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AND

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COTTON AND ITS CULTURE.

IMPORTANCE OF A MACHINE AND A PROCESS TO COTTONIZE FLAX INTO FIBRILIA, IN AID OF THE DEMAND FOR COTTON, BY A YEARLY INCREASE OF 6,000,000 OF SPINDLES, REQUIRING 800,000 BALES OF COTTON, AND, IN TEN YEARS, A SUPPLY OF 13,500,000 BALES TO CLOTHE THE WORLD.—THE CHANGE OF COMMERCE EFFECTED IN THE LINEN TRADE, ON THE DISCOVERY OF WHITNEY'S GIN, 1795, AND THE PECULIAR STAPLE OF AMERICAN COTTON TO MAKE MACHINE GOODS.—PHYSICAL CAUSES OF THE SEA AND TRADE-WINDS GIVING EXTRA HEAT AND MOISTURE OUTSIDE OF THE TROPIC OF CANCER.—THE TRUE CAUSE OF OUR UNIQUE CLASS OF COTTON.—A TABLE FROM BLODGET'S CLIMATOLOGY OF HEAT AND MOISTURE IN THE COTTON STATES.

We commend the editors of the MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE and the Chamber of Commerce of New-York for discussing, and for your endeavors to cottonize, flax, by discovering a machine and a *cheap process* for this important object. It is a great necessity for genius to accomplish, and worth a premium from the government of $100,000, and even a larger sum.

WHITNEY, by his invention of the cotton gin, 1795, enabled one laborer to do the work of 350 in a day. Judge JOHNSON, in his charge in a suit brought in Savannah, 1807, to make good his patent, says: "The whole of the interior was languishing, and its inhabitants were emigrating for want of some object to engage their attention and employ their industry, when the invention of this machine at once opened views to them which set the whole country in active motion. From childhood to age it has presented us a lucrative employment. Individuals who were depressed with poverty and sunk in idleness, have suddenly risen to wealth and respectability. Our debts have been paid off, our capitals have increased and our lands trebled in value. We cannot express the weight of obliga-

tion which the country owes to this invention. The extent of it cannot *now* be seen."

This invention, with the adaptation of the climate of the Southern States, with heat and moisture outside of the Tropic of Cancer to raise our peculiar Upland cotton, warp and weft being combined in the same sample grown from perennial, acclimatized seed, procured by us from Egypt, Mexico and Nanking, China, and made an *annual* plant by quick growth, in what may be called a *natural hot-bed*, extending from Cape Hatteras to East Texas, has done wonders for commerce, to clothe and Christianize the world, and to pay balances of productive industry.

We have still a great field, to introduce cheap covering to the savages of Africa, Asia and the Polynesian Islands, by cottonizing flax and increasing the growth of cotton over the world. Let us all work together for this object, and "*be thankful for the good the gods give us*," to use the language of the Latins. Let us continue to produce our unique cottons, not grown in such perfection in any parts of the tropics from the want of rains *during the summer months*—a class of cotton so indispensable to Europe, with its peculiar staple, easily manufactured into *machine goods*, and thus continue to lay Europe under contribution to us, in an exchange of productive industry for theirs, with the balance in our favor.

It is within the memory of the writer, who entered an East India counting-house in Philadelphia, 1804, that at that period our intercourse was brisk with Ireland. Cargoes on cargoes of flax-seed were shipped to that country to supply the deficit in seed, caused by their pulling up flax in its unripe state, to manufacture into fine linens of the higher numbers, and also in the lower numbers from the mature flax, both classes being used in those days by the rich and the poor. There were few so poor to use, for shirting, the cotton cloths, the guwahs, the baftas, the mamordies, &c., we then imported from India through the port of Calcutta, where we yearