canal.....            | \$101,606 | \$131,374 | \$71,443  | \$83,655  |
| Miami and Erie Canal.....  | 146,969   | 162,836   | 114,238   | 120,714   |
| Muskingum Improvement..... | 17,308    | 22,348    | 18,275    | 18,335    |
| Hocking Canal.....         | 16,678    | 24,787    | 17,301    | 10,524    |
| Walhonding Canal.....      | 472       | 175       | 475       | 2,711     |
| National Road.....         | .....     | .....     | 5,551     | 3,012     |
| W. R. & M. Road.....       | 2,273     | 477       | 2,187     | 4,270     |
| Other sources.....         | 65        | 6,722     | 10,438    | 9,731     |
| Totals.....                | \$285,366 | \$383,384 | \$239,907 | \$252,952 |
| Excess of expenses.....    | .....     | 98,018    | .....     | 18,044    |

Other payments connected with leases and contracts swell the excess of expenses to \$97,075, for 1859.

MONEY NO REMITTANCE.

A suit involving the question whether money sent in a registered letter is a remittance, was recently decided in New York. EDWARD MORRISON sued the Farmers' Bank of North Carolina for \$250, the product of a draft collected, and which was sent to him in a registered letter, but not received. The court held that, as the defendant was not authorized to remit money instead of drafts, as is the usual custom, the money mailed to the address of the plaintiff could not be considered payment, and the defendant was therefore liable in the action. The jury found for the plaintiff accordingly.

ZOLLVEREIN REVENUES.

The receipts of the Zollverein during the first six months of the present year were \$11,495,000, (£1,650,000,) against \$13,268,000 (£1,900,000) in the same period of 1858. The falling off is attributable to the stagnation of commerce caused by the war in Italy. The principal decrease in the imports was in raw sugar, iron, both manufactured and unmanufactured, coffee, and unbleached cotton goods. The importation of unmanufactured tobacco has increased rather largely.

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**STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.**


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**COMMERCIAL LAW.**


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There appears to be a strong and growing desire among the commercial classes for some more direct and simple mode of adjusting differences that arise in commerce, than in the present very unsatisfactory mode through the law courts. This want was long since felt in most of the commercial countries of Europe, and in France a remedy has been applied in the establishment of tribunals of commerce with power to decide cases, and the working of this system has been found very satisfactory. Thus the operations for the years 1855 and 1856 were as follows :—

|           | New cases. | -----Before----- |               | Settled dur-  |
|-----------|------------|------------------|---------------|---------------|
|           |            | Tribunals.       | Civil courts. | ing the year. |
| 1855..... | 197,821    | 179,785          | 29,218        | 200,002       |
| 1856..... | 202,726    | 183,481          | 30,581        | 203,521       |

In addition to the new cases there were remaining over in 1855 11,182 from the previous year, and in 1856 10,541 cases remained over. Of the cases settled in each year, about 25 per cent were defended. This system reduces litigation, and by keeping the calendar clear admits a prompt justice, very different from the results obtainable elsewhere.

In France the Chamber of Commerce is a committee of seven merchants, elected from the whole body of an assembly of merchants at the Exchange, who are called deputies. They are, in fact, a deputation of commerce, and as such they are the legal organ of the Exchange with the government. The Chamber of Commerce has members sitting, with a vote, on such public board as have anything to do with commerce, such as the Board of Navigation, of Customs and Excise, Post-office, Emigrant-office, and other administrations. They also recommend the appointment of foreign consuls. The Chamber of Commerce meets weekly at their rooms at the Exchange, and oftener if required.

The members retire annually by seniority of election. The senior member but one presides ; the senior member sits on the president's right, and gives advice.

The Tribunal of Commerce generally names one of its members a *Juge Commissaire*, to preside over everything that takes place relative to bankruptcy. By the code, the whole jurisdiction in bankruptcy is vested in the Tribunals of Commerce. According to the French law, there are two kinds of bankruptcy ; there is the commercial bankruptcy, and some persons, otherwise subject to the civil courts, may become bankrupt ; and there is the discomfiture, which goes before the civil tribunals. All those engaged in trade and licensed as traders, who fail to pay their debts, become bankrupt, and are subject to the Tribunal of Commerce.

The preliminaries of a suit before the French tribunals are performed by *agrees*, who are, in a legal class, attached to the tribunals, and somewhat similar to solicitors in this country. Sometimes, when the sum is very important, the parties have recourse to a barrister, and the barrister may plead ; but, according to law, the person who appears before the tribunal must have a power of attorney from the complainant or defendant.

At Bordeaux, the parties are sometimes referred by the tribunal to one of the judges, who, as arbitrator, generally effects a compromise between them. In Belgium there is compulsory arbitration respecting adjustments between partners. The tribunal refers them to arbitration. Voluntary arbitration, independently of the tribunal, is rarely resorted to. In France, however, it is very general. The practice generally is to make either the President of the Tribunal of Commerce, or the President of the Court Imperial, or sometimes another individual, nominate the third arbitrator if the parties cannot agree. In Hamburg, all contracts for grain have on their backs a printed stipulation containing a clause of arbitration, in case of difference respecting quality or otherwise.

Of the whole number of disputes, more than one-half are thus settled. They are arranged, they are dropped, and the cases die a natural death. In 1857, there were in Hamburg 2,740 decisions, 132 appeals, and there were held 1,331 commissions, in which 1,074 cases were amicably settled.

At Bordeaux, if both parties prefer to go to a civil court, they can do so; but if either party prefer the Tribunal of Commerce, he can require the case to be decided there. There is no limitation of amount in regard to such tribunals in France. They take cognizance of everything which is of a commercial character, or which is done for the purpose of profit. When the disputes are not of a commercial nature, or the tribunal is otherwise incompetent, the defendant, or the party who has an interest in appealing, can appeal. But such cases seldom happen, not one in a thousand. Even where a very large sum is in dispute, provided the case be of a commercial character, the parties generally commence their proceedings before the Tribunal of Commerce. The competence of the Tribunals of Commerce extends over all commercial suits, that is, over all disputes arising between traders, or arising between one party being a trader and the other not, he being a defendant. The limit of the jurisdiction in Belgium, from which there is no appeal is £80, except it be a question of competency. Even if the dispute be not among merchants, wherever it has profit for its end, it may be brought before the Commercial Court Judges. The tribunal at Bordeaux is composed of a president, six judges, and four assistant-judges. The judges are selected from among the whole commercial community, by a select list of voters taken from the first, and the heads of the commercial firms of Bordeaux, 120 in number. The number is made out by the prefect, and, therefore, it is in the hands of the crown. The *Code de Commerce* indicates the qualifications of those voters. Paragraph 618 gives the definition of the qualification:—"The Judges and Assistant-Judges of the Tribunals of Commerce shall be elected in an assembly composed of leading merchants, and principally of the chiefs of commercial houses of the longest standing, and most to be commended for their honesty, spirit of order, and general good management." In Bordeaux there was a good attendance of judges. The judges are elected for two years, and may be re-elected. New men are elected as assistant-judges, and are afterwards promoted to be judges. The functions of the judge are purely honorary; still, in Bordeaux, the position was coveted. The office of Judge of the Tribunal of Commerce is looked upon as one of great honor, and men actively engaged in business are anxious to become judges, though unpaid.

At Brussels, there are one president, eight judges, and eight assistant judges. The judges are elected by ballot, by a certain number of merchants taken out of

the totality of the merchants of the District of Brussels. The list is formed by the provincial administration of government.

The number of electors is twenty-five, in districts under 15,000 souls, and it is increased one per thousand above that number. In the election of the members of the tribunal the sitting judges preside. They convene together all the electors and the election is made by ballot. The president calls the names of the electors, and each elector goes with the paper folded up, and hands it to the president, who puts it into an urn, and that is all. The government never interferes in the election of judges.

#### THE WHALE TRADE.

The *Boston Journal* publishes the following interesting information in reference to the whale fisheries:—In 1834 the whole number of vessels engaged in this business was about 700, of which 400, or four sevenths, were American vessels, and 300, or three-sevenths, were foreign; so that 25 years ago, American enterprise was ahead of the rest of the world as four to three. In 1859 the whole number is estimated at 900, of which 661 are American, and 239 foreign, showing American enterprise still more in the ascendant; for we have added 261 ships to our fleet, a gain of 65 per cent; while our competitors have fallen off 61 ships, a loss of 60 per cent.

In the value of the catch, the increase is still greater, being about \$12,300,000 in 1859, against \$4,500,000 in 1834—about 175 per cent. This, however, is in a great measure owing to the advanced value of oil and bone, the comparative statement of the quantities being as follows:—

|                     | 1834.     | 1859.     |
|---------------------|-----------|-----------|
| Sperm oil.....bbls. | 95,000    | 192,300   |
| Whale oil.....      | 146,500   | 153,800   |
| Bone.....lbs.       | 1,175,000 | 1,538,000 |

But it is also in part owing to the great relative increase of sperm oil taken—over 100 per cent—while the increase of whales is only 5 per cent.

Of the ships employed in this business, from this country, nearly, if not quite, four-fifths are owned in and fitted from Massachusetts ports, producing to that State an annual income of about \$10,000,000, giving employment to 12,000 seamen, and as many landmen, besides yielding a large profit on the invested capital.

The pursuit of whales in all latitudes, including the very extremes of heat and cold on the same cruise, is the most hazardous, and, with occasional exceptions, the most tedious of any occupation men are engaged in. It requires courage, skill, endurance, and tenacity of purpose, to insure success, more than are necessary in any other vocation. Scarcely any other voyage requires a year, and every man knows when he ships where he is going, just what he shall have to do, and when he will be back again; but the whaler only knows that he is off to the uttermost parts of the Southern Ocean, probably not for less than two, and possibly for four years; it may be to come home with a goodly sum to his credit for his share of the spoils, or with not enough to pay half the common seaman's wages in the mean time; for months at times to roll lazily about on the ocean, with not enough to do to keep the blood in circulation, and then to be roused all at once to stretch every nerve to the highest pitch, and enter with all his soul

into the most ardent pursuit of the most dangerous game. But these very uncertainties, hazards, and shifting scenes, are suited to our people, and it is therefore easier to fit out and man a whaler from our ports than from any other port in the world. The old Bay State may well be proud of her whaling fleet, of the enterprising merchants who own the ships, of the steady, skillful men who command, and the host of gallant seamen who man them. She may boast of her manufactures, of her commerce, of her schools and her charities, but either or all of these may be matched by others; while no other State, no other nation in the world, can show anything to compare with her whale catchers. Success attend them! In this business, which pre-eminently requires all the great qualities requisite to make up a true man, she stands out alone, far above all competition.

In addition to the foregoing statements the *Scientific American* remarks, that in 1820 the number of ships in England and Scotland engaged in the whale fisheries of the Arctic seas was 156, the amount of oil obtained yearly was 18,725 tons, and whalebone 902 tons. Owing to the increased difficulty of catching whales, and the rapid extension of lighting streets and factories with gas, the whaling business was afterwards almost extinguished. The old vessels were sold for carrying coal, and an immense amount of property was sacrificed. Within the last few years, however, the business seems to be growing up again, even though vast quantities of coal oil are now made and sold. It is believed that the whale oil, especially sperm, is still superior to all other unguents for the lubrication of machinery; hence, as vast quantities are required for railroads and other purposes, there is much to incite persons to engage in the whale fishing. Within the past few years the whale fisheries of Hull, (the New Bedford of Old England,) have put steam into requisition for whaling, and several ocean ships are now engaged in the Greenland and Davis' Straits fisheries. Auxiliary steam engines were first put into some of the old wooden ships, and this was found advantageous; then some iron screw steamers were tried, but they were built so weak that they could not stand the rough encounter with icebergs. The Chase, a strong American built ship of 558 tons, was bought two years ago by a company in Hull, and fitted with steam engines of 80 horse power, and her first voyage last year, (1858) was very successful to her owners. The use of steam enables British whalers to make one voyage to Greenland and another to Davis' Straits in one season, and it thus has advantages, but we do not think it would be very economical for the long voyages of our whalers to the Pacific. The town of Hull which sent out 60 ships to the whale fishing in 1818, with crews of 40 men each, does not send more than 20 ships to-day; hence, we may well say, Americans are the whale fishers of the world.

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#### SALES OF GOODS IN VIRGINIA.

The Richmond *Whig* has the following very interesting extracts from the report of Col. BENNETT, Auditor of Public Accounts, prepared for the Legislature, showing the aggregate sales of goods in Virginia, and the license tax. The Auditor states:—

I have compiled the following, showing the number of merchants under classification and their aggregate sales, as well as the percentage on each class for licenses, for the year 1858, and their separate sales:—

| Amount paid by each class.   | No. of merchants under each class. | Percent-<br>age. | Average sales by act 15 March, 1856.<br>or less. | Whole amount of goods sold in the State. |
|--|------------------------------------|------------------|--|--|
| Of those who pay \$20 specific tax, }<br>& whose sales are under \$1,000.. } | 2,296                              | 2.               | \$1,000  | \$2,696,000                              |
| Those who pay \$24 .....   | 429                                | 1.92             | 1,250  | 536,250                                  |
| “ “ 32.....  | 614                                | 1.60             | 2,000  | 1,228,000                                |
| “ “ 48.....  | 903                                | 1.28             | 3,750  | 3,386,250                                |
| Specific tax of \$60, and the average }<br>estimated..... }                  | 615                                | 1.20             | 5,000  | 3,075,000                                |
| Specific tax and do. of \$76.....  | 624                                | 1.01             | 7,500  | 4,680,000                                |
| “ “ 96.....  | 264                                | .77              | 12,500   | 3,300,000                                |
| “ “ 112.....   | 155                                | .64              | 17,500   | 2,712,000                                |
| “ “ 140.....   | 148                                | .56              | 25,000   | 3,700,000                                |
| “ “ 208.....   | 74                                 | .52              | 40,000   | 2,960,000                                |
| “ “ 268.....   | 112                                | .233             | 115,000  | 12,880,000                               |
| Who pay \$208, and \$10 on each<br>\$10,000 above that sum.....              |                                    |                  |  |  |
| Total number .....   | 6,634                              |                  |  | \$41,154,000                             |

It will appear from this table, that there are 6,634 merchants of all classes in this State, and that the total amount of their sales from these data, is \$41,154,000; from which the State collects the sum of \$313,976 34, or a percentage of about three-fourths of one per cent for the privilege of selling this amount of goods, wares, and merchandise. It will further appear that 2,600 persons pay two per cent at least, on their sales, whilst 112 persons, who sell in the aggregate \$12,880,000, pay less than one-fourth of one per cent on their sales. This argues, and I think establishes, an injustice to the small and feeble trader, which demands relief. It may be very readily and judiciously avoided, by simply attaching the same percentage on all sides, as the basis of taxation. This is in accordance with the principles of our constitution, and in accordance with the acknowledged theory of taxation. The amount of sales of goods in the State is a very interesting statistical feature, and one, we believe, that has not before been given to the public. The New York Mercantile Agency reported last year the number of failures, and the amount of liabilities in all the States. If we compare these returns with the above, we have results as follows:—

|                       | 1858.        | Failures.   |             |
|-----------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
|                       |              | 1858.       | 1857.       |
| Number merchants..... | 6,634        | 269         | 120         |
| Amount sales.....     | \$41,154,000 | \$2,682,925 | \$1,763,000 |

The number of failures was 4 per cent of the whole in 1858, and the liabilities 6 per cent of the sales.

#### RICE EXPORT FROM SAVANNAH AND CHARLESTON.

The exports of rice from Savannah and Charleston for the past year were as follows:—

|                       | Charleston.     |         |                 |         | Savannah.       |        |
|-----------------------|-----------------|---------|-----------------|---------|-----------------|--------|
|                       | 1858.           |         | 1859.           |         | 1858.           | 1859.  |
|                       | Rough, bushels. | Casks.  | Rough, bushels. | Casks.  | Rough, bushels. | Casks. |
| To Great Britain..... | 21,175          | 5,375   | 18,671          | 3,831   | 204             | 7      |
| North of Europe ..... | 63,445          | 9,800   | 64,487          | 10,975  | .....           | .....  |
| France.....           | .....           | 4,577   | .....           | 4,109   | .....           | .....  |
| West Indies .....     | .....           | 12,620  | .....           | 17,246  | 6,886           | 6,729  |
| Other foreign.....    | .....           | .....   | .....           | .....   | 94              | 420    |
| Total foreign .....   | 64,630          | 32,472  | 83,158          | 36,158  | 7,284           | 7,296  |
| Coastwise.....        | 40,406          | 95,874  | 37,206          | 99,057  | 24,064          | 30,501 |
| Total .....           | 105,036         | 128,346 | 120,364         | 135,215 | 31,348          | 37,797 |

LUMBER EXPORTS OF SAVANNAH AND CHARLESTON.

The exports of lumber from September 1st to August 31st, from Charleston and Savannah, were comparatively as follows:—

|                            | Savannah.  |            | Charleston. |            |
|----------------------------|------------|------------|-------------|------------|
|                            | 1859.      | 1858.      | 1859.       | 1858.      |
| To Great Britain.....feet  | 18,229,713 | 10,510,206 | 393,606     | 169,293    |
| St. John's and Halifax.... | 1,727,529  | 1,102,074  | 20,614      | 910,721    |
| West Indies.....           | 3,012,204  | 3,595,765  | 1,668,173   | 3,981,691  |
| Other foreign ports.....   | 6,331,736  | 4,403,136  | 3,465,058   | 2,296,885  |
| Total foreign ports ....   | 29,301,182 | 19,611,391 | 5,447,478   | 6,348,903  |
| To Maine .....             | 726,256    | 756,435    | .....       | .....      |
| Massachusetts.....         | 1,109,109  | 1,997,902  | .....       | 1,212,471  |
| Rhode Island.....          | 140,900    | .....      | 1,828,549   | 1,052,938  |
| New York.....              | 3,896,678  | 3,154,032  | 785,052     | 2,150,888  |
| Philadelphia.....          | 515,569    | 954,195    | 1,147,386   | 892,400    |
| Baltimore and Norfolk ...  | 707,855    | 181,930    | 2,294,966   | 2,901,379  |
| Other ports.....           | 2,295,193  | 1,709,721  | 777,801     | 753,162    |
| Total coastwise. ....      | 9,396,560  | 8,754,065  | 6,833,354   | 8,923,225  |
| Grand total ....           | 38,697,742 | 28,365,656 | 12,280,832  | 15,312,128 |

BRITISH COLONIAL TRADE.

A "Blue Book" has just been published, consisting of statistical tables relating to the colonial and other possessions of the United Kingdom. It appears from this publication that the trade of the East Indies greatly surpasses in extent that of any other dependency of the British Empire. In the last year of which we have any regular official account, the value of the imports into British India was £28,608,284, of which large amount £16,739,897 was from the United Kingdom. In the same year (1857) the exports amounted to £26,591,877, of which £10,635,607 was to the United Kingdom. Thus the whole trade of India amounted to more than £55,000,000.

Next in importance was the trade with the Australian colonies, including New Zealand and Tasmania. The united value of the imports of these colonies was £25,823,283, of which £16,282,022 was from the United Kingdom. The value of the exports of the Australian colonies was £22,954,033, of which £14,653,370 was to the United Kingdom. The whole trade of these colonies approached £49,000,000.

It will be observed that whilst the population of British India exceeds that of Australia in the proportion of at least ten to one, the proportion of the commerce of the former to that of the latter is not quite as eight to seven. The cause of this discrepancy is very obvious. It is also obvious that the joint annual commerce of these two colonies or dependencies (£104,000,000) depends for its successful development and management, in a great measure, upon the Straits of Gibraltar remaining a free highway, and the Mediterranean Sea an open one.

Next in extent and importance was the trade with the five colonies of British America. The imports into these extensive and flourishing colonies amounted to £13,412,237, of which £5,743,962 was from the United Kingdom. The value

of the exports from these colonies was £9,807,084, of which £3,470,796 was to the United Kingdom.

The trade with the fifteen colonies of the West Indies is next in amount—the imports of the whole having been £3,716,892, of which £1,233,690 was from the United Kingdom; and the exports reached the sum of £2,797,488, of which £2,306,618 was to Great Britain.

In addition to these great *groupes* of colonies the trade of several of the *detached* ones was very considerable. Thus, for instance, the imports into the island of Ceylon were in value £3,106,661, of which £631,368 was from Great Britain. The exports amounted to £2,588,460, of which £1,348,614 came to the United Kingdom. The Cape of Good Hope received £2,637,192, of which £1,911,122 was from the United Kingdom, which received £1,426,614, out of the amount of £1,988,406 sent from this colony.

The trade with the Mauritius and with Malta was scarcely less extensive than that with the Cape of Good Hope; and that with the Ionian Islands was about half as much.

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#### ANTHRACITE COAL TRADE.

Some time since, M. TARDIEU, an ingenious French mechanic, brought forward a method for the economic conversion of small or slack anthracite into a very superior coke, for locomotive and metallurgical purposes. Experiments to the extent of upwards of four hundred tons have been successfully made in different parts of France, the product being, in every case, an excellent article of coke, possessing more carbon and freer from earthy matter than that made from bituminous coal. The process simply consists of the mechanical admixture previous to coking, of small anthracite with pulverized bituminous coal, in the proportion of four-fifths of the former to one-fifth of the latter. The yield of coke is upwards of eighty per cent, by this method, while the average yield of that from common French bituminous coal is under sixty per cent. The superiority of this coke for metallurgical purposes has, it is stated, been conclusively established by a series of careful experiments, and it is believed that it may be made profitably available for locomotive purposes.

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#### JAPAN TRADE.

The *Washington Constitution* remarks:—We are gratified to learn that the American flag is beginning to appreciate, and already enjoys in so large a degree as to take us quite by surprise, the incalculable advantages which the opening of Japan to foreign commerce is destined to bestow, as well upon the empire of Japan itself, as upon those nations that may engage in the extensive and valuable trade which the natural and manufacturing resources of that country are so capable of supporting. During the brief period of three months, ending on the 30th of last June, there entered the port of Hakodadi not less than 30. United States vessels, measuring an aggregate of ten thousand nine hundred and five tons, of which twenty-eight were whalers, laden, or partly laden, with cargoes of oil, bone, whaling materials, &c. They did not land any considerable cargoes, having called for supplies, provisions, and recruits, and perhaps, in some instances, for the purpose of gaining practical information in regard to the re-

quirements and peculiarities of the Japanese markets. After remaining in port two or three weeks, they again put to sea, most of them bound on a whaling cruise in the Ochotsk Sea. Two of the thirty vessels that entered—one a bark from Boston, owned by H. A. PIERCE, of that city, measuring 275 tons; the other a schooner, from San Francisco, owned by K. TURNER, of that place, of 131 tons, and both laden with general merchandise—cleared for the Amoor River, along which American enterprise, aided by the liberal and enlightened policy of Russia, is already achieving great commercial triumphs.

PERUVIAN GUANO.

QUANTITY EXTRACTED AND SOLD FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF OPERATIONS IN 1841.

The following summary is translated and condensed from an official document published at Lima in 1858, entitled "Memoria de los ramos de Hacienda y Comercio," (Memoir relative to Finances and Commerce:)—

From the year 1841, the commencement of the extraction of guano at the Chincha Islands, to the end of 1856, embracing a period of sixteen years, the total quantity of guano removed amounted to 1,967,079 tons, of which there was sold 1,626,405 tons; 23,885 tons were damaged, and 316,789 tons still in market. The total amount of sales was \$100,263,519 75. The expense of extracting and management amounted to \$61,008,884 87½, the net product of sales being \$39,254,637 81½.

The following statement shows the movement in 1857. During this year there was extracted 472,965 tons, to which is to be added 316,789 tons remaining in warehouse, making in all, ready for market, 789,754 tons; of this quantity 304,589 tons were sold, of which 19,156 tons were damaged, and 466,009 tons still in market.

The gross product of sales during the year, including commissions, exchange, and interest, reached the sum of \$12,508,016 81½. A considerable increase in the quantity of guano extracted is recorded for 1857; and of this increase the large share was, as usual, exported to England. The exportation to France also experienced an increase this year.

The number of vessels engaged in the carrying trade of Peruvian guano in 1857, will be seen from the following statement:—

|                          | Vessels. | Tons.   |
|--------------------------|----------|---------|
| United States flag ..... | 199      | 211,828 |
| British flag.....        | 281      | 206,740 |
| French flag .....        | 37       | 20,223  |
| Swedish flag .....       | ..       | 11,857  |
| Hanse Towns flag .....   | ..       | 10,742  |
| Belgian flag....         | ..       | 8,607   |

Besides the above, the Sardinian, Danish, Mecklenburg, Peruvian, Norwegian, Prussian, Russian, Oldenburgh, Chilian, and Hanoverian flags share, to some extent, in the carrying trade of the Chincha Islands.

In consequence of the rescinding of the contract with the house of Montaire & Co., for the sale of guano in France and in the French colonies, the agency of the French Empire was awarded to Messrs. Gibbs, of London, the consignees in England, Belgium, Germany, and Italy. The contract with this firm bears date February 26, 1858, and expires in four years.

The document from which the foregoing facts are derived, does not give the statistics for the year 1858, but for the first six months it shows that there was 169,580 tons extracted, to which is to be added the stock on hand at the commencement of the year, consisting of 466,009 tons, making in all, in the market, 635,589 tons; of this there was sold, up to June 30, 1858, 66,607 tons, yielding in value \$3,202,059 18½.

In conclusion, the total quantity of guano in market from 1841 to June 30, 1858, was 1,997,601 tons, and the net value \$54,994,712.

The preceding figures derive additional interest from the fact that owing to the heavy foreign debt of Peru and other causes, official exhibits of the guano trade of that republic have hitherto been difficult of access, and generally not altogether reliable.

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#### TRADE OF SCINDE.

From a return on the external trade of Scinde for the year 1858-59, ending April 30, 1859, we find that the total value of the trade for the year mentioned is estimated at 2,58,48,784 rs., on imports 1,54,06,058, and exports 1,04,42,726; for the year immediately preceding, the total value of the trade was 2,15,92,298, imports 1,08,11,012, and exports 1,07,81,286, thus showing an increase in the value of the trade for 1858-59 to the extent of 42,56,486. This increase is almost entirely owing to larger importations from England, direct, and from Bombay. The increase in the value of the import trade amounts to 45,95,046, or about 42 per cent in excess of that of the previous year. The imports are classified as follows:—For 1858-59, merchandise, 1,43,86,874; treasure, 10,19,184; and for 1857-58, merchandise, 91,47,909; treasure, 16,63,103. The increase, therefore, in merchandise, has been 52,38,965 rs., while there has been a decrease in treasure to the extent of 6,13,919. In the imports in the trade of Scinde there has been a great increase from England, Bombay, Concan, Goa and Demaun, Guzerat, Malabar, Mekran, Moulmein, and Persian Gulf. The principal items of increased imports from England are apparel, books and stationery, malt liquor, military appointments, metals manufactured, oilmen's stores, railway materials, spirits, wines, woollen piece-goods, cotton piece-goods, cabinet-ware, saddlery, and glass-ware.

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#### TRICKS OF THE PORK TRADE.

The Cincinnati brand of pork and bacon, having a character and a standing in all the leading markets of the country, above all others, its integrity should be protected with jealous care by those interested in the trade; and when the tricks of adventurers, or "sharp" operators become known, it is but just and right they should be exposed.

Last season, owing to the great difficulty which existed in making "both ends meet," consequent upon the high prices paid for hogs, some instances of sharp practice was developed, which, to say the least, are highly reprehensible.

It is the custom with our leading packers, in packing mess pork, to put 190 lbs. in each barrel, which, when salted, will weigh out 210 pounds to 220 pounds, according to the quality of the meat; but in many cases, however, irresponsible packers are in the habit of putting only 180 lbs. in each barrel, so that the buyer of such is cheated out of 10 to 15 pounds of meat, which makes quite a margin for the dishonest packer.

Another trick is practiced to some extent, namely:—"marking up" the weight of casks of bacon 5 to 10 pounds, according to circumstances, and calling this "soakage" when reclamation is claimed.

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**JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.**

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**NEW YORK INSURANCE LAW.**

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH AN INSURANCE DEPARTMENT. PASSED APRIL 15, 1859,  
THREE-FIFTHS BEING PRESENT.

The people of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows :—

SEC. 1. There is hereby established a separate and distinct department, which shall be charged with the execution of the laws heretofore passed, or that may be hereafter passed, in relation to insurance.

SEC. 2. The chief officer of said department shall be denominated the Superintendent of the Insurance Department. He shall be appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice of the Senate, and shall hold his office for the term of three years. He shall receive an annual salary of two thousand five hundred dollars, to be paid quarterly. He shall employ, from time to time, the necessary clerks to discharge such duty as he shall assign them, whose compensation shall be paid to them monthly, on his certificate, and upon the warrant of the Controller. He shall appoint one of the said clerks to be his deputy, who shall possess the powers and perform the duties attached by law to the office of principal during a vacancy in such office, and during the absence or inability of his principal. Within fifteen days from the time of notice of their appointment, respectively, the Superintendent and his deputy shall take and subscribe the oath of office prescribed by the constitution, and file the same in the office of the Secretary of State, and the said officers shall be, in all respects, subject to the provisions of the sixth title of chapter five of the first part of the revised statutes, so far as the same may be applicable; and the said Superintendent of the Insurance Department shall give to the people of the State of New York a bond, in the penalty of ten thousand dollars, with two sureties, to be approved of by the Controller, conditioned for the faithful discharge of the duties of his office; and the said Superintendent shall not, either directly or indirectly, be interested in any Insurance Company.

SEC. 3. The Superintendent of the Insurance Department shall possess all the powers, perform all the duties, and be subjected to all the obligations and penalties now conferred by law upon the Controller of the State, or to which the Controller is subject, in relation to Insurance Companies and the formation thereof, under the laws relating thereto, so that every power and duty thereby conferred on the Controller shall, from and after the appointment of such Superintendent, be transferred to, and conferred upon, the said Superintendent. In addition to the requirements of the laws of eighteen hundred and fifty-three, relating to the annual reports relative to insurance, the Superintendent shall be required to report the names and compensation of the clerks employed by him, and the whole amount of expenses of the department during the year; such report shall be made by or before the first day of March, and fifteen hundred copies for the use of the Superintendent, and the usual number of copies for the use of the Legislature, shall be printed by the printer employed to print legislative documents.

SEC. 4. The said Superintendent, with the approval of the Governor, shall devise a seal, with suitable inscriptions, for his office, a description of which, with a certificate of approval by the Governor, shall be filed in the office of the Secretary of State, with an impression thereof, which seal shall thereupon be and become the seal of office of the Superintendent of the Insurance Department, and the same may be renewed whenever necessary. Every certificate, assignment, or conveyance executed by said Superintendent, in pursuance of any authority conferred on him by law, and sealed with his said seal of office, shall be received as evidence, and may be recorded in the proper recording offices in the same man-

ner, and with the like effect as a deed regularly acknowledged or proved before an officer authorized by law to take the proof or acknowledgment of deeds; and all copies of papers in the office of the said Superintendent, certified by him, and authenticated by the said seal, shall, in all cases, be evidence equally, and in like manner, as the original. An impression of said seal directly on paper, shall be as valid as if made on a wafer or wax.

SEC. 5. All books, papers and documents, securities, stocks, bonds and mortgages, and all other papers whatever in the Controller's office, and in the office of the Secretary of State, relating to the business of insurance, shall, on demand, be delivered and transferred to the Superintendent of the Insurance Department, and be and remain in his charge and custody.

SEC. 6. There shall be assigned to the said Superintendent by the trustees of the State Hall, suitable rooms therein for conducting the business of said department, and the said Superintendent shall, from time to time, furnish the necessary furniture, stationery, fuel, lights, and other proper conveniences for the transaction of the said business, the expenses of which shall be paid on the certificate of the Superintendent, and the warrant of the Controller.

SEC. 7. There shall be paid by every company, association, person or persons, or agent, to whom this act shall apply, the following fees towards paying the expenses of executing this act:—For filing the declaration now required by law, or the certified copy of a charter also now required, the sum of thirty dollars; for filing the annual statement now required, twenty dollars; for every certificate of agency and copy of statement, three dollars; for every copy of paper filed in his office, the sum of ten cents per folio; and for affixing the seal of said office to such copy, and certifying the same, one dollar. In case the expenses of said department shall exceed the amount of fees collected under this act, and paid into the State treasury, (exclusive of the tax upon marine premiums,) the excess of such expenses shall be annually assessed by the Superintendent, pro rata, upon all the Stock Insurance Companies of this State; and the said Superintendent is hereby empowered to collect such assessments and pay the same into the State treasury.

SEC. 8. All laws and parts of laws inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed.

SEC. 9. This act shall take effect on the first day of January next.

STATE OF NEW YORK, Secretary's Office.

I have compared the preceding with the original law on the file in this office, and do certify that the same is a correct transcript therefrom, and of the whole of said original.

GIDEON J. TUCKER, *Secretary of State.*

#### WAREHOUSING AND INSURANCE.

The American Chamber of Commerce at Liverpool has lately had under consideration the state of the law as to the right of a shipowner to warehouse and insure goods not claimed in due course by the holder of the bill of lading, and to charge the latter with the rent, premium of fire insurance, and storage expenses, and also, with the ordinary mercantile commission.

Annexed is a summary of a case submitted by order of the chamber to Mr. WILDE, Q. C., a mercantile lawyer of the highest standing, with a full copy of his opinion, from which we perceive that the shipowner can easily recover the warehouse rent and expenses, but not insurance or commission, according to the English view of the case. Considering that cases of this kind are now of constant occurrence, and are likely to become still more frequent with the increase of the transit business, the Liverpool chamber thinks it right to bring the subject, involving as it does the risk of loss by fire in consequence of the property being uninsured, before the mercantile bodies in the ports of the United States,

in order that the parties interested, shippers as well as shipowners, may adopt such measures for their protection as they may deem expedient :—

SUMMARY OF CASE SUBMITTED BY ORDER OF THE AMERICAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AT LIVERPOOL, TO JUSTICE JAMES WILDE, Q. C., AS TO THE RIGHT OF SHIPOWNERS TO CHARGE WAREHOUSING AND STORAGE EXPENSES, INSURANCE AND COMMISSION, ON GOODS NOT CLAIMED IN DUE COURSE.

On the arrival at Liverpool of a ship with a general cargo, it sometimes happens that some of the goods are not claimed, and the shipowner is obliged to warehouse them. To protect his claim for freight, he insures them against fire. As goods are frequently insured aboard by the shipper for some period, say a month after arrival, it may thus happen that the goods are doubly insured. When eventually, the holder of the bill of lading claims delivery, questions arise as to the shipowner's right to be repaid the charges, warehouse rent, and insurance, and to receive a commission for the extra trouble thus incurred.

The holder of the bill of lading denies the shipowner's right on the following grounds :—

1st. That under the bill of lading, which is the only contract, the shipowner is bound to deliver on being paid freight.

2d. That the shipowner has no authority to warehouse the goods.

3d. If under the circumstances the shipowner has authority to warehouse, he has no authority to insure.

4th. That the shipowner cannot claim commission for doing what he was not employed to do.

On the other hand the shipowner contends—

1st. That his contract is only to carry and deliver the goods in due course ; and there is an implied obligation on the part of the shipper or consignee to take delivery in due course, and if through his default it becomes necessary for the shipowner to warehouse the goods, he should not only pay the charges but compensate the shipowner for the trouble forced upon him for the benefit of the owner of the goods.

2d. That, though not necessary, it is a proper precaution for the shipowner to insure against fire, as he cannot know whether the goods are already insured. Further, that it is unreasonable that by the default in not taking delivery the shipowner's lien should be jeopardized by the risk of fire.

QUERIES.

1st. Has the shipowner or his consignee a right, under the circumstances stated, to land and store goods not claimed, and to charge the shipper or his consignee, who may afterwards claim them, with the charges of storing and warehouse rent ? Can he also effect fire insurance, and charge the premium ; and is he entitled also to charge commission ?

2d. Has he, or the warehouse keeper employed by him, a lien on the goods, and can he retain them for payment not only of the freight, but also of the charges above mentioned, or any, and which of them ?

OPINION.

1. I am of opinion that the shipowner is justified, both by law and usage, in protecting the goods by landing and storing them, under the circumstances suggested ; and that the holder of the bill of lading, or the shipper, would be bound to pay the charges so incurred ; but as to fire insurance or commission, I think neither of them are chargeable. Any insurance made by the shipowner is, in truth, made to protect the subject of his own lien, and for his own benefit. It has been quite lately held in the Queen's Bench, that a man could not charge rent for keeping the subject of his lien, and insurance would be going a step farther ; so as to commission, there is no contract for it, and the storing and keeping of the goods is, in truth, done as a collateral duty arising out of the contract of carriage, and remunerated by the freight.

2. I am of opinion that the warehouse keeper has a lien upon the goods for the warehouse rent, but not the other charges.

JAMES WILDE.

LIVERPOOL, Summer Assizes, 1859.

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**POSTAL DEPARTMENT.**


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**DEAD-LETTER OFFICE.**

The Washington *Constitution* makes the following remarks upon the singular contents of the Dead-letter Office :—

We examined yesterday the catalogue of articles which have accumulated in the above named office since 1848. The department has used every effort to restore them to their proper owners, and, being unable to deliver them, they are now to be sold for the postage ; the proceeds, if any, after paying charges, to be deposited in the United States Treasury, subject to order should the proper owners hereafter be found.

The catalogue embraces coats, hats, socks, drawers, gloves, scarfs, suspenders, patent inhaling tube, gold pens, pencils, and all kinds of small jewelry imaginable, undersleeves, fans, handkerchiefs, box of dissecting instruments, pocket bibles, children's dresses, lace collars, books, buttons, cloth purses, slippers, chemises, bed-quilts, boots, shirts, gaffs for game fowls, corn-field hoe, black silk basque, hoods, shawls, gaiters, cigar case, snuff box, spectacles, false teeth, night-caps, brogans, aprons, pantalettes, ear-trumpet, shoulder-braces, silk flag, razors, 100 catechisms, watch chrystals, nipple-glasses, demi-veils, edging, and a thousand other things too numerous to mention. No pawnbroker's shop ever excelled, in variety, the collection of the Dead-letter Office.

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**POSTAL ARRANGEMENTS BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA.**

WASHINGTON, November 3, 1859.

The Postmaster-General has concluded an arrangement with the Canadian Post-office Department by which the mails are to be transported for the sea postage, weekly, between Detroit and Liverpool, *via* Portland, in winter, and the River St. Lawrence in summer.

The service is to commence by the trip of the first steamer outward from Portland on the 26th inst. It is intended to have the mails, or such as may be thereby expected, for and from the Western, Northwestern, and probably some of the Southwestern States, sent in closed bags between Chicago and Detroit on the one side, and Liverpool and London on the other ; and for this purpose, the British Post-office Department has been requested to constitute Chicago and Detroit exchange offices for the United States and British mails.

On the one side of Britain, Cork may also be constituted an exchange office. By the schedule, the time between Portland and Chicago is to be forty-eight hours, and when the service commences there will be an unbroken line of railroad the whole way. This will be a very direct line between the Far West and Europe.

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**HAVANA POST-OFFICE.**

The Consul-General HERR, says the New York *Journal of Commerce* of a late date, has presented to the attention of General CONCHA the subject of a postal arrangement between the United States and Cuba, in which he has been met with equal intelligence and frank affirmation of his views—the details of which are not yet determined for official report and publication ; but it is settled that *all mails* for the United States shall be made up in the consulate of the United States, under the charge of the Consul-General, and be dispatched by him on board of the steamers of the United States or other vessels, from and after the first of November.

## RATES OF POSTAGE BY FRENCH MAIL.

We are requested to state, says the Washington *Constitution*, that letters addressed to Corsica, Japan, Java, Jerusalem, Majorca, Minorca, the Venitian States, and Victoria, may be forwarded from the United States to destination in the French mail; the rates of postage per quarter ounce being as follows, viz. :—

|                      |                                |
|----------------------|--------------------------------|
| To Corsica .....     | 15 cents, prepayment optional. |
| Japan .....          | 30 " " required.               |
| Java .....           | 30 " " required.               |
| Jerusalem.....       | 30 " " optional.               |
| Majorca .....        | 21 " " required.               |
| Minorca .....        | 21 " " required.               |
| Venitian States..... | 27 " " optional.               |
| Victoria .....       | 30 " " required.               |

The postage on a letter over one-quarter but not exceeding half an ounce is double the above rates in each case; and so on, an additional rate being charged for each additional quarter ounce or under.

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 COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.
 

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## COTTON AT NEW ORLEANS.

At the meeting of cotton buyers and cotton brokers held on the 29th October last, and convened for the purpose of devising means to redress certain abuses and grievances existing in connection with the cotton trade of New Orleans, the following resolutions were adopted :—

1st. That the practice followed hitherto by factors of offering for sale dusty and sandy parcels of cotton along with other parcels free from such defects, be discountenanced by buyers; and in order to do this the more effectually, dusty and sandy cotton are hereby declared unmerchable, and factors are recommended to sell them separately on their own merits.

2d. That sellers of cotton shall be held responsible for any just reclamations for false packed cotton, the following clause to that effect being inserted in the broker's sale note and also on every invoice rendered to the buyer, "subject to claims for false packed cotton."

3d. That the practice of the presses of replacing lost bales of cotton without the consent of the owner be tantamount to a fraudulent substitution; that it shall be treated as such and the fact reported to the committee to be hereby appointed for that and other purposes for such action, as the gravity of the case may require, and buyers and shippers of cotton engage themselves to uphold the action of the committee, even if it carry with it the necessity to discontinue receiving cotton at such delinquent press, or so long as it remain under the open or covered control of the offending party.

4th. That the charge of five cents per bale made by the presses on cotton not ordered for shipment the day it is received be no longer paid, provided the shipper gives the compressing order on the day the cotton is received and name the vessel the day following.

5th. That buyers agree not to pay the charge of fifteen cents per bale which the cotton presses attempt to exact from those buyers who wish to remove their cotton uncompressed on the day it is delivered.

6th. That factors shall replace iron hoops with ropes unless a special contract is made to the contrary.

7th. That a standing committee, comprising fifteen cotton brokers, be appointed to take action on any violation of rules adopted at this meeting, and also

to adopt such other rules amongst themselves to secure a more uniform and satisfactory method of receiving cotton.

A resolution reformatory of the method of weighing cotton now in practice was also introduced, but having been carried by a small majority only, it is here omitted, leaving the question open for further action to be taken as soon as practicable.

The rate of drayages charged by the presses has not been touched upon, as by the established city ordinance every buyer has the remedy in his own hands.

The standing committee of fifteen brokers to be appointed in pursuance of the above resolution has been named and will shortly organize.

A document embracing the above resolutions is deposited for signature at the parlor of the Crescent City Bank, and will be left there until Saturday the 19th instant, it being understood that the proposed arrangement shall be binding only if a sufficient number of signatures be obtained. A list of those who will have signed up to the 19th instant will then be made public, and the present arrangement be declared final or left open for further action as the case may be.

|  |              |
|--|--------------|
| AUGUST BOHN, of J. Leedesne & Co.        | } Committee. |
| G. HUBBARD, of Greenleaf & Hubbard.      |              |
| ARMAND HEIN, of A. & M. Heine.           |              |
| GABL. WM. COUVES, of Peter Maxwell & Co. |              |
| J. KRUTTSCHNITT, of Richardson & Co.     |              |

NEW ORLEANS, November 4th, 1859.

#### CLOSING OF THE PORT OF CARTHAGENA, NEW GRANADA.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, November 12, 1859.

The following translation of a resolution closing the port of Carthagena, New Granada, received from the United States Consul at that place, is published for the information of those whom it may concern. The consul states that the port of Savanilla has also been closed, though the fact has not been officially communicated to him:—

##### GRANADIAN CONFEDERATION.—COMMISSION OF TREASURY.

In view of the resolution of the executive power of the confederation of the 12th of September last, by which the ports of this city and Savanilla are ordered to be closed on the 20th of October, in case neither of the two conditions of paragraph second should have taken place; and considering—

1st. That constitutional order has not been re-established in this city.

2d. That the arms and other property of the confederation which were seized by the insurgents of the 15th of August have not been given up, they having been taken from officers of the customs guard and abstracted from the National Arsenal, and the insurgents not having submitted themselves for trial, it is resolved—

Only article. The port of Carthagena is from this date closed to importation and exportation; consequently the officers of the Custom-house and of the customs guard will have to comply with this order in the terms in which it has been notified to them.

Let it be printed, communicated, published, and reported to the Intendant.

MANUEL DEL RIO,  
FELIPE DE PENAREDONDA, Auditino Clerk.

CARTHAGENA, October 20th, 1859.

#### PASSPORTS TO PRUSSIA AND GERMANY.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, November 10, 1859.

Information has been received at this Department, from an official source, that "certificates from notaries in the United States, issued to naturalized or unnaturalized inhabitants, do not confer the right of entrance into Prussia, nor through Prussia into Germany, nor, even with the *visa* of ministers or consuls, would they have any validity as passports. Furthermore, the only passports in the United States which are of any validity are those issued by the General Government at Washington."

## PORT REGULATIONS OF HAVANA.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, November 9, 1859.

Information has been received at this department from THOMAS SAVAGE, Esq., the United States Vice-Consul-General at Havana, of the publication on the 26th ultimo of a decree, of which the following is a translation :—

In compliance with the fifty-first article of the Custom-house regulations, the commercial community are advised for their information and government, that in future, and from and after the 1st day of November, proximo, the clearance register will not be issued to any vessel until the captain or his consignee shall have paid not only the register dues, but also those upon the tonnage. The mail steamers only are excepted, because the rapidity with which they enter and leave allows not time enough for that purpose ; but with the necessary condition that the consignees must settle those liquidations during the days intervening until the return of the steamer, the officers dispatching such registers, as well as the agents of the captains, being held strictly responsible for the exact fulfillment of this regulation.

## TOBACCO AND CORN AT CANARY ISLANDS.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, November 15, 1859.

Information has been received at this Department from BERNARD FORSTALL, Esq., the United States Vice-Consul at Teneriffe, Canary Islands, that, "although the ports in the Canary Islands have been declared free since the year 1851 by the Spanish Government, for all sorts of merchandise imported from foreign countries, yet there are two articles which have been, and still are, subject to a heavy duty—namely, tobacco and corn ; the former paying a fixed duty of five Spanish dollars per one hundred pounds weight from foreign nations ; the latter being regulated by a sliding scale, according to prices in the market of these islands, and generally ranges from seventy-five to one hundred cents per fanega (Spanish measure) of eighty pounds weight of maize, and one hundred pounds (one Spanish quintal) in wheat ; flour in the same proportion in foreign bottoms."

## FREE IMPORTATION OF RYE INTO PORTUGAL.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, October 26, 1859.

The following translation of a decree issued by the Portuguese government for the free importation of rye till the 15th of November next, has been received from the United States Consulate at Oporto, viz :—

GENERAL DIRECTION OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY, AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

Considering the representations that have been addressed to me, and the information about the great scarcity and the high price of rye, which in some districts of the kingdom composes the habitual food of the laboring classes, I, therefore, making use of the authorization conceded to the government by the law of the 3d of June of this year, and having consulted the general council of commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, do decree the free admission of rye by all the ports and ways in the kingdom till the 15th November next.

The minister and secretary of the public works, commerce, and industry, will so understand and make it executed. Palace, 25th August, 1859.

THE KING.

ANTIDE SUPA PIMENTET.

## CUBA TRADE.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, November 4.

Information has been received at this department from THOMAS SAVAGE, Esq., the United States Vice-Consul-General at Havana, of the publication on the 8th of October, of a decree of which the following is a translation :—

1st. The exemptions granted by decree of this government superintendency of the 7th April of the current year, and approved by Her Majesty in the royal or-

der of the 4th of May following—to live cattle of all kinds, as well as to fowls and eggs, that may be imported into the island, are hereby continued for an indefinite time.

2d. The opening of the port of Batabano', resolved by decree of the 10th of said month of May, solely for the commerce in those articles, and likewise approved by royal order of the 7th July last, is continued in the same manner.

3d. The term of four months is designated as the minimum time for terminating the effects of the continuations granted in the foregoing orders, whenever by a change of circumstances, or other measures of a normal and stable character, it may be necessary to order their termination.

These measures will be reported to Her Majesty's government for the definitive resolution that the same may deem proper to adopt.

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#### SPANISH TONNAGE DUTIES.

This Department has been officially advised by the Secretary of State, that by an order of the Spanish Government, vessels of the United States arriving in ports of Spain and adjacent islands, are placed on the footing of national vessels, as regards the duties of port and navigation. In consideration of this exemption, and to prevent any misapprehension with respect to the subject, Spanish vessels arriving in ports of the United States, from Spanish or other foreign ports, (those of Cuba and Porto Rico excepted,) will be permitted to enter on the same footing with vessels of the United States, as regards tonnage duties, light money, and all other dues to the United States, so far as respects the vessels. Spanish vessels arriving in ports of the United States from Cuba or Porto Rico, not being embraced in the foregoing regulation, are specially provided for by the acts of July 13, 1832, and June 30, 1834, and the instructions of the Department in pursuance thereof, which will continue to be enforced as heretofore.

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#### FRENCH TARIFF.

One of the Havre journals calls attention to one of the many absurdities of the French tariff—that on indigo. The import duty on that article is not less than 60 francs the 100 kilogs. when brought in French ships direct from India or other countries in which it is produced, and 480 francs (!) when brought in foreign ships. Moreover, the duty on indigo brought from non-producing countries—say, for example, the United States, Holland, or England, is so exorbitant, that scarcely any importer ever thinks of purchasing it there, however cheap it may be obtained. What makes these excessive duties the more vexatious is, that in the benighted times of Louis XIV., when tariff questions were not at all understood, the great Minister COLBERT contented himself with imposing a duty, equal in present money and present measures, of only about 20 francs the 100 kilogs.

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#### COTTON SEED.

The quantity and value of cotton seed when the oil has been expressed from it, has been computed as follows:—A crop of 3,000,000 bales of cotton as 500 pounds to the bale is 1,800,000,000 pounds of fiber, the cotton seed of which would be 3,960,000,000 pounds, or 1,980,000 tons; 3,960,000,000 pounds is equal to 1,980,000,000 pounds of kernel, which will give 87,120,000 gallons of oil, and 762,800 tons of oil cake. Value 87,120,000 gallons of oil at \$1 per gallon, \$87,120,000; 762,800 tons of oil cake at \$25 per ton, \$19,057,000. Total, \$106,177,000.

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## NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

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### HARBOR ENCROACHMENTS.

A special meeting of the Chamber of Commerce was held in October, to take into consideration the subject of Harbor Deposits and Encroachments. PELATIAH PERRIT, Esq., President, presided. The president having called attention to the evil complained of, Mr. GEO. W. BLUNT, one of the Pilot Commissioners, rose and stated that the washing out of mud and rubbish had become more serious than the Harbor Commissioners had any idea of. The deposits had extended in some places nearly 200 feet. Southwest of the Battery a flat of over 200 yards was forming; another serious flat was forming north of Governor's Island, and the channel between the wharves and Governor's Island had narrowed several hundred feet. Much of this was attributed to the slow progress of the Battery enlargement. He presented the following paper on the subject, being the official report of Lieut.-Com. CRAVEN, U. S. N., to whom had been confided, by Professor BACHE, of the coast survey, the preparation of a chart to illustrate the past and present condition of the harbor.

NEW YORK, September 20.

SIR :—In compliance with your directions in July last, I made an examination of the shoal off the Battery, New York, for the purpose of ascertaining what changes had taken place in that locality, and I herewith submit to you a map of the survey, scale 1-5000, on which I have also had the soundings placed, from the surveys of 1855 and 1856, for comparison.

The soundings of 1855 and 1856 are in red figures, and the curves are also distinctly drawn.

In order to make this discussion as explicit as possible, I divide the shoal into sections, and call your attention to each portion separately; you will be much interested in observing the rapidity with which the shoal is accumulating, and with what regularity the deposits are being made.

SEC. 1. *From Pier No. 1 North River to Castle Garden.* In the angle formed by the line of the Battery and the pier, there has been a very rapid filling up; the three fathom curve has been pushed outward eighty yards beyond the line of 1856; the seventeen feet spot in the outer part of this section is extending towards pier No. 1, and there is an average decrease of THREE FEET in depth throughout this section.

SEC. 2. *Extends to the three fathom curve of 1856.* In this portion of the shoal the change has been not less considerable than in the angle of pier No. 1. The three fathom curve was, in 1856, about seventy-five yards south of the castle. It will be seen that it has extended towards the castle wharf, and embraces a considerable area, where formerly we had five fathoms. Outside of this curve we find in this section a general decrease of five feet in the depth.

SEC. 3. *Embraces the general shoal to the southeastern portion of the curve of three fathoms.* Excepting in the part already indicated, there has been no material change in the general contour of the shoal, but in following the curve to the southernmost point, it will be seen that it has extended about one hundred feet to the southward.

SEC. 4. *Extends from last section to East River Piers.* In calling your attention to this section, I will merely refer to the knoll lying about W. S. W. from pier No. 1, East River. This knoll has eighteen feet water upon it, is very small, and has deep water outside, and close to it. There is no change in depth on the

knoll, but it is extending itself towards the north, and it will be seen that in that direction there is a decrease of two feet in the depth near the shoal.

East of the knoll there is no apparent change. Drawing a wavy line from the last mentioned knoll to Castle Garden, you mark out the eddy waters of this part of the river; the current of the two rivers meeting here at ebb, and dividing at flood; this portion of the stream being too sluggish to carry off matters held in suspension, *they are rapidly and constantly deposited.*

Although from natural causes there must always have been a shoal off this point of the island, its accumulation has been evidently added, *to a startling degree, by the extension of the Battery.* The currents which formerly flowed between the Castle Garden and the shore, made the greater portion of their deposit so near the shores as to cause no great injury to the operations of commerce, and the process of deposit was so gradual that it would have required an interval of many years ere the shoal would have seriously encroached on the waters of the bay. But the Battery extension has already accomplished that which would have required *a half century of the operations of nature,* having pushed the shoal out as the shore line was changed.

In illustration of this assertion, we have but to look at the extraordinary heaping up of the earth in the angle formed by the Battery wall and pier No. 1—a heaping up made by the ebb current of the North River, which, as it comes around the pier is now turned back and forward into eddies by the Battery walls. This current formerly ran through the space now covered by the filling in, and poured the suspended matter into the East River, off Whitehall, from whence it was carried away and distributed in the deep waters of the bay. But now a large portion of the sediment brought down by the ebb is doubtless filling in the space here with great rapidity. Its effects are still more strongly visible in the section off the castle, where we see changes of SIX AND EIGHT FEET IN THE SPACE OF THREE YARDS. This is due to the united efforts of the ebbs from the two rivers, and the time cannot be far distant when, unless dredging is resorted to, the entire space from the castle to the head of pier No. 1 *will be quite filled in.*

In addition to the material damage done by thus forcing out into the stream a shoal which was heretofore of little consequence, it may safely be presumed that, in filling in for the Battery extension, very liberal supplies have been contributed to the shoals from the dirt carts, as without the security of a regular sea wall, immense quantities of the loose earth must, from time to time, be washed away and added to the shoal; and it is probable that when the slowly progressing enlargement is completed and the walls finished, the changes will be less rapid. The injury is now without other remedy than that of hastening to its completion a work which has *proved so seriously disastrous to this already crowded part of the harbor,* and, by legislation, preventing any extensions beyond the lines of the city as defined by the Harbor Commissioners.

I am, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

T. AUGS. CRAVEN, Lieut.-Commanding.

Prof. A. D. BACHE, Sup. United States Coast Survey.

Letter from Professor BACHE to the President of the New York Chamber of Commerce.

LANE'S BROOK, Washington County, Maine, Sept. 27.

DEAR SIR:—The report that one or more vessels had struck upon the shoal off the Battery, where it was generally supposed there was deep water, induced one of the Pilot Commissioners, GEORGE W. BLUNT, ESQ., to call my attention to the desirableness of a re-survey of the shoal. It was assigned to Lieut.-Commanding T. A. CRAVEN, U. S. N., the assistant in the coast survey, who, having been charged with the hydrography of the New York harbor for the commissioners on harbor encroachment, was familiar with every part of the shoal. His report, recently presented to me, gives in detail the changes which have occurred, and shows prospectively those which may be expected. It is important, and

I therefore beg leave, through you, to call the attention of the Chamber of Commerce to it. The filling between pier No. 1 and the castle may readily be amended by dredging, and no doubt the entire completion of the Battery work would retard the now rapid increase of the shoal. The shoal must, however, in a general way, be related to the present shore line, as the old was to the former shore; and thus the shoal, changed somewhat in form, must be pushed out to a distance not equal but corresponding to the addition of the shore line of the Battery.

Yours, respectfully,

A. D. BACHE, Supt. United States Coast Survey.

To PELATIAH PERIT, Esq., President Chamber of Commerce.

Some of the members thought many of the deposits were in consequence of washings from sewers and from dumping, as managed by the city corporation.

Mr. BROWER thought seven-eighths of the deposits in slips were from the sewers. The Legislature had often been petitioned to remedy this difficulty. As for the flat making north of Governor's Island, there was no doubt but it was from the Battery extension materials.

The report and resolution were ordered referred to a special committee. Mr. PHELPS suggested that the Pilot Commissioners would be the most proper committee to attend to the subject, as they knew all about it. Mr. BLUNT suggested that some of the ship owners be also put on that committee. Mr. MARSAALL moved that the committee consist of nine, which was carried. The committee is composed of the following gentlemen :—

|                      |                    |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| GEORGE W. BLUNT,     | EDWIN E. MORGAN,   |
| CHARLES H. MARSHALL, | JOHN D. JONES,     |
| RUSSELL STURGIS,     | GEORGE OPDYKE,     |
| THOMAS L. TAYLOR,    | ROBERT B. MINTURN, |
| ROYAL PHELPS.        |                    |

It is proposed to publish this map for distribution among the members.

Mr. R. PHELPS moved that the report of Lieut. CRAVEN be entered on the minutes of this body, which was carried.

Mr. JOHN H. BROWER spoke of the possibility of the channel between the city and Governor's Island narrowing down to a mere creek if something was not done. He hoped this danger would be pointed out to the proper authorities.

Capt. C. H. MARSHALL stated that he had noticed where some of the sewers emptied, that the filling of slips were at the rate of twelve feet in six months. The attention of the city corporation to this evil was therefore highly necessary.

After some other remarks on the subject, the chamber adjourned.

#### ENTRANCE TO BOSTON BAY.

The lighthouse on Little Brewster Island, at the entrance to Boston Harbor, has lately been repaired and refitted, and will be relighted at sunset on the night of the 20th December, 1859. The tower is white, and sixty-six feet in height. The focal plane is 100 feet above mean low water. The illuminating apparatus is catadioptric, of the second order, system of Fresnel, and will show a white flash every 30 seconds, which should be seen in ordinary weather a distance of 15 nautical miles. By order of the Lighthouse Board,

WASHINGTON, December 3, 1859.

W. F. SMITH, Secretary.

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**JOURNAL OF MINING, MANUFACTURES, AND ART.**

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**COMB MANUFACTURE OF NEWBURYPORT.**

The Newburyport *Herald* gives an interesting account of the horn comb manufacture of that town ; and it is of interest, although it may turn out that horn as a material for combs may be supplanted by India rubber, and that the ladies will abandon horn for personal decoration entirely to the male sex. The *Herald* remarks :—

Newburyport was known as a comb town years ago ; but the business was subject to fluctuations, depending much upon the caprice of fashion ; and in one of the ebbs of the tide the work was abandoned.

And notwithstanding some of them are sold so low, yet there is not a comb that has not passed through from fifteen to twenty processes, and as many different pairs of hands before it is ready for the market ; and it is only owing to the rapidity with which they are made that a profit is realized for the manufacturer. Let us look at them in the different stages of operation.

Down in the basement is a huge pile of horns ; where did they come from, and what of them ? Oh, their history will never be written ! Down from the interior of Africa, floated in canoes, and conveyed by slaves, some may have come ; on the oases of the deserts, on the upland prairies where are the great cities and the new races of whom LIVINGSTONE, and ANDERSON, and BARTH tells us they may have been grown, and paid for in rum, and gunpowder, and tobacco—the three great civiliziers that the Christian merchants send to the coast of Africa to convert the natives with. More likely, however, they were produced by the immense herds that graze the new land of South America, on the banks of the Amazon, and south of that on grand La Plata, or the Parana, and from the big plains, where Spaniards, and Portuguese, and Indians have intermixed, till the race is half white and half colored, half civilized, half savage, half Christian, and half pagan. But as the American horns are white and better, and this company use the best of stock, the most of them are from the Brighton market ; but even these come from a wide field—from the Rio Grande in Texas to the pastures of the Aroostook on the east, and from a dozen different States at least. Six hundred oxen must die some where every day of the week, or nearly two hundred thousand in a year to furnish the raw material for this one factory. That is a number of cattle of which few have a just conception ; and if they had to march up in single file and shake off their horns at the gate way, they would make a long line of beeves.

Close by the side of the horn pile we hear the hum of circular saws ; buzz, buzz—their teeth not seen, and barely the plates, with such velocity do they move ; and there stands the men to saw them into the right lengths, when the round pieces are split ready for straightening and flattening. We see the tips, not suited for combs, passing one way. where they are again sawed, if of proper size, to make knife handles, and the extreme ends are packed and boxed for exportation to Germany, whence they are returned to us as the mouth-pieces for pipes and cigars. We follow the comb pieces to the next floor, and see them softening in boiling water and oil, and when soft run through knives by which the rough places are made smooth ; then placed between cold irons till they are cool, and hard, and straight. We look into another room, which is full of saws and belting, where these rough pieces are all cut to dimensions ; and by the side of one of the circulars stands a native of the Emerald Isle minus of two or three fingers, indicating that the saws sometimes slip through bones as well as horns. But while we look the piece is passed between other sharp machinery to be caravanned, as they call it, to be smoothed and reduced to a uniform thickness we

should say ; and again it passes to hot irons to remain for hours, perhaps days. When it comes thence, for dressing combs, it is quilled, or that part to be cut into teeth made thinner than the rest. Next the teeth themselves are cut roughly, in a very ingenious manner, which we believe they call twinning. Formerly the interstices of the teeth were cut out by a thin saw, and of course the strip of horn made but one comb, the fragments being lost. Now, the piece makes two combs, the sides of the strip, which are left ridged in the quilling process, furnishing the two backs, and the teeth being between, which are formed by fastening the strip in a carriage, which is moved forward till it comes under a chisel, that with the precision of clock-work cuts out the two combs, the teeth of one lying between those of the other.

When the teeth have been cut the two combs are pulled apart and again replaced, and then go into cold irons to press and straighten. That being done, they go through several other processes. One man shapes the points of the teeth, another the sides of the teeth, and a third smooths the edges of the back—all being done with machines ; and afterwards they are polished and packed up, and sent to markets as distant from this and from each other as the points whence the horns are received, though they should be collected from the four quarters of the globe and the islands of the seas.

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#### MANUFACTURE OF HUNGARY LEATHER.

This valuable kind of leather, says the *Shoe and Leather Reporter*, is chiefly used, at present, for harness and similar purposes, though we think it probable that the same method of preparation might be advantageously employed for the production of leather adapted to more extensive purposes. This kind of leather can be prepared for market in three weeks in summer, and in about double that time in winter. This rapid tanning process consists in impregnating hides with alum, common salt, and animal oil. The leather may be made at all seasons of the year, since the injurious effects of temperature can easily be counteracted. This kind of leather differs much from that which is tanned and curried ; as the latter is well known to consist, not of the gelatine of which the hide is composed, joined with the tannin in mechanical union, but of a third substance as distinct from both as water or air are distinct from the gases of which they are respectively composed. The Hungarian leather, on the contrary, consists of the original fibrous tissue of the hides dried, contracted, and slightly changed in nature, but not converted into true leather. Another difference between the Hungarian tanned skins and ordinary leather consists in the fact that, on an average, the former loses one-half of their original weight. The methods of preparation of hides and skins for this Hungarian process are very similar to those usually employed in our tanneries. After unhairing, the hides are dressed with a solution of alum and salt, by which putrefaction is prevented and the hides are rendered stronger and more durable, while the salt mixed with the alum by keeping the fibers moist, renders the leather more supple. Six pounds of alum, three-and-a-half pounds of salt, and about eight gallons of water are required for a hide weighing eighty pounds.

After being twice dressed with alum and well tramped upon by the bare feet of the workmen continually walking backwards and forwards over them, the skins are dried, and are then, by another process of tramping or rolling, prepared for tallowing. This process is conducted in a close room, containing a boiler about three-quarters full of tallow, which is heated until it melts, when the

leather, which has been previously warmed, is thoroughly saturated—above three pounds being required for each hide. Calf-skins, however, though prepared in the same way, require less of the tanning materials—the average consumption for a dozen large skins being fourteen pounds of alum, seven pounds of salt, and thirteen pounds of tallow. After being thoroughly saturated with tallow, the leather is *flamed*, or exposed to heat, and is then thoroughly dried in the open air.

From Senegal Hungary is said to have borrowed this method in the fourteenth or fifteenth century, and towards the close of the sixteenth century it was introduced into other European countries. In France, especially, the manufacture flourished in COLBERT'S celebrated manufactory at St. Cloud. The only improvement of importance which has since been made in the original processes was introduced by CURANDEAU, who saved much time, labor, and expense by substituting sulphuric acid for alum. His method is, after preparing the skins in the usual manner, to immerse them for twenty-four hours in a lye composed of four pounds of sulphuric acid mixed with twenty pounds of salt, and twenty-five gallons of water, the same lye serving for several different lots of hides. Heavy ox hides are most frequently used, but other descriptions may, with advantage, be subjected to this Hungarian process.

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#### FORMATION OF DIAMONDS.

A writer in one of the German scientific magazines gives it as his opinion, founded on carefully conducted experiments, that the diamond is the product of condensed carbon, chrystalized from liquid carbonic acid. It is known that diamonds not rarely show cavities, in which, according to all appearances, a considerable pressure must have taken place. Supposing these cavities to contain some kind of gas, it is argued that there is no reason why this might not be carbonic acid under a high pressure; and this theory would furnish a ready explanation, it is thought, of the color-rings with black crossings observed around the cavities in diamonds, by supposing them to be caused in a similar manner as those of unevenly compressed glass. The carbonic acid then stands in the same relation to diamonds, as the mother lye, inclosed in a number of artificial and native crystals. That there are large quantities of carbonic acid under a high pressure in the body of our planet, is shown by the immense quantities escaping at various localities.

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#### REMAINS OF ANCIENT SALT WORKS IN THE SALINES OF ILLINOIS.

Dr. DAVIS has received a letter from Mr. SELLERS, a scientific gentleman in charge of some of the Salines in Illinois, and has discovered various articles sunken in the earth, which were used at some long past period by people unknown in making salt from the same springs which are now recently brought into use. The letter contains descriptions of utensils and instruments found, particularly fragments of the largest ancient earthen jars ever discovered in our country. It also gives a description of the process which must have been pursued by the unknown manufacturers in procuring salt from the waters. Such discoveries, with the intelligent and interesting conclusions to which the writer was led by the facts, add new inducements to the labors of investigators.

## BARKS FOR TANNING.

The following is a very useful and interesting summary of the different barks used in tanning:—

There are four species of oak barks chiefly used in tanning. The first is the Spanish oak, which thrives in Maryland, Delaware, and Virginia, and in all the States south of 41° N. In the Atlantic States this species is most abundant, and in Georgia and the Carolinas it is known by the name of "red oak." Its bark, which is thick, black, and deeply furrowed, is preferred for coarse leather, which it makes more pliable and of a better color. Hemlock bark is often with advantage mixed with it. In the Southern States, the Spanish oak grows to the height of eighty feet, having a trunk four or five feet in diameter; while in some of the Northern States it does not exceed thirty feet in height, with a diameter of five or six inches.

The common red oak grows abundantly in Canada and in the Northern States, especially in the southern half of New York, in New Jersey, in northern Pennsylvania, and along the ridge of the Alleghanies. Its bark is very generally employed, though inferior in several respects to some other kinds. This tree grows to the height of seventy or eighty feet, and has a diameter of three or four feet.

The rock-chestnut oak is seldom found in the Southern States, but abounds in elevated districts having a broken, rocky surface. On some of the Alleghany Mountains it constitutes nine-tenths of the forest growth. Hence the name "rock oak," by which it is known on the banks of the Hudson and on the shores of Lake Champlain. It has received in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia the name of "chestnut oak." Its bark is thick, hard, and deeply furrowed, and differs from other barks in that the epidermis or outer layer contains a large proportion of tannin, which is usually in other kinds confined chiefly to the under layers. In Pennsylvania and New York it abounds, but only the bark of the small branches and young trees is used in tanning.

The quercitron or black oak grows throughout the States, below the latitude of 43° N., and in the more elevated sections of Georgia and the Carolinas. Its bark is not very thick, but is bitter, deeply furrowed, and of a deep brown or black color. It also imparts a yellow color to the ooze; and leather tanned with it is apt to give a yellow tinge to the stockings. This inconvenience, however, may be obviated by an inexpensive chemical process. Quercitron bark is much used, as it is abundant, cheap, and rich in tannin. This tree often attains a height of ninety feet, and a diameter of four or five feet.

Besides these four kinds are others less known. The white oak chiefly grows in Florida, and to the south of 46° N. Its bark is preferred for leather for saddles, and similar purposes. The scarlet oak is found as far north as latitude 43° N.; its bark is very thick. The gray oak in Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont; and the live oak is never found more than twenty miles inland; its bark being black, hard, thick, and replete with tannin. Other kinds of oak bark are occasionally used, but not to any great extent in the United States.

Most of the sole leather in our country is tanned with the bark of the hemlock tree, which is unknown in the Old World. The common British oak grows in almost every country in Europe, and is the chief agent used in tanning. It sometimes reaches a height of one hundred feet, and the trunk grows occasionally to fifteen feet or more in circumference. This majestic tree will stand hundreds of years, and when at a distance from other trees, it spreads its gnarled branches so that its head is often broader than its height. The foliage resembles that of the white oak of this country. In northern Russia, and in some parts of France, the bark of a shrub called the Kermes oak is used in tanning. This shrub grows to the height of three to five feet, and bears some resemblance to a small holly tree. The bark of the root is rich in tannin, and is said to produce a very superior quality of thick, durable, impervious sole leather.

In early spring, the opening leaves indicate that the sap is circulating the most actively, and it is found that the bark then contains nearly one-third more tannin than in autumn, consequently in this country, the proper time for barking trees

will vary, according to latitude and other circumstances, from the end of April to the beginning of July. Wet seasons and damp localities are prejudicial to the bark, and lessen its tanning power. The bark of southern oaks and of such as grow in high elevated positions is more rich in tannin than that of low and badly drained, damp, and shady locations. In hemlock bark the inner layer contains about 8 per cent of tannin, the middle part about 5 per cent, and the outer part about  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

#### STRENGTH OF GLASS.

A series of interesting experiments has recently been made in England, in regard to the tenacity, strength, &c., of glass. The experiments upon the direct tenacity of glass made by tearing specimens asunder, were less satisfactory or reliable than others; and it is stated that more reliance is to be placed upon the tenacity deduced from the experiments on the resistance of globes to bursting, than upon the tenacity obtained directly by tearing specimens asunder. The latter method gave the following mean results of tenacity per square inch, in pounds:—Flint glass, 2,413; green glass, 2,896; crown glass, 2,916. The experiments in regard to the resistance of glass to crushing, were made upon small cylinders and cubes of glass crushed between parallel steel surfaces by means of a lever. The cylinders were cut of the required length from rods drawn to the required diameter, when molten and then annealed, in this way retaining the exterior and first coated skin of glass. The cubes were cut from much larger portions, and were, in consequence, probably in a less perfect condition as regards annealing. The specimens were crushed almost to powder by the violence of the concussion; it appeared, however, that the fracture occurred in vertical planes, splitting up the specimen in all directions. Cracks were noticed to form some time before the specimen finally gave way; then these rapidly increased in number, splitting the glass into innumerable prisms, which finally bent or broke, and the specimen was destroyed. The mean resistance to crushing of the flint glass, was, in pounds, 13,190; of green glass, 20,206; of crown glass, 21,867.

#### HEAT OF DIFFERENT WOODS.

The following is set down as the relative heating values of different kinds of American wood:—Shellbark hickory, being taken as the highest standard, 100; pig-nut-hickory, 95; white-oak, 84; white-ash, 77; dog-wood, 75; scrub-oak, 73; white-hazel, 72; apple-tree, 70; red-oak, 69; white-beech, 65; black-walnut, 66; black-birch, 62; yellow-oak, 60; hard-maple, 59; white-elm, 58; red-cedar, 50; wild-cherry, 55; yellow-pine, 54; chestnut, 52; yellow-poplar, 52; butternut, 52; white-birch, 49; white-pine, 42.

Some woods are softer and lighter than others, the hard and heavier having their fibers more densely packed together. But the same species of wood may vary in density according to the conditions of its growth. Those woods which grow in forests, or in rich wet grounds, are less consolidated than such as stand in open fields, or grow slowly upon dry, barren soils. There are two stages in the burning of the wood. In the first, the heat comes chiefly from flame; in the second, from red hot coals. Soft woods are much more active in the first stage than the hard, and hard woods more active in the second stage than soft. The soft woods burn with a voluminous flame, and leave but little coal, while hard woods produce less flame and a larger mass of coal.

## SORGHO DYE.

A. WINTER, of Austria, has discovered a carmine-coloring matter in most parts of the Chinese sorgho, especially in the expressed stem, and has obtained a patent in Austria, Baden, and other States. The process is as follows :—The sorgho is pressed in the usual manner, and the empty cane piled up under cover in regular heaps, several feet high, and the fermentation which immediately sets in is so directed by more or less access of air as to prevent it from becoming putrid. After two weeks the whole mass is of a reddish brown or red color, when the fermentation is interrupted by drying. When dry, the mass is ground sufficiently fine for the extraction of the coloring matter. It is covered in the proper vessels with cold soft water, and allowed to stand for twelve hours ; but little of the pigment dissolves during that time. It is then drained and afterwards treated with a weak caustic soda or potash lye until this no longer extracts anything. This solution is carefully neutralized with sulphuric acid, thus precipitating the coloring matter in red flakes, which, after settling, is washed with water, collected on filters, and dried. This color dissolves in alcohol, alkaline lyes, dilute acids, &c., and is employed for the dyeing of silks and woollens with the common tin mordants. The colors produced from it are said to be unchanged by light or by washing with warm soap-suds.

## IRON WORKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

From a table compiled by the American Iron Association, exhibiting the number of iron works, idle and in operation, in the United States, it appears that there are furnaces, rolling mills, or forges in twenty-five of the States of the Union, leaving but eight States destitute of iron works ; these are Mississippi, Louisiana, Florida, Texas, Iowa, Minnesota, California, and Oregon, all upon the boundary or frontier. The following are the totals :—

|                | Works. | Furnaces. | Forges. | Rolling mills. |
|----------------|--------|-----------|---------|----------------|
| Working.....   | 1,159  | 560       | 389     | 210            |
| Abandoned..... | 386    | 272       | 99      | 15             |
| In all.....    | 1,545  | 832       | 488     | 225            |

These produce annually about 840,000 tons of iron, the value of which, in an ordinary year, is fifty millions of dollars. Of this amount, the portion expended for labor alone is \$35,000,000.

## ARIZONA SILVER.

The St. Louis *Democrat* of a late date remarks :—We had the pleasure last evening of a visit from Hon. SYLVESTER MOWRY, lately elected delegate to Congress from Arizona. Lieut. MOWRY arrived by the last overland stage, and is *en route* for Washington city. He brings with him about forty-six pounds of silver from that territory. It consists of various specimens, from the moulded plates to the common sample, as are found in Arizona—pure silver, after the mercury is expelled, reduced by amalgamation ; silver reduced by melting and run in sand moulds ; silver and copper ore, and a large quantity of rough silver ore from the mountains in the Rio Grande valley, twelve miles from the river, near the celebrated Stevenson mine. The whole region promises a rich yield. The ores are principally *argentiferous galena*, and reduced to a pure plate at a very small cost.

## RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

### WHAT THE ERIE CANAL BRINGS TO MARKET.

The following statement, from page 30 of the Auditor's Report on Trade and Tonnage of the Canals for 1858, is of interest. It is an exhibit of the average cargoes of the boats, of the time necessary to make a passage, and the cost to bring a barrel of flour from Buffalo to Albany, of the lockages at Alexander's Lock, three miles west of Schenectady, and the total tons delivered at tide water from the Erie Canal, as follows:—

| Years.   | Average cargo of boat. | Days Buffalo to Albany. | Toll and freight on bbls. of flour. | Boats passing Alexander's lock both ways. | Tons delivered at Hudson River from Erie Canal. | From Western States. Tons. | From this State. Tons. |
|----------|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|---|----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1841 ... | 41                     | 9                       | \$0 71                              | 30,320                                    | 532,520   | 224,175                    | 308,791                |
| 1844 ... | 49                     | 7½                      | 0 60                                | 28,219                                    | 799,816   | 308,025                    | 491,791                |
| 1847 ... | 67                     | 10½                     | 0 77                                | 43,957                                    | 1,431,252                                       | 812,840                    | 618,212                |
| 1848 ... | 71                     | 9                       | 0 58                                | 34,911                                    | 1,184,337                                       | 650,154                    | 534,183                |
| 1849 ... | 68                     | 8½                      | 0 56                                | 36,918                                    | 1,266,724                                       | 768,659                    | 498,068                |
| 1850 ... | 76                     | 9                       | 0 58                                | 38,444                                    | 1,554,675                                       | 773,858                    | 598,001                |
| 1851 ... | 78                     | 8½                      | 0 49                                | 40,396                                    | 1,508,677                                       | 966,093                    | 541,684                |
| 1852 ... | 80                     | 9                       | 0 53                                | 41,572                                    | 1,644,999                                       | 1,151,987                  | 492,721                |
| 1853 ... | 84                     | 9                       | 0 56                                | 42,967                                    | 1,851,438                                       | 1,213,690                  | 637,748                |
| 1854 ... | 94                     | 8½                      | 0 52                                | 35,981                                    | 1,702,693                                       | 1,100,526                  | 602,167                |
| 1855 ... | 92                     | 8½                      | 0 52                                | 30,873                                    | 1,420,715                                       | 1,092,876                  | 327,839                |
| 1856 ... | 100                    | 8½                      | 0 60                                | 31,223                                    | 1,587,130                                       | 1,212,550                  | 374,580                |
| 1857 ... | 100                    | 8½                      | 0 46                                | 22,182                                    | 1,117,199                                       | 919,998                    | 197,201                |
| 1858 ... | 126                    | 8½                      | 0 34                                | 23,474                                    | 1,496,687                                       | 1,273,099                  | 223,588                |

The table shows, comparing 1847 with 1858—

1. That the average cargoes of the boats, large and small, coming to the Hudson River, have about doubled.
2. That the time of the passage is nearly the same.
3. That the average total charge on a barrel of flour, which is assumed as the index of the average diminished charge on down freights, is about one-half.
4. That the number of boats required to bring the property to market is, with double locks, but about one-half the number required in 1847, when the locks were single.
5. That the tons of property brought to market is about the same.
6. That the tons from Western States have increased one-half.
7. That the tons from New York State have diminished two-thirds.

Though the average cargoes of the boats, which brought the 1,490,687 tons to the Hudson River in 1858, was only 126 tons, the Erie Canal is now capable of a boat of about 200 tons. It should be observed that the above statement does not include the tons of property which go from tide-water, nor the internal movement, but only what comes to market from the Erie Canal, whether derived from its borders, from Western States, or from the lateral canals.

So far as the Erie Canal is concerned, it is a striking feature of the exhibit, that with such an increase in the cargo of the boat, and such a diminution in charges, there should not be an average increase of delivery at market. The reduction of the rates of toll last year, probably accounts for its increase of 370,000 tons over the previous one, but still, with only about half the charges, it is 360,000 tons below 1853.

The striking feature of the exhibit is the decrease of the products of this State coming to market—only about one-sixth of what came from Western States, in the last year; while six years ago it was one-half. The reduction of the rates of toll on the canal should tend to increase the total arrival at market, but it seems to operate only on property from Western States. It may be that the competition of the lands of the West, through the Erie Canal, crowds upon the dearer lands of this State.

#### FRANCE AND ITS RAILWAYS.

The *Constitutionnel* publishes a long article on the works of general utility which the peace will enable France to undertake; and among the rest specifies the new railway lines now in progress or in contemplation. It adverts with justifiable satisfaction to the rapidity with which such works have been executed in France, after an undue delay at first, and points to the fact that the extent of railway communication in the country is now greater than in Great Britain. It says:—"France under the influence of the Imperial Government has been able to repair the time lost at first in discussions as to the mode of execution, and subsequently in political revolutions. We now possess 8,700 kilometres of railway, (the kilometre is five-eighths of a mile,) which have cost nearly 4,000,000,000 francs—of which 3,250,000,000 francs were raised by companies, and 750,000,000 by the State. But we have still 7,000 kilometres to construct, and nearly 3,000,000,000 francs to disburse for them. Such is the object we have to attain during the new epoch of peace which is now commencing. And when we have accomplished that object France will have a greater length of railway than any other country in the world, as she will have 16,300 kilometres, whilst the United Kingdom of Great Britain will only have 15,500. But the same will not be the case with regard to the population or the superficial extent of territory. Thus when the great network shall be executed, France will only have 450 kilometres for every million of the population, whilst in Scotland the proportion will be 949 kilometres, in England 866, and in Belgium 482. There is, therefore, nothing rash in the projects which we are now endeavoring to carry out."

#### FLORIDA RAILROADS.

Very few out of our State, remarks the Pensacola *Observer*, and many even in it, are not aware of the rapid strides internal improvements have and are making. From the following synopsis of the number of miles graded and ironed, it will be seen that we are ahead of some of our sister States, and making rapid progress to overtake others. In January, 1855, we had twenty-one miles from Tallahassee to St. Mark's, of "common flat rail"—a poor apology for a railroad; it has since been regraded and reironed with heavy rail; the Pensacola and Georgia is graded to the Suwannee, and is in process of rapid completion to Lake City—distance one hundred and six miles—twenty-eight miles ironed, and the iron purchased for the remaining seventy-eight miles; the Central is graded from Lake City to Jacksonville, sixty miles—forty miles ironed, and the iron purchased for the balance; the Florida is graded from Fernandina to Cedar Keys, one hundred and fifty-four miles—one hundred and twenty-two miles ironed, and the iron purchased for the remainder; the Florida end of the Alabama and Florida Railroad, fifteen miles ironed, and the iron purchased for the

remainder. So we have two hundred and twenty-six miles ironed, and three hundred and forty-one graded, and the iron purchased for one hundred and fifty eight miles more, besides the short branch from the Pensacola and Georgia Road to Monticello, of three miles, and the branch now being graded from the Florida Road to Ocala. We get from that excellent paper the *Floridian*, the distance above as to the roads finished and graded in the East and Middle Florida—correcting, however, its statement, by adding fifteen miles ironed and in fine running order from Pensacola in the direction of Montgomery, so that the persons at a distance may know the number of miles actually completed—as well as the additional fact (perhaps unknown to the *Floridian* and *Journal*) that the balance of the iron for our end of the Alabama and Florida Road is purchased, and is now on its way to our city.

From the above statement, it will be seen that our people are no *laggards*, but have accomplished as much, in fact more, in four-and-a-half years, than the same population have accomplished any where in the Union; and the additional fact must be taken into consideration, that we have as much, if not more seaboard, than all the Atlantic States combined, and hence we are less dependent on railroads for home purposes than any other State; but in order to have rapid and convenient intercourse with our sister States, and mutually benefit each by building up our seaboard cities, and giving them access to our fine harbors for their produce and importations, we have thus in so short a time, with a very small population, made giant strides in the line of railroads.

#### HIGH RAILROAD SPEEDS.

A recent number of the London *Engineer* has a very well written article on the subject of railroad speeds, in the course of which it says:—"For anything that can be seen, a speed of 30 miles per hour upon the water is practically impossible; whilst a speed of 100 miles per hour upon land is not impossible, unless from undeniable imperfection in the structure of our lines. With a proper condition of permanent way, and with sufficient power, there would probably be no difficulty in maintaining a speed of 10,000 feet per minute at the peripheries of the driving wheels. A different construction of boiler, in which the steam would be generated in small tubes, and to a pressure of from 200 pounds to 300 pounds per square inch, would probably be requisite. The permanent way appears to be the principal matter in which radical improvement is necessary."

#### RAILWAYS IN BRAZIL.

Ten miles of railroad from the bay of Rio Janeiro to Petropolis have been in operation for several years, also 38 miles of the railroad from Rio Janeiro to Belem. The second section of the latter, which was let last year to American contractors, is rapidly progressing, with a force of 1,500 men, and it is confidently expected that it will be completed, according to contract, in May, 1863, and a considerable part of it a year or two sooner. When this section is finished the residue of the line, stretching in two branches along the Parahyba River, will soon be brought into operation, as the difficulties beyond the *Serra*, over which this second section passes, are not to be compared with those which American skill and energy are now overcoming in the passage of the mountain.

A city railroad was constructed in Rio Janeiro last year, several miles long, towards Tejuca, a favorite summer resort, among the near mountains.

## KANAWHA CANAL.

Governor WISE, in his late message to the Virginia Legislature, has the following interesting remarks on the Kanawha Canal and its railroad connections :

We have seen how much we can venture to expend at once on our improvements. We have but to review them as they now stand, to see their relative importance. The great argument for them all is, that they are indispensable to build up for us a center of trade ; and for the value and effect of that I must refer you to my message to the last General Assembly.

I repeat that the most important line of the State is the James River and Kanawha Canal. It should not be left where it is any longer. On the 11th February, 1856, I reported that this great work was left "without funds, without credit, bound by a mortgage, and resting its whole weight on the arm of the State." Since then nothing has been done but to appropriate the sums sufficient to meet the interest due on its debts up to 1st July last, and then the appropriations failed, and the State failed to pay its interest on guarantied bonds. This affected the State credit more injuriously than it did that of the canal. I ask for an immediate appropriation of this interest, and for a permanent provision for it in future. For the reasons given in my message of 1856, I repeat the recommendation then made, "that the capital stock of the company shall be increased to the amount of 80,000 shares, of which the State shall take 60,000 in payment of her debt and liabilities due by the canal, and the remaining 20,000 shall be sold, if practicable, to private persons, thus commuting the debt and liability of the State into stock of the company." This will complete the canal to Covington ; and when the Covington and Ohio Railroad is completed, the revenue, it is supposed, will pay the interest on the whole investment.

Besides the connection of this work with the Kanawha, it has another connection, which embraces one of the grandest developments of our State. The continental water-shed east of the Andes is from north to south. The only exception, remarkably, is chiefly in the western part of Virginia's territory. The New River rises far south in North Carolina, and passing our line runs northeast to Montgomery, and thence west of north, cuts through the whole range of the Alleghany Mountains, and runs north to the mouth of the Gauley, thence northwest to the Kanawha. It is one of the most remarkable water passages in the world, and full of development in every respect. Opposite its junction with the Kanawha, eastward, the heads of the Monongahela rise and run northward to Pittsburg. Thus Virginia alone has waters, for hundreds of miles, running from south to north, contrary to the general flow of waters. There is great power in this peculiarity of formation, and time will show that it is one of the elements of our future progress and greatness in wealth. It invites Virginia, by all means, to connect the James and the New rivers first, and the James and the Monongahela, if practicable, afterwards. I believe that the connection with New River is practicable, and surveys ought to be ordered for it. Looking to this, and secondarily to test the present location of the James River Canal across the Alleghany ridge, I ordered a small reconnoissance out of the contingent fund the past summer. The president and engineer of the canal gave me every facility and assistance, and I was further aided by Col. SMITH of the institute with a corps of its graduates. The report of Engineer LORRAINE will be submitted to you. I trust the General Assembly will, by a liberal appropriation, enable the institute to purchase a complete set of topographical instruments, and to organize a corps of civil engineers for surveys generally, and especially for ascertaining the best mode of connecting the James with New River, and of improving the navigation of the latter. I recommend to your attention the full and able report of Col. ELLIS on the affairs of the James River and Kanawha Company.

The next most important work is the Covington and Ohio Railroad. It ought to be completed in the shortest possible time. To that end I recommend an appropriation of two millions per annum until the work is finished to the Ohio. Argument is idle on this policy.

The other works should be classified according to their state of completion.

The Charlottesville and Lynchburg Road is nearly finished; the Norfolk and Petersburg Road is finished; the York River has reached the Pamunkey; the Danville Road will soon be connected with the works of North Carolina. Upon the whole, then, I recommend for the next two years the following appropriations:—

|   |             |
|---|-------------|
| To the Covington and Ohio Road.....                 | \$4,000,000 |
| To the Manassas Gap Road.....                       | 200,000     |
| To the extension of the Danville Road.....          | 200,000     |
| To the clearing of James and Appomattox rivers..... | 150,000     |
| To all other works, as it may be distributed.....   | 450,000     |
| Total recommended.....                              | \$5,000,000 |

And by all means I urge the charter to construct the railroad from Strausburg to Winchester.

And the Harper's Ferry branch of the Manassas Railroad, (the Loudon branch,) diverging from the main stem 21 miles from Alexandria, and 43 miles only in length, upon which \$180,000 has been expended, ought to be constructed, to give us access to the northern border on our own territory.

The late transportation of troops from every point to Charlestown and Harper's Ferry and back, required that we should pass through the District of Columbia and Maryland, for the want of 18 miles of road, which the people have petitioned in vain to be allowed to construct at their own expense. It is positively necessary to the State if this border war continues, or ever be renewed. The ways are absolutely necessary for defence.

#### NEW YORK CENTRAL RAILROAD.

The annual returns of the New York Central Railroad for the year to September 30, 1859, gives the following leading figures as compared with previous years:—

|           | Construction. | Gross earnings. | Transportation expenses. | Interest. | Sinking fund. | Dividends. | Balance.  |
|-----------|---------------|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------|---------------|------------|-----------|
| 1853..... | 23,029,000    | 4,787,520       | .....                    | .....     | .....         | 1,919,564  | .....     |
| 1854..... | 25,907,374    | 5,918,334       | 3,088,041                | .....     | .....         | 1,919,564  | .....     |
| 1855..... | 28,523,913    | 6,563,581       | 3,401,455                | 951,110   | .....         | 1,919,564  | 558,157   |
| 1856..... | 29,786,372    | 7,707,348       | 4,097,867                | 1,067,759 | 111,182       | 1,919,564  | 1,301,036 |
| 1857..... | 30,515,815    | 8,027,251       | 4,453,815                | 1,084,165 | .....         | 1,919,564  | 1,826,572 |
| 1858..... | 30,732,517    | 6,528,412       | 3,487,292                | 1,089,486 | 113,294       | 1,919,564  | 1,594,326 |
| 1859..... | 30,840,713    | 6,200,848       | 3,349,429                | 970,059   | 116,753       | 1,679,782  | 1,619,150 |

#### VIRGINIA RAILROAD EARNINGS.

The following table on the subject of the earnings of Virginia railroads is from the report of the Auditor of Public Works, and will be found interesting:

A STATEMENT SHOWING THE GROSS AMOUNT DERIVED FROM TOLLS, FREIGHT, FARES, AND OTHER SOURCES OF THE RAILROAD AND RIVER COMPANIES.

| Companies.                          | Total.         | Monthly average. | Total amount received fiscal year 1858-9. |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|------------------|---|
| Virginia Central.....               | \$1,034,399 10 | \$54,442 06      | \$648,017 42                              |
| Virginia and Tennessee.....         | 875,991 42     | 58,399 43        | 678,194 43                                |
| Richmond and Danville....           | 854,420 78     | 47,467 82        | 552,634 72                                |
| South Side.....                     | 435,143 33     | 33,472 56        | .....                                     |
| Richmond, Frederick, and Potomac... | 452,374 70     | 23,809 19        | 279,945 98                                |
| Richmond and Petersburg.....        | 253,041 68     | 13,317 98        | 162,815 75                                |
| Winchester and Potomac.....         | 92,727 64      | 5,141 49         | 63,064 43                                 |
| Roanoke Valley.....                 | 17,483 17      | 1,589 38         | .....                                     |
| James River and Kanawha.....        | 180,359 40     | 20,039 93        | .....                                     |
| Elk River Bridge.....               | 2,465 38       | 145 02           | 1,847 88                                  |

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE, &c.

AGRICULTURE OF PRUSSIA.

The value of land in Prussia was very low when Mr. JACOB visited it in 1825. He mentions a farm of 2,800 acres of good sandy loam, chiefly arable, which was sold during the time he was in the country for £5,300, or not quite 40s. per acre. Another farm of 4,200 acres of inferior quality had been mortgaged for £3,000. The mortgagee foreclosed, but upon the property being put up for sale it would not fetch the amount of the mortgage, and the creditor was obliged to take it. This cost him little more than 14s. per acre, and being a wealthy man he was able to expend £2,000 more upon it, and thus probably made it a more profitable concern than the previous owner had it in his power to do.

Such was the state of land in Prussia in 1825; since which time the system of subdivision has gone on rapidly without any change in the social or political condition of the country to relieve the peasant proprietors from the heavy tax upon their time and labor inflicted by the Landwehr. A striking example of the effect of this law occurred during the late war between the French and Austrians. The apprehensions entertained by the German States that the contest would be extended to the banks of the Rhine, induced the Prussian government to mobilize the Landwehr, or, in other words, to call out the whole of the male population, which was also done by the other States, members of the German Confederation. A friend of the writer's, residing at Bonn, described the effect upon industry as most destructive. "Commerce, manufactures, and agriculture were at a *dead lock*, and not hands enough were left in the rural districts to get in the harvest." The following was the distribution of the land in 1852:—

| Farms under       | Acres   | Number.   | Proportion. |
|-------------------|---------|-----------|-------------|
| Farms under       | 4 acres | 936,570   | 50.20       |
| " from 4 to 19    | "       | 565,354   | 28.76       |
| " from 19 to 189  | "       | 382,515   | 19.46       |
| " from 189 to 378 | "       | 14,020    | 0.71        |
| " above           | 378     | 17,003    | 0.87        |
| Total             |         | 1,915,462 | 100.00      |

The above statement is taken from the official papers of the Board of Trade. It exhibits an increase of more than four-and-a-half to one since Mr. JACOB'S time, in the number of farms under fifty acres, and of more than three-and-a-quarter to one of those under two hundred and fifty acres. The land is occupied in the following manner:—

|                               | Acres.     |              | Acres.     |
|-------------------------------|------------|--------------|------------|
| Gardens, vinyards, & orchards | 892,079    | Forests      | 13,614,564 |
| Under tillage                 | 30,094,640 | Uncultivated | 13,529,614 |
| Meadows                       | 5,266,449  |              |            |
| Permanent pastures            | 5,419,192  | Total        | 68,816,538 |

The following was the entire produce of the principal crops in the year 1851:—

|        |      |           |          |      |            |
|--------|------|-----------|----------|------|------------|
| Wheat  | qrs. | 3,674,668 | Oats     | qrs. | 14,218,125 |
| Rye    |      | 2,020,250 | Potatoes |      | 52,593,750 |
| Barley |      | 3,600,000 |          |      |            |
| Total  |      |           |          |      | 86,106,788 |

It is evident from this latter table that wheaten bread forms no part of the common food of the population. Mr. JACOB states that from the time he left the Netherlands, in passing through Saxony, Prussia, Poland, Austria, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, &c., until he entered France, he saw neither in the bakers' shops, in the hotels, nor in private houses, a loaf of wheaten bread. The only form in which it could be purchased was that of small rolls, and they were only seen when foreigners were at table. We believe that since that period it has come more into use amongst the wealthy classes; but still the domestic consumption is very small, the quantity grown as above stated not allowing more than 1½ bushel per head per annum. The wheat exported from Dantzic and other Prussian ports comes chiefly from the Polish provinces of Prussia and Russia, where the land is very good, and wheat is more extensively cultivated. Rye bread is universally eaten by all classes, and with potatoes constitutes the only food of the lower classes, meat being a luxury beyond their means of purchasing. The following was the number of live stock in Prussia in 1849 :—

|              |            |                        |            |
|--------------|------------|------------------------|------------|
| Horses ..... | 1,575,471  | Goats ....             | 584,771    |
| Cattle ..... | 5,371,644  | Swine .....            | 2,466,316  |
| Sheep .....  | 16,296,928 | Wool produced.....lbs. | 35,852,343 |

Between the years 1849 and 1852 there were brought into cultivation 2,748,880 acres of new land, and applied as follows :—

|                            |           |                     |           |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------|
|                            | Acres.    |                     | Acres.    |
| Gardens, vinyards, &c..... | 68,228    | Forest planted..... | 1,143,176 |
| Tillage .....              | 1,195,110 | Meadow .....        | 170,067   |
| Permanent pasture .....    | 172,299   |                     |           |
| Total.....                 |           |                     | 2,748,880 |

The following is an approximate estimate of the distribution of the land into farms, exclusive of forests :—

|                          |               |            |
|--------------------------|---------------|------------|
| 936,570 farms, averaging | 2½ acres..... | 2,341,425  |
| 565,354 “                | 10 “ .....    | 5,653,540  |
| 382,515 “                | 60 “ .....    | 22,950,900 |
| 14,020 “                 | 250 “ .....   | 3,505,000  |
| 17,003 “                 | 500 “ .....   | 8,501,500  |
| Total.....               |               | 42,952,365 |

The above is sufficiently near to give the reader an idea of the different grades of agriculturists, according to the extent of their holdings.

#### VINTAGE OF CALIFORNIA.

A stranger visiting this locality for the first time is not apt to be very favorably impressed with the Pueblo of Los Angeles; but a day or two devoted to inspecting its vinyards and wine cellars, and in familiar intercourse with its hospitable people, he can hardly fail to carry away with him pleasant and profitable recollections of his sojourn here. Such, at least, is the experience of a correspondent, who left San Francisco November 3d, and arrived there on the 5th. He writes, that the vinyards, of course, constitute the chief object of interest to a visitor here; and really I confess that I have seldom enjoyed anything more than I have my inspection of the important and rapidly improving wine-growing district of this section. A few facts in regard to this year's vintage may be valuable. I learn from authentic sources that the total production of wine will be about 340,000 gallons, divided as follows :—By Kohler, Frohling & Bauch—at Work-

man's vinyard, 10,400 gallons; at Roland's, 12,000 gallons; at their own vinyard, 10,000 gallons; at Coronel's, 12,000 gallons; at Wolfskill's, 50,000 gallons; total, 94,000 gallons. By Sainsevain's, 60,000; by Sainsevain's per Wilson, near San Gabriel, 30,000; by Keller, 50,000; by Dr. White, 12,000; by Rains, (Cocomungo,) 8,000; by Clement, 8,000; by Barron, 7,000; by Huber, 5,000; by Laborie, 6,000; by Muloch, 5,000; by Wyse, 5,000; by Covitzi, 4,000; by Ballerino, 4,000; by Messer, 4,000; by Dr. Hoover, 3,000; by Proudhome, 3,000; by Barrows, 2,000; by others, 20,000 to 30,000.

In addition to the wine made, the Messrs. Sainsevain will make of brandy about 3,500 gallons. Messrs. Kohler & Co. will also make a considerable quantity of brandy; but I do not know how much. Many think there is not more than two-thirds of a grape crop this season, although there are considerably more bearing vines this year than last in the country. The season has been unfavorable, and many vinyards have been affected with iodium, and last spring many vines were seriously damaged by the cut-worm eating the buds. It is not often, however, that the vine here in Los Angeles suffers from either of these evils—only once in many years. Next year something like half a million of young vines will come into bearing. Comparatively few grapes were shipped to San Francisco this season. A full wine crop should have reached 400,000 or 500,000 gallons. The Wolfskill's vinyard, the largest in southern California, produces this year about 200 tons of grapes. This vinyard, and also Mr. Wilson's, yields something like a full crop, while others have not half a crop.

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RICE CROPS.

Comparative statement of the total rice crop of South Carolina and Georgia for 1858 and 1859:—

| SOUTH CAROLINA.                                 |         |         |
|-------------------------------------------------|---------|---------|
|                                                 | 1859.   | 1858.   |
| Exported to foreign ports from Charleston ..... | 86,158  | .....   |
| Coastwise .....                                 | 99,057  | .....   |
| City consumption for the year.....              | 19,800  | .....   |
| Burnt .....                                     | 3,500   | .....   |
| Stock on hand September 1, 1859.....            | 1,145   | .....   |
|                                                 | <hr/>   | <hr/>   |
| Tierces .....                                   | 159,660 | .....   |
| Deduct, received from Savannah, Georgia.....    | 209     | .....   |
| Stock on hand September 1, 1858.....            | 3,358   | .....   |
|                                                 | <hr/>   | <hr/>   |
|                                                 | 3,567   | .....   |
|                                                 | <hr/>   | <hr/>   |
| Total South Carolina..... tierces               | 156,093 | 149,061 |
| GEORGIA.                                        |         |         |
| Exported to foreign ports from Savannah .....   | 7,206   | .....   |
| Coastwise.....                                  | 30,501  | .....   |
|                                                 | <hr/>   | <hr/>   |
| Total Georgia..... tierces                      | 37,709  | 31,345  |
|                                                 | <hr/>   | <hr/>   |
| Total South Carolina and Georgia.....           | 193,800 | 180,406 |
| Increase in 1859..... tierces                   | 13,394  | .....   |

The city consumption and stock on hand on the 1st September at Savannah are not included in the above.

## HOW TO TELL THE CHARACTER OF PAST SEASONS.

From a meteorological article recently published in the *Zeitung*, at Galveston, Texas, it appears that the people in some parts of Texas have lately been visited with a series of five dry seasons, which have greatly discouraged the farmers, and an opinion seems to have gained some prominence, that the climate has changed, and that for want of rains that country would become unproductive and barren. In previous years an abundance of rains and moisture had been furnished to produce the most luxuriant crops; but the late dry years had led many persons to regard the former favorable seasons as the exceptions, and the late barren one as the rule. The article to which we have been referred settles this question in a most satisfactory manner, by a very ingenious theory laid down and tested by its author, J. KUECHLER, of Gillespie County. He states that the records of Texas are of two recent date in regard to past seasons, to form a correct opinion of their general character, whether they are more often very dry or wet; and going to nature as the most uncompromising and correct witness for testimony, he says:—

A tree bears its own history written in itself, and this is most intimately connected with the yearly fall of rain. Water is a main element in the development of plants; without it, their growth is impossible. With a sufficiency of moisture they arrive at their maximum of growth; that wanting the growth is relatively retarded. We can accurately follow the growth of a tree from its earliest state to its present perfect condition. We trace its yearly growth by annual rings, whose size mainly depends upon the supply of water, so that the broad rings indicate wet years, and the thin rings, which can scarcely be distinguished by the naked eye, denote dry ones. This theory should govern our researches into the past. Great care is necessary in the selection of trees for this experiment. We may be misled by trees upon which abnormal conditions have been developed. In my experiments I demanded two requisites: first, a high, isolated position, so that the drouth has an early effect upon the trees; and secondly, sound, healthy trees. I felled three post-oaks—two somewhat over 130 years old. I took from each, at the thick end, a vertical section, planed the surface very smooth, and then varnished it over, which made the annual rings distinctly visible, (fat has the same effect,) and I prepared from each section a table of the relative order and position of those rings. Upon comparing these three tables, they were found to correspond exactly—a proof that moisture is the only cause of this difference in the size of these annual rings.

His tables of these rings go back to 1725, and from the size of each ring he judges whether the season in which it was formed was dry or moist; the small rings being set down for the dry, and the larger ones for the moist seasons. By this test there have been 67 wet summers during the past 133 years, in western Texas, and the rest of the years are divided into dry, very dry, and average seasons.

## AFRICAN FIBROUS PLANTS.

The Agricultural Bureau received some time since a number of specimens of the numerous plants growing near the Cape of Good Hope, which, having a fibrous texture, are suitable for cordage, &c. These specimens have lately been deposited in the gallery of the Patent-office, and merit the attention of persons engaged in the manufacture of cordage, paper, &c. It is said that some of the species of which these plants are representatives will grow in the Southern States of this Union.

## SILK-WORMS.

One of the most active and distinguished of the members of the Society of Acclimation, M. GUERIN MENEVILLE, who has been especially interested in the introduction of new silk-worms into France, has just succeeded in acclimating one from China, where it lives in the varnish tree, (*Aylanthus Glandulosa*.) The species is the true *Bombyx Cynthia*, known for centuries in China, where its silk clothes the people. The color of the silk made by this worm is a fine flax-gray; and clothes made of it are not injured by the rain, or oil, and wear long.

Now that the introduction of the silk-worm into France is accomplished, attention is turned to the extension of it industrially; and GUERIN MENEVILLE proposes for this end the making of plantations of *Aylanthus*, a tree that is easily produced on poor soil; then to place the worms upon them in the spring that were hatched in the month of May, and let them eat the leaves. Care is required to preserve them from the birds, and this is proposed, according to the custom in China, by invalid workmen incapable of other work. At the end of June the first crop may be gathered, and a second in August. The cocoons for reproduction should be preserved until the next May, which requires, as with other species of silk-worm, special care in the winter.

## THE SPICE CROP.

From our new contemporary at Penang, the *Argus*, says a Singapore paper, we regret to learn that the death of nutmeg trees "is still going on to such an alarming extent, that it is calculated there will not be a single nutmeg tree left in the island in the course of ten years hence." We much regret to observe that this painful conclusion coincides with that we expressed with reference to Singapore some weeks since. On the part of the government, everything has been done that suggested itself, to avert the evil of which the Straits planters complain. Dr. OXLEY was deputed to proceed to the Moluccas in order to procure seedlings and nuts of the true stock, the expense of his mission being chiefly borne by the government of India, the new stock being supplied at the lowest possible rate. Unfortunately, notwithstanding Dr. OXLEY'S mission, the disease has widely increased, to such an extent as to threaten the annihilation of the important spices, nutmegs and mace, so that speculators are not much disposed to enter upon the culture in the face of certain loss. The large nutmeg plantations belonging to Dr. OXLEY and Mr. PRINSEP exist only in the name, the ground being laid out for building purposes, and such nutmeg trees as remain being retained as ornamental trees. Singapore, like Penang, will in a few years be without nutmeg trees, leaving this branch of the spice trade almost entirely in the hands of our Dutch neighbors.

## THE SYRIAN GRAIN.

The Agricultural Bureau of the United States Patent-office have sent off a number of the specimens of grain obtained from Syrian products to eight southern agricultural societies for trial. The grains sent were such as would not grow in northern latitudes.

## COLORS AS INDICATIVE OF BREED.

Some persons are inclined to give the preference to the darker colors, from the fact that among animals generally the lighter the skin the weaker the energy. Lord BACON seems to have entertained the same idea, when he asserted white to be the color of defect. In some respects white may be regarded as denoting debility. Renewed skin generally produces white hair, and grays become gradually lighter as they advance in years. The most esteemed as well as the most common colors are the bay, gray, brown, black, and chestnut. Some breeds maintain a peculiar and uniform tint. The Flanders horse is usually black.

## AGRICULTURE IN KENTUCKY.

The Assessors of the State of Kentucky have made an interesting return of the agricultural industry of that State. The sums total of all the counties are as follows :—

|                        |             |
|------------------------|-------------|
| Pounds of tobacco..... | 95,493,000  |
| Pounds of hemp.....    | 8,101,000   |
| Tons of hay.....       | 143,000     |
| Bushels of corn.....   | 382,537,000 |
| Bushels of wheat.....  | 5,808,000   |
| Bushels of barley..... | 372,000     |

The aggregate values of these several articles, at the point of production, are as follows :—

|                                  |               |
|----------------------------------|---------------|
| Tobacco, at 6½ c. per pound..... | \$6,207,087   |
| Hemp, at \$112 50 per ton.....   | 455,681       |
| Corn, at 35 c. per bushel.....   | 138,888,274   |
| Wheat, at 95 c. per bushel.....  | 5,517,769     |
| Barley, at 60 c. per bushel..... | 228,282       |
| Hay, at \$14 per ton.....        | 2,008,274     |
|                                  | <hr/>         |
|                                  | \$148,295,361 |

|                                                                                                                       |              |               |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------|---------------|
| The aggregate value of live stock in the State, as returned by the Assessors under the recent law, and estimated..... | \$36,591,760 |               |
| Hogs over 6 months old added, at \$8 per head.....                                                                    | 12,354,192   |               |
|                                                                                                                       | <hr/>        | 48,945,952    |
| Total.....                                                                                                            |              | \$197,241,318 |

The increased production of leading staples of the State of Kentucky, in the year 1859, as compared with 1849, shows important changes, the article of hemp being the only one that shows lessened production, viz. :—

|                          | 1849.        | 1859.        |
|--------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Tobacco.....pounds       | 55,501,000   | 95,493,000   |
| Indian corn.....bushels  | 58,672,000   | 382,537,000  |
| Hemp.....pounds          | 35,574,000   | 8,101,000    |
| Wheat.....bushels        | 2,142,000    | 5,808,000    |
| Barley.....              | 95,000       | 372,000      |
| Hay.....tons             | 113,000      | 143,000      |
| Value of live stock..... | \$29,661,000 | \$50,043,000 |

This return of the quantity of corn produced is amazing, if accurate. There is an apparent increase of seven-fold, and if the return is to be depended on, Kentucky alone produced last year two-thirds as much as the whole Union in 1849, and 6,000,000 bushels more than the whole Union produced in 1840.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION, &c.

STATISTICS OF LIFE.

Do you wish to know how long you are to live? Tables have been prepared with exceeding accuracy, showing the probable duration of human life, stating the chances from birth to the age of one hundred years. These tables are made by taking an average of authentic records of births and deaths, which records have been kept in different countries, climates, and conditions.

Here follows a table, made in France about a hundred years ago, recording only to the age of eighty-five. The first column states the age, and the second the number of years which a person at that age will probably live :—

| Age.          | Years. | Mos. | Age.    | Years. | Mos. |
|---------------|--------|------|---------|--------|------|
| At birth..... | 8      | 0    | 29..... | 28     | 6    |
| 1.....        | 33     | 0    | 30..... | 28     | 0    |
| 2.....        | 38     | 0    | 31..... | 27     | 6    |
| 3.....        | 40     | 0    | 32..... | 26     | 11   |
| 4.....        | 41     | 0    | 33..... | 26     | 3    |
| 5.....        | 41     | 6    | 34..... | 25     | 7    |
| 6.....        | 42     | 0    | 35..... | 25     | 0    |
| 7.....        | 42     | 3    | 36..... | 24     | 5    |
| 8.....        | 41     | 6    | 37..... | 23     | 10   |
| 9.....        | 40     | 10   | 38..... | 23     | 3    |
| 10.....       | 40     | 2    | 39..... | 22     | 8    |
| 11.....       | 39     | 6    | 40..... | 22     | 1    |
| 12.....       | 38     | 9    | 41..... | 21     | 6    |
| 13.....       | 38     | 1    | 42..... | 20     | 11   |
| 14.....       | 37     | 5    | 43..... | 20     | 4    |
| 15.....       | 36     | 9    | 44..... | 19     | 9    |
| 16.....       | 36     | 0    | 45..... | 19     | 3    |
| 17.....       | 35     | 4    | 46..... | 18     | 9    |
| 18.....       | 34     | 8    | 47..... | 18     | 2    |
| 19.....       | 34     | 0    | 48..... | 17     | 8    |
| 20.....       | 33     | 5    | 49..... | 17     | 2    |
| 21.....       | 32     | 11   | 50..... | 16     | 7    |
| 22.....       | 32     | 4    | 55..... | 14     | 0    |
| 23.....       | 31     | 10   | 60..... | 11     | 1    |
| 24.....       | 31     | 3    | 65..... | 8      | 6    |
| 25.....       | 30     | 9    | 70..... | 6      | 2    |
| 26.....       | 30     | 9    | 75..... | 4      | 6    |
| 27.....       | 29     | 7    | 80..... | 3      | 7    |
| 28.....       | 29     | 0    | 85..... | 3      | 0    |

Some interesting facts are deducible from these data. It will be seen that every human being at birth has a prospect of living eight years, while a child one year old has a prospect of living thirty-three years. This shows how important is maternal care during the first year. A man of twenty years may expect to live but thirty-three years and five months, while one at thirty years may expect to live twenty-eight years. By this table it appears that the age at which one may probably hope for the longest duration of life is that of seven. A child at that age may expect to live forty-two years and three months. This is the highest number in the table.

It further appears that at the age of twelve or thirteen a human being has lived one-quarter of his life, because he cannot legitimately expect to live but

about thirty-eight years more. He who has reached his twenty-eighth or ninth year has lived half his days, because he has but the same number remaining. He of fifty years has spent three-quarters of his life, because he has only sixteen or seventeen years to hope for.

Tables of longevity made in late years differ somewhat from the above, and are used by Life Insurance Companies in America and Europe with great confidence.

Here follows the table used now extensively in this country. If we compare it with the one made a hundred years ago in France, we shall find (to use the office phrase) that "life is better" in this country than in France:—

| Age.     | Years and fractions. | Age.     | Years and fractions. |
|----------|----------------------|----------|----------------------|
| 5 .....  | 40.88                | 50 ..... | 21.17                |
| 10 ..... | 39.23                | 55 ..... | 18.85                |
| 15 ..... | 36.17                | 60 ..... | 16.45                |
| 20 ..... | 34.22                | 65 ..... | 12.43                |
| 25 ..... | 32.33                | 70 ..... | 10.06                |
| 30 ..... | 30.25                | 75 ..... | 7.83                 |
| 35 ..... | 28.22                | 80 ..... | 5.85                 |
| 40 ..... | 26.04                | 85 ..... | 4.54                 |
| 45 ..... | 23.92                | 95 ..... | 1.62                 |

These tables are made by including *all* the inhabitants of a State or city. If they should be made by counting *only* the intemperate, licentious, and idle, then the chances of prolonging life would be at least thirty per cent less; and if they should be made by counting only the industrious, temperate, and good, then the chances would be thirty per cent more.

#### POPULATION OF VIRGINIA.

The report of the State Auditor of Virginia contains a summary of the population of the State in 1859, as follows, as compared with the previous returns:—

|                         | White.           | Free Negroes. | Slaves.        | Total.           |
|-------------------------|------------------|---------------|----------------|------------------|
| Tide-water.....         | 235,881          | 37,146        | 193,292        | 466,319          |
| Piedmont.....           | 250,593          | 14,352        | 251,503        | 516,448          |
| Valley.....             | 184,808          | 5,686         | 39,871         | 230,365          |
| Trans-Alleghany.....    | 416,636          | 1,934         | 26,488         | 445,058          |
| <b>Total, 1859.....</b> | <b>1,087,918</b> | <b>59,118</b> | <b>511,154</b> | <b>1,658,190</b> |
| “ 1850.....             | 894,800          | 54,333        | 472,528        | 1,421,661        |
| “ 1840.....             | 740,968          | 49,842        | 448,987        | 1,239,797        |
| “ 1830.....             | 694,300          | 47,348        | 469,757        | 1,211,405        |
| “ 1820.....             | 603,074          | 37,139        | 425,153        | 1,065,366        |
| “ 1810.....             | 551,534          | 30,570        | 392,518        | 974,622          |

The proportion of slaves in the State is now 31 per cent; in 1850 it was 33 per cent; in 1840 it was 36 per cent; in 1830 it was 39 per cent; in 1820 40 per cent; in 1810 41 per cent. Thus, although slaves have increased since 1810, 118,636 in number, the proportion they bear to the whole population has fallen 10 per cent.

The total population is probably larger than is shown above. In making his estimates the Auditor was governed by the returns of the Commissioners of Revenue, which are not generally to be relied upon for accuracy, as will be seen by an examination of the county tables. Take the city of Richmond as an

illustration. The number of white males over 21 years assessed by the State officer, is 1,674 less than by the city officer, for the same year; and so again the State officer finds 220 slaves less than the city officer in the same year. In passing, we may further remark that, to say the very least, gross carelessness is manifest in the returns made to the Auditor by many of the commissioners. We might point out a hundred or more instances, but will now name only one, as an illustration of the general omission of commissioners on subjects of taxation. The increase of population in the whole State since 1850, is:—

|                     |         |                   |
|---------------------|---------|-------------------|
| Whites.....         | 193,118 | 22 per cent gain. |
| Slaves.....         | 38,626  | 8 " " "           |
| Free Negroes.....   | 4,785   | 8 " " "           |
| Total increase..... | 236,529 |                   |

The relative increase of the four districts is reported as follows:—

|                      |                     |                    |
|----------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
|                      | Increase of whites. | Increase of slaves |
| Tide-water.....      | 22 per cent         | 12 per cent        |
| Piedmont.....        | 15 "                | 6 "                |
| Valley.....          | 14 "                | 3 "                |
| Trans-Alleghany..... | 26 "                | 8 "                |

NATIVITIES—POPULATION OF BOSTON AND NEW YORK.

The United States census of 1850, and the State censuses of New York and of Massachusetts, gives the means of comparing the population of the two cities according to nativities, and the results are as follows:—

|                                |         |         |           |         |
|--------------------------------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|
|                                | Boston. |         | New York. |         |
|                                | 1850.   | 1855.   | 1850.     | 1855.   |
| Born in United States.....     | 73,237  | 72,925  | 263,937   | 303,721 |
| “ Ireland.....                 | 52,923  | 68,611  | 133,720   | 175,822 |
| “ Germany.....                 | 2,666   | 4,587   | 55,476    | 95,936  |
| “ Other foreign countries..... | 7,877   | 12,309  | 48,589    | 42,535  |
| Colored.....                   | 2,085   | 2,216   | 13,815    | 11,840  |
| Total.....                     | 138,788 | 162,748 | 515,447   | 629,904 |

In Boston, owing to the great facilities for “spreading” the population into the surrounding towns, there seems to have been a positive decrease in the numbers of native-born citizens, with a large increase in the Irish element. In New York, a similar cause has operated to reduce the per cent of native increase while the proportion of increase is by far the largest in the German element. The number of immigrants who arrived, in New York mostly, in the period mentioned, was 1,893,000 persons, showing how large a proportion pass into the interior.

MEN MONKEYS OF MALACCA—THEIR MODE OF LIFE, MARRIAGE, CUSTOMS, ETC.

A correspondent of the Boston *Traveller* writes from Shanghai an interesting account of the habits of the Jakoons, a barbarous people who inhabit the interior of Malacca. Their language and features are unlike those of the Malays proper, of whom they are also politically independent. They have no history, having been found by the early Portuguese voyagers in the country in which they still reside. They are called the Orang-Benner, or “men of the great country;” the Orang-Hutang, or “men of the forests;” the Orang-Semang, or “black men;” the Jakoons and the Kaiats. Oran is the Malay word for man; and Utan or Hutang

for forest, whence the word so common with us, Ourang-Outang, or wild men, if men they may be called, when common opinion has assigned them a rank hardly above monkeys and baboons.

They generally live in houses built of bamboo sticks, and suspended to the tops of lofty trees, to which they ascend by rude ladders. These cabins, suspended to the tree tops, are so narrow that a stranger cannot be admitted without annoyance to a member of the family, or his exclusion; for one must go down when a new one comes up. Others who have no taste for these aerial abodes—*nests*, not for birds, but for men—construct huts raised two or three feet above the ground. The first story serves for lodging, where they eat and sleep, by the side of a fire always kept brightly burning in order to frighten away the tigers and other wild beasts which fill the forests. In the second story they put their arms for safety, their provisions and kitchen utensils, all of which are comprised in pikes, in earthen pots, and one or two great China bowls.

They eat whatever comes to hand, as wild boars, apes, or birds, which last are taken either in snares or shot by arrows, and the roots and tubers which the earth produces in abundance. If they plant rice, it is only enough to meet their absolute wants. Instead of regular labor, they prefer the fatiguing adventures of the chase, and running among the woods. Their *cuisine* is of the lowest order, their favorite dish being slices of meat half cooked, and still reeking with blood.

Their weddings are preceded by a most singular and ludicrous ceremony. An old man presents the future husband and wife to a large assemblage of invited guests, whom he conducts, followed by their respective families, into a grand circle, around which the young lady, the bride, sets out running *upon all fours*, and the young man who is the bridegroom in the same style after her. If he succeeds in overtaking her she becomes his wife; if not, he forfeits all his rights, and "love's labor is lost." This often happens when the bridegroom fails of pleasing the young lady, who endeavors to escape from the embraces of a distasteful or odious husband by beating him in this queer trotting match.

Upon the death of one of their number they wrap his body in a white winding sheet, and then deposit it in a grave dug near his hut, sometimes in an erect position, sometimes sitting, and sometimes lying down. They are careful to put a lance at his side, a "parang," and a "sumpitan," their instruments of hunting, and of war, but never use any religious ceremony. Still, these weapons placed by the side of the corpse indicate a shadowy belief in a future existence.

Their religion is a confused mass of the grossest superstitions, propagated by the *payans*, a kind of priests, who are half physicians and half jugglers. Their magical sciences is in great esteem with the Malays. The singular kind of life they lead, the peculiarity of their custom, and the long intervals of their appearance among the people, secure for them a certain prestige and respect. Seen from afar, and through a mysterious veil, they pass for beings endowed with superhuman power, to whom the plants and roots of the forests have revealed their most secret virtues. In a word, they are believed to hold in their hands the power of conferring health or inflicting death. In accordance with this belief, the Malays are careful not to provoke their ill-will.

Naturally, the Jakoons are of an open and ingenuous disposition, and withal inclined to gajety. To the appearance of timidity they join the independence

of a life without control, spent in the midst of thick forests and everlasting verdure. Respectful, without being servile, in conversation they use an abrupt and violent tone of voice, which strongly contrasts with their habitual gentleness and modesty. They have strong liquors, and get intoxicated whenever they have an opportunity.

It is honorable to the zeal of the Catholic priests that they have a missionary, who, notwithstanding the low rank of these people in the scale of humanity, the wide territory over which they are scattered, and the thick forests which it is necessary to penetrate to reach them, and the absence of all roads; while ferocious wild beasts are thick at every step, is laboring among them, and makes his home with them.

Such are the people in whom originated the idea and the stories about the *Ourang-Outang*—"the man of the forests."

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## MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

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### ORIGIN OF PAPER MONEY.

One of the primitive forms of symbolic currency in use among the Indians of North America was called "Wampum." It is thus described by ROGER WILLIAMS, of Salem, one of the earliest colonists:—

"It is of two sorts; one white, which is made of the stem or stalk of the periwinkle, when all the shell is broken off; and of this, six small beads, which are made with holes to string bracelets, are current with the English for one penny. The second is black, inclined to blue, and is made of the shell of a fish which some English call "Hens"—poquahock—and of this sort three are equal to one penny; and one fathom of stringed wampum is worth five shillings."

Wampum was introduced into Massachusetts in the year 1628, from Manhades, now known as New York, and it appears from the description given of it by Governor BRADFORD, of Massachusetts, to have enriched the tribes by whom it was invented and manufactured, and to have greatly benefited the colonists, as it enabled both to get rid of the inconveniences of barter, which are among us perpetuated in the vulgar use of bits of bullion. Governor BRADFORD thus writes of symbolic wampum:—

"That which in time turns most to our advantage, is their now acquainting and entering us into the trade of wampum, by which and provisions we quite cut off the trade both from the fishermen and straggling planters. And strange it is to see the great alteration it, in a few years, makes among the savages, for the Massachusetts and others in these parts had scarce any, it being only made and kept among the Pequots and Narragansetts, who grew rich and potent by it, whereas the rest who use it not are poor and beggarly."

In 1763, when Pontiac, the powerful chief of the whole Northwest of American Continent, made war against the English, he issued representative money, in the form of bills of credit or promises to pay, in hieroglyphics of his own invention, with the figure of an otter, his arms being beneath. This is affirmed in a scarce work, published in London in 1765, called "A concise account of North America, by Major ROBERT ROGERS." The Major visited Pontiac, after peace

was ratified, in the course of his travels through the country, and saw that currency. He observes that the whole emission was duly redeemed.

The following account of the first issue of paper money in Europe, is taken from WASHINGTON IRVING'S Chronicle of the Conquest of Granada :—

“ After the city of Alhambra was taken from the Moors, the veteran Count DE TENDILLA was left governor, and we were informed that this Catholic cavalier at one time was destitute of gold and silver wherewith to pay the wages of his troops ; and the soldiers murmured greatly, seeing that they had not the means of purchasing necessaries from the people of the towns. In this dilemma what does this most sagacious commander ? He takes him a number of little morsels of paper, on which he inscribes various sums, large and small, according to the nature of the case, and signs them with his own hand and name. These did he give to the soldiery in earnest of their pay. How ! you will say, are soldiers to be paid with scraps of paper ? Even so, I answer, and well paid too, as I will presently make manifest ; for the good count issued a proclamation ordering the inhabitants of Alhambra to take these morsels of paper for the full amount thereon inscribed, promising to redeem them at a future time with silver and gold, and threatening severe punishment to all who should refuse. The people having full confidence in his words, and trusting that he would be as willing to perform the one promise, as he certainly was able to perform the other, took those curious morsels of paper without hesitation or demur. Thus by a subtle and most mysterious kind of alchemy did this Catholic cavalier turn useless paper into precious gold, and make his impoverished garrison abound in money. It is but just to add that the Count of Tendilla redeemed his promise like a loyal knight ; and this miracle, as it appeared in the eyes of ANTONIO AGREPIEDA, is the first instance on record in Europe of paper money, which has since inundated the civilized world with unbounded opulence.”

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#### UNTANNED LEATHER.

The variety of leather known as “ Hungarian leather,” at present used chiefly for harness and other similar purposes, is not prepared by *tanning*, but by impregnating the hide with alum, common salt, and oil. It differs essentially from that which is tanned and curried ; for tanned leather consists, as is well known, not of the *gelatine* of which the hide is composed, joined with the *tannin* in mechanical union, but of a third substance, *tanno-gelatine*, as distinct from both as water or air are distinct from the gases of which they are respectively composed. The Hungarian leather, on the contrary, consists of the original fibrous tissue of the hides dried, contracted, and slightly changed in nature, but not converted into true leather. Another difference between the Hungarian and ordinary leather consists in the fact that the skins prepared by the first method lose, on an average, one-half of their original weight. This kind of leather can be prepared for market in three weeks in summer, and in about double that time in winter. The leather may be made at all seasons of the year, since the injurious effects of temperature can easily be counteracted.

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#### DIFFICULTIES AND DANGERS OF BANK OFFICERS.

We commend the following remarks from a cotemporary to those young men who are seeking situations in banking institutions :—In our cities and business towns there are no situations so eagerly sought after by young men who think they have any qualifications for such places as employment in our banking institutions. Young men argue that as bank officers are apparently employed but

five or six hours per day, they must necessarily have an easy time of it; and when they hear of salaries ranging from six hundred to fifteen hundred dollars, and once in a while up to two thousand dollars per annum, they fancy that if they could get such a place they would be completely satisfied.

Those who think thus, judge very superficially. They look only at the surface of things. It is true that the number of hours per day in which bank officers are engaged is less than that of most other occupations, and fortunate is it that it is so, or those officers would entirely break down under their combined labor and responsibility. The responsibility that accrues to a bank officer from his position is the element which secures him a large salary, as it should. Take a teller's position for instance. He is counting money unintermittingly five or six hours per day. His faculties must all the time be on the stretch or otherwise he will take counterfeit money, or pay out more money than the check which is presented for payment bears upon its face. After the business of the day is over he must balance his cash. Half the time it is wrong, and then comes a hunt which sometimes extends into the next day before the error is found. Meanwhile the teller goes home—to sleep—nay, to dream of losses of money, loss of his situation, responsibility of his bondsmen, and, perhaps, loss of character, and all for no fault of his own.

Such a state of mind—the inseparable companion of all bank officers in the commencement of their banking life, is but ill paid for by any amount of money, and if the officer is of sensitive organization, he generally grows the more sensitive the longer he continues in the business. He may be entirely honest himself, but he does not know and never can know that his associates in the bank will also be and continue honest; but he knows that if and when a fraud is perpetrated in the bank, there is great chance of his being involved in it, however innocent he may be.

Talk of the large salaries of our banking officers in view of these risks and these responsibilities. The salaries are not half large enough. Any other business which crowded upon men such a weight of responsibility, would pay double what our banking institutions pay for it. Nor is this all. Certain banks prohibit the executive officers thereof from loaning money on the demand of presidents or directors. Now and then, however, a president or director, in defiance of this salutary rule, importunes the teller, and if he refuses, the cashier, for such loans. If either of these officers refuse, they know that the soliciting director or president will use his influence against their retention in office, whenever that director or president may get an opportunity, for any president or director who will thus induce a subordinate officer to violate the rules of the bank, will be mean enough to use his influence against that subordinate if he is true to his trust. If the officer yields, the bank is endangered; if he refuses, his own situation is in jeopardy.

Within a few years cases like the former have occurred in Boston, and in one instance a bank was ruined by the operation. In that case the cashier was censured; but before that censure was made the community should have known the pressure upon him by those who, from their position, were really the offending parties. It was said that the cashier should have been more firm, but it would have required almost superhuman firmness to have met the case properly.

From these and other considerations we have always advised our friends never to engage as officers of banking corporations. Better, far better, to do twice as much work in an avocation which involves less responsibility. There is an old saying, that "all is not gold which glitters," and this is peculiarly applicable to bank officers. When you see them with calm countenances and apparently void of care, do not imagine that their minds are quiet. The most of them have studied to keep up an external appearance of ease; but if you could know the weight of responsibility which rests upon them and their nervousness, you would covet neither their places nor their salaries.

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#### FOREIGN INVESTMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

A writer who has had access to the books of the subtreasury in New York, where the interest on about seven-eighths of the public debt of the United States is paid, says:—

These books are a curious study. Many of the names they contain are household words. Some are the names of Europeans, others of West Indians, and even Asiatics. Barely a third of the public debt is held in this country. The bulk of it, we imagine, is held in continental Europe. One is not surprised to find the names of JOHN J. ASTOR, WILLIAM B. ASTOR, JACOB LITTLE, GEORGE PEABODY, and such men, in the list of the creditors of the United States, but they and their countrymen are in a minority.

The heaviest foreign creditor we noticed is LORD OVERSTONE, (the famous JOHN LLOYD,) who has lent this country no less than \$350,000. A Spanish lady, MERCED DE LASSES, is our creditor in the sum of \$200,000, and a noble friend of hers, the Count CASA MONTLOVOY CASTILLO, draws six per cent on \$100,000. Several persons connected with the royal families of Europe are our creditors. The brother of the King of Naples took \$50,000 some years ago and instructed his agent to invest the dividends as they accrued in the same security. He now owns over \$75,000. His niece, the daughter of BOMBA, is registered as a creditor for over \$50,000. These wise people have been looking out for a rainy day. Another noble personage, the late Duchess of Orleans, has enough in the United States sixes to save the Count of Paris from being compelled to follow his grandfather's example, and keep school. Several of the SAXE COBURG GOTHAS have also invested in the same security.

The Count Rossi saw enough of this country while he was here to invest a few thousands in the famous name of SONTAG; and little PAUL JULIEN has a trifle—enough to keep him when his violin fails. One can readily account for the appearance of the name of the ROTHSCHILDS, both in London and Paris; but it is curious that the famous publisher, PONCHONCKE, of Paris, is a creditor of the United States, and that the dramatic author, SCRIBE, has also invested enough to give him nearly 10,000 francs a year. A careful study of democracy in America appears to have persuaded Monsieur TOCQUEVILLE to lodge some of his savings in the hands of our government; and Lord MACAULEY, who began with a bagatelle of some \$5,000, has since increased his venture to nearly \$30,000.

But we shall never end if we attempt to enumerate all the people who have the money placed in United States securities. Here are LORD DUNDONALD, the great sailor, who has a large sum for a son of NEPTUNE; the Prince DE BEAUVÉAU, the Count DE NARBOUNE, Sir JOHN BAILEY, the Marquis of CHAMPAGNE, BARING BROTHERS, Count DE BEAUMONT, General BERMALOFF, and a host of titled people, who, perhaps, depend upon the honesty and solvency of the United States government for a living.

Lord ELGIN saw enough of us to leave \$17,000 of his savings in our six per

cents, and the famous Russian, ALEXANDER HERZEN, has a bagatelle of \$80,000 in the same security. There is another creditor, whose name is a curiosity. It runs thus. BARON LOUIS NUMA EPAMINONDAS JUSTINIAN ARISTIDES DECIUS SALUS HALDENSTEIN DICHENSTEIN GERTENSTEIN. Fancy a man with such a name drawing \$26 50 from the United States.

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#### WASHINGTON ON CURRENCY.

At a meeting of the New York Board of Currency, held recently, Mr. JOHN V. YATMAN presented a letter written by General WASHINGTON upon the subject of the then existing "continental rags," which had succeeded the colonial currency, or "bills of credit," issued by the several colonies. The soundness of his views are the more remarkable when we remember that he had not then the light of the French assignat system, the suspension of the Bank of England, or the results of our own experience, to judge them by. The letter we record as a curiosity:—

MOUNT VERNON, February 27, 1787.

DEAR SIR:—Your favor of the 30th ult. came duly to hand. To give an opinion in a cause of so much importance as that which has warmly agitated the two branches of your Legislature, and which, from the appeal that is made, is likely to create great and perhaps dangerous divisions, is rather a delicate matter; but as this diversity of opinion is on a subject which has, I believe, occupied the minds of most men, and as my sentiments thereon have been fully and decidedly expressed long before the Assembly, either of Maryland or this State, was convened, I do not scruple to declare that if I had a voice in your Legislature it would be given decidedly against a paper emission, upon the general principle of its utility as a representative, and the necessity of it as a medium. To assign reason for this opinion would be as unnecessary as tedious—the ground has been so often trod that a place hardly remains untouched; in a word, the necessity arising from a want of specie is represented as greater than it really is. I contend that it is by the substance not the shadow of a thing that we are to be benefited.

The wisdom of man, in my humble opinion, cannot at this time devise a plan by which the credit of paper money would be long supported; consequently, depreciation keeps pace with the quantity of emission, and articles for which it is exchanged rise to a greater ratio than the sinking value of the money. Wherein, then, is the farmer, the planter, and artisan benefited? The debtor may be, because, as I have observed, he gives the shadow in lieu of the substance, and in proportion to his gain the creditor or body politic suffers. Whether a legal tender or not, it will, as has been observed very truly, leave no alternative. It must be that or nothing. An evil equally great is the door it immediately opens for speculation, by which the least designing and perhaps most valuable part of the community are preyed upon by the more knowing and crafty speculators. But, contrary to my intention and declaration, I am offering reasons in support of my opinion; reasons, too, which, of all others, are least pleasing to the advocates for paper money. I shall therefore only observe, generally, that so many people have suffered by former emissions, that, like a burnt child who dreads the fire, no person will touch it who can possibly avoid it, the natural consequence of which will be, that the specie which remains unexported will be instantly locked up.

With great esteem and regard, I am, dear sir, &c.,

GEO. WASHINGTON.

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#### TRICK OF TRADE.

It has been decided in England that tradesmen ticketing their goods for sale in their windows at a specific sum, cannot be compelled to sell such goods at the prices marked.

## COMMERCIAL HONESTY.

The Rev. HENRY WARD BEECHER recently delivered the inaugural lecture before the Mercantile Library Association of Boston. The lecture was entitled "The Bargain Makers." In that portion of his lecture referring to the laxity of morals which is said to exist in commercial circles, and necessary to its success, he says:—

"It is an aspersion on commerce, to be disdained by every man, that it makes laxity of morals indispensable to success. Practical commerce is founded in equity. Beginning in the wants of men, every step, when best conducted, is deficient. Benevolence and public good, based in equity, are the thoughts that God had when he ordained commerce, and therefore it is that in spite of the short sighted ambition of men, commerce works out the largest measure of public good, and world-wide beneficence. It is, therefore, not necessary that men should be less than honest in order that they may be successful merchants. I put my foot, as on scorpion's eggs, upon that maxim that a man must be dishonest to succeed.

"Success requires that a man should be the largest pattern of a man; it is the half and quarter part of men, it is the infinitesimal men who have degraded commerce. The great want in bargain makers is moral faith. Men are seldom found who dare to trust themselves implicitly to their principles. The last thing men learn to trust is the inevitable safety of truth and principle. They esteem truth, they respect honesty, they revere honor, but they dare not follow them except in the sunshine and on the ground, and when these divine qualities come to them walking a tempestuous sea in the night, and bid them come forth from the tossed ship, then, like Peter, they sink; but alas! unlike Peter, no hand plucks them from the wave, and down they go to the mud at the bottom."

The relations of commerce to politics were next touched upon, and the essential relations of commerce to the public weal declared to be such that there could be no justification of political selfishness, for anything in commerce that goes wrong, in the matter of politics and true public weal, is a blunder, and blunder means a crime and universal laughter. It is a wrong known and laughed at, and being laughed at, is next to perdition in common folks' estimation. The permanent well-being of commerce depends upon the moral life of the whole community. All forms of social vice, all demoralization of public opinion, all circumscription of human right, all limitations of the condition of the citizen, are a damage in the end to commerce.

Political life, founded upon political justice, and the contentment of the citizen, built upon the recognition of all his rights, is the very prosperity and permanence of commerce. It is not the church nor the pulpit that needs morality most, although they might still use profitably a little more; it is not art and refinement that most require to stand upon equity and purity; every wheel that revolves in a factory is a plea for justice, every thread in the loom, every blow on the anvil, every machine, every shop, every store, if the voice of their necessity could be heard, would plead for rectitude and justice between man and man; every man damaged by injustice in a community, is a lack in that community, its laws and institutions; and where a whole class of men is wronged, the whole ship drinks water, and must be instantly bailed or sink. Therefore it is a shame that the merchant should ever weigh in his scales moral principle against profit. The men in our land, who have sold their political principles for pelf, have been paid in bankruptcy, thank God! So long as the divine example of Christ shall teach the world that death for the sake of rectitude is resurrection into

immortality; so long shall everywhere the example of Judas teach that they who sell Christ for pieces of silver, shall at last in their despair cast down their profits and hang themselves. And in all questions of public morals, all questions of religious freedom, all questions of right and wrong, that merchant who takes the side of injustice, is a suicide, and if angels were to write the man's epitaph on his tombstone, it would be found in one word—"fool!" The ways of God are straight, and no man can pervert the inflexibility of Divine justice. Not into the nature of man himself is the necessity of rectitude wrought more than into the framework of human society. The way of integrity may seem hard, but it ends in the orchard and the garden, as sure as there is a God; unmistakable flowers may blossom in the ways of wrong, and the blandishments of deceit may wile men into fancied security, but the end is inevitable destruction here and damnation hereafter.

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BANK COMMITTEE OF 1856.

REPORT OF EVIDENCE TAKEN BEFORE THE BANK ACT COMMITTEE, 1856.

Mr. CHAPMAN, manager for the great house of OVEREND, GURNEY & Co., gave evidence as follows before the bank committee of 1856.

Five joint-stock banks in London hold £35,000,000 of deposits, and allow interest upon them about one per cent under the bank charge. The Bank of England never allows interest on deposits, and its private deposits have remained stationary for many years. The largest bills are drawn in the East India and China trades. The Irish banks are required to have their specie in four fixed places of deposit; the Scotch banks are allowed to retain their own bullion. The use of large notes in England is greatly decreasing, while that of £5 or £10 notes is greatly increasing. The gold coinage in circulation in the kingdom is estimated at £59,000,000. The Bank of England holds upwards of forty government accounts. A Bank of England note is not a legal tender in Scotland or Ireland. The English country banks are £1,000,000 below their authorized issue; the Scotch and Irish are as much above it. The Court of Chancery has generally from £300,000 to £500,000 in the Bank of England. The governor of the bank can raise the rate of interest without consulting the court of directors if he chooses; £4,000,000 out of £6,000,000 of the dividends every quarter go into the hands of the bankers. The deposits of the banks in Scotland are no less than £50,000,000, and the gold held by them under £1,000,000. In 1852, first-class bills were discounted as low as  $1\frac{1}{4}$  per cent.

There is more than one capitalist who can withdraw from the circulating medium £1,000,000 or £2,000,000 of notes, if they have an object to attain by it—to knock down the funds and create a scarcity. One morning there was a great demand for money in the Stock Exchange; nobody knew how it was; a person came and asked me whether I would lend money; I said "certainly." He said, "I will take £50,000 of you at 7 per cent." I was astonished; our rate of money was much below that; I said, "You shall have it." He came back for £50,000 more at  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. He afterwards came back for £100,000 at 8 per cent, and again came back for some at  $8\frac{1}{2}$  per cent; I said, "Sir, I am frightened, I do not know what this means." It afterwards turned out that there

had been a sudden withdrawal of money from the market, which created the immense pressure. I did lend a large sum at 8 per cent; I was afraid to go beyond; I did not know what was coming; but it is in the power of great capitalists to do that under a very low state of the circulating medium.

We have had an extraordinary amount of bullion arriving from Australia, and even from America, entirely beyond all calculation, coming from the bowels of the earth, which has kept us alive during this extraordinary demand upon us for war and other purposes. We have looked to the arrival of these vessels from Australia, as much almost as to anything else, to know whether we were safe in going on with our business. The destinies of the country seem to have hung on their arrival.

Commercial capital does not consist in money alone; capital is in a man's intelligence, in a man's stability of character, and a variety of things, which give him that position in the community which we call capital.

Capitalists avail themselves of these crises to make enormous profits out of the ruin of the people who fall victims to them. There can be no doubt about it.

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#### DAYS OF GRACE ON COMMERCIAL PAPER.

A correspondent of the New York *Evening Post* furnishes the following information upon this subject:—

In the following States of the Union it has been provided by statute that days of grace be allowed on bills of exchange payable at sight:—Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, North Carolina, South Carolina, Ohio, Wisconsin.

In the following States, days of grace are allowed on bills of exchange payable at sight, although not enacted by statute—Alabama, Indiana, Kentucky, Texas.

In Louisiana a decision has been made in one of the inferior courts, allowing days of grace on sight bills, but the usage is to pay on presentation.

In Vermont and Connecticut days of grace are disallowed by statute on bills payable at sight.

In the following States, days of grace are not allowed on bills payable at sight, by the usage among banks and merchants, but no legal decisions have confirmed this usage law—Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Georgia, Florida, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Tennessee.

In Arkansas, the statute provides that "foreign and inland bills shall be governed by the law of merchants as to days of grace, protest, and notice."

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#### THE STOMACH AND THE MIND.

Much of our conduct depends, no doubt, upon the character of the food we eat. Perhaps, indeed, the nature of our meals governs the nature of our impulses more than we are inclined to admit, because none of us relish well the abandonment of our idea of free agency. Bonaparte used to attribute the loss of one of his battles to a poor dinner, which, at the time, disturbed his digestion. How many of our misjudgments—how many of our deliberate errors—

how many of our unkindnesses, our cruelties, our acts of thoughtlessness and recklessness, may be actually owing to a cause of the same character? We eat something that deranges the condition of the system. Through the stomaclic nerve that derangement immediately affects the brain. Moroseness succeeds amiability; and under its influence we do that which would shock our sensibility at any other moment. Or, perhaps, a gastric irregularity is the common result of an over-indulgence in wholesome food, or a moderate indulgence in unsuitable food. The liver is afflicted. In this affliction the brain profoundly sympathizes. The temper is soured; the understanding is narrowed; prejudices are strengthened; generous impulses are subdued; selfishness, originated by physical disturbances which perpetually distract the mind's attention, becomes a chronic mental disorder; the feeling of charity dies out; we live for ourselves alone; we have no care for others. And all this change of nature is the consequence of an injudicious diet.

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#### THE SOCIETY ISLANDS AND THEIR ORANGE TRADE.

Since the discovery of gold in California, a large trade in oranges has sprung up between that country and the Society Islands, where this delicious fruit grows in great profusion. Most of the oranges come from three islands of the group—Tahiti (where the French have a garrison,) Hauhina, and Roetea. About 5,000,000 of oranges are annually exported, for which about \$7 50 per thousand is paid, delivered on board ship. The trade is in the hands of a few foreign merchants at Papute, in Tahiti, who take foreign goods in exchange for the fruit, which is gathered and brought to them by the natives. The oranges are passed down from the trees by youngsters, and gathered by the women into baskets made of the leaves of the cocoanut tree, and taken thence to the place at which the vessel is lying to receive them. There they are placed in a long thatched house, and when collected in sufficient numbers, are wrapped in leaves by the women. A smart woman will wrap 1,200 oranges in a day, by which she can earn about eighty cents. The fruit grows luxuriantly in every direction, in gulleys and ravines which run from the seaside up the steep mountains. The oranges grow wild, but the trees are claimed in districts by different natives, through hereditary descent. Before the California trade gave a special value to the fruit, it was free as water, and almost as common. The natives formerly made an intoxicating liquor, called orange rum, from it, but this practice is now given up. The orange season commences in February and ends in September, during which time the trees may be seen at once in the various stages of blossoming, green and half yellow, and ripe fruit. In the spring time the fruit is picked green; in the summer, half yellow, and in the fall full ripe, those being the conditions in which they are found by experience to keep best for exportation. California consumes nearly the whole crop of fruit.

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#### WEIGHTS.

The standard of weights was originally taken from the ears of wheat, whence the lowest denomination of weights we have is still called a grain.

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**THE BOOK TRADE.**


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- 1.—*Engineering Precedents of Steam Machinery*; embracing the performances of steamships, experiments with propelling instruments, condensers, boilers, &c., &c. By B. F. ISHERWOOD, Chief Engineer United States Navy. 8vo., pp. 231. New York: Bailliere Brothers.

The contents of this work consist of several papers relating chiefly to boilers and fuel, though incidental subjects are treated as they arise in natural connection, and are accounts of experiments ordered by the United States Navy Department, and made by boards of naval engineers, of which the author was a member. The first paper describes the experiments made at the New York Navy Yard, to determine the comparative evaporative efficiencies of the hard, or anthracite, the Trevorton, semi-anthracite, and the Cumberland, semi-bituminous coals, the three kinds in general use for steam vessels and land engines in the United States. The third is taken up with an account of the experiments made with the Prosser boiler, as is the fourth and fifth with those patented by Messrs. Ellis and Chief Engineer D. B. Martin, United States Navy. The importance of this scientific analysis can readily be comprehended when the immense amount of coals consumed in generating steam is considered, and the saving which thereby can be attained by a correct knowledge of the relative value of each system through the aid of these experiments, which, bearing as they do the seal of the government, entitles them to the fullest confidence.

- 2.—*Archæia*; or, Studies of the Cosmogony and Natural History of the Hebrew Scriptures. By J. W. DAWSON, LL. D., F. G. S., author of "Acadian Geology," &c. 12mo., pp. 400. Montreal: B. Dawson & Son; also for sale by D. Appleton, New York.

This work is the production of a teacher of geology, and is the result of a close study of those parts of the Bible having to do with the creation, and the affinity or relation they bear to the geological theories held at the present day. To theologians and those in pursuit of the knowledge we have of God and his works, both natural and revealed, this is a very interesting as well as valuable book, being written in a clear and perspicuous style which readily presents to the mind of the reader the precise ideas of the author, free from all verbiage; presenting on the one hand to naturalists a summary of what the Bible does actually teach respecting the early history of the earth and man; and on the other a view of the points in which the teaching of the Bible comes in contact with natural science at its present stage of progress. Thoughtful, intelligent readers will find in this volume that which will repay them both the cost of the volume and the time spent in its perusal.

- 3.—*Loss and Gain*; or Margaret's Home. By ALICE B. HAVEN. 12mo., pp. 315. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Embraces a most pleasing and instructive story. Its tone is spirited, and many of its passages sparkling. The authoress has a pen for the tender and sentimental, which, in some paragraphs, displays itself admirably, and, as a whole, is far above the average, both in point of moral and instruction, of the mass of publications of this sort.

- 4.—*Earnest Bracebridge*; or, School Boy Days. By W. H. G. KINGSTON. 12mo., pp. 344. Boston: Ticknor & Field.

Here we have a fine christmas present in a beautifully illustrated and earnestly written tale after the style of "School Days at Rugby," filled up with adventure, and told in that happy strain which is sure to enlist the attention of the young.

- 5.—*The White Hills*; their Legends, Landscape, and Poetry. By THOMAS STARR KING, with sixty illustrations, engraved by Andrew, from drawings by Wheelock. 4to., pp. 403. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

Two groups of mountains there are included under the general title of the White Hills situate in New Hampshire, which, from their loveliness and grandeur have lately attracted much attention, and thousands there are who are induced during the summer months to spend their time and money by making pilgrimages to this spot, to be refreshed by the draperies of verdure, shadow, cloud, and color that are hung by the Creator around and above these hills. As for ourselves we never shall forget the day we stood upon a projection of Mount Washington looking at the fantastic photographs which the bridle mountain sides presented, with the mist twining around their tops, at times smothering their peaks, and anon the south wind tearing them apart to let their grim heads look out, towering high above, and sharp as spears. No one who has seen this picture of ever-changing beauty will easily rid himself of the impression left upon the senses, or help receiving a lesson of fortitude in making the ascent. This book is devoted to the scenery of this mountain region, and intended as sort of guide for future pilgrims, showing from which points the noblest views are to be gained, what are the characteristics of each district, &c., &c. The book is among the handsomest we have seen in a long time, in the way of mechanical execution, and does infinite credit to the publishers, Messrs. Crosby, Nichols & Co.

- 6.—*Wild Southern Scenes*; a tale of Disunion and Border War. By J. B. JONES, author of "Wild Western Scenes." 12mo., pp. 500. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brother.

This, though purely a work of fiction, is, in many respects, a remarkable book, as much on account of its novelty as anything else. The scenes are laid principally in Virginia and the South, in which the author labors to portray in his suppositious history the ill and direful effects of disunion. There is a good deal of ingenuity and invention, as well as some extraordinary flights of imagination, required in weaving together the thread of such a story, and in these requirements Mr. Jones seems to be fully up to the mark, as for stirring events and warlike achievements, accompanied by grape-shot and rifle balls, it bears the gree of anything we have read in a long time. There is enough in this book to terrify the strongest mind—purely imaginative though it be; and if it but have the effect of opening the eyes of the more conservative to the terrible results that will follow the sectional madness and folly now disturbing the country, by drawing the bands of union much closer in various sections of our republic, Mr. Jones' labor will not have been in vain, and we shall feel inclined to regard him in the light of a public benefactor, rather than that of a sensation story writer.

- 7.—*Lizzy Glenn*; or the Trials of a Seamstress. By T. S. ARTHUR. 12mo., pp. 253. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.

Is another of the many domestic tales from that prolific author, T. S. Arthur, which, though destitute of that brilliant action and stirring interest, with which novelists usually bring out their heroes and heorines, still points to a definite moral, and may be considered good wholesome reading matter for the young.

- 8.—*Mary Staunton*; or the Pupils of Marvel Hall. By the author of "Portraits of my Married Friends." 12mo., pp. 398. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Appears to be an exceedingly well written and spirited tale, showing up the *modus operandi* of the boarding school system, and the evils existing therein, which it does pretty effectually. We recommend it heartily to all young misses contemplating leaving home for the "sweet simplicities" and genial hospitalities of boarding shool life.

- 9.—*Great Facts*; a Popular History and Description of the most remarkable Inventions during the present Century. By FREDERICK C. BAKEWELL, author of "Philosophical Conversations," &c. Illustrated with numerous engravings. 12mo., pp. 307. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The progress of a country is exhibited in no stronger light than by the many important inventions and contrivances by which labor is shorn of its drudgery, and time and space annihilated. Thus by the combined efforts of inventive genius during the last half century, while steam navigation was facilitating the means of intercourse over rivers and seas, and whilst railways and locomotive engines served to bring distant cities within a few hours' journey of each other, another source of power, infinitely more rapid than steam, has been made to transmit intelligence from one country to another with the speed of lightning. It has been the author's aim in this treatise, not only to make the reader acquainted with the successive steps by which these series of inventions have been brought to their present perfection, but also to give a description of the mechanisms and processes by which they are effected; so far, at least, as to render the principles on which their actions depend understood. These are wholesome lessons, especially for youth, as the knowledge gained is eminently practical, and well calculated to give accelerated impulse to inventive minds, thereby acting as an agent in promoting further discoveries.

- 10.—*True Womanhood. A Tale.* By JOHN NEAL. 12mo., pp. 487. Boston: Ticknor & Fields.

"Having long entertained a notion that women have souls," (we quote from the author's preface, and would not for a moment be considered heretical on the subject ourselves.) "or something of the sort, call them what you may; that they have not only a right to think for themselves, but to act for themselves, and take the consequences, here and hereafter, without being accountable to us, any more than we are to them; and that marriage is not always the best thing, nor the one thing needful for them, whatever it may be to us," he has written this tale for illustration. Taking advantage of incidents which occurred in the great commercial paralysis of 1857-58, he attempts to show how different characters and temperaments are differently affected by the same events and circumstances, and how they are brought to different conclusions by the very same evidence, and also what true womanhood is equal to and capable of, under some of the most trying circumstances of life. A worthy theme truly, and worth the consideration of our modern dames who seem to think that woman has become a doll, to be fettered with petticoats and gilded meshes of lace to be carried out, instead of an active helpmeet to man.

- 11.—*Life of Lafayette.* Written for children. By E. CECIL. Illustrated. 12mo., pp. 218. Boston: Crosby, Nichols & Co.

This little memoir of our ancient friend, Lafayette, is an effort to interest American youth in the character and history of one who stood so near our own Washington during the stormy times of the Revolution, and whose after life was so varied and remarkable. The moral tone of the book is excellent, and we think it unexceptionable as a holyday present.

- 12.—*Sword and Gown.* By the author of "Guy Livingstone." 12mo., pp. 308. Boston: Ticknor & Field.

This will be found no prosy essay setting forth the value, purity, or effective services rendered by the pontifical mitre, or he who adjusts the balance with carnal weapons. We should take it that the author's mind is too much *distracted* to well fix itself on meditative subjects. However, it cannot well be said he "beareth the sword in vain," either considering the interesting tale here given us, which will be found written with considerable felicity of style, and well calculated to please the *haut ton* to whom it would appear to cater.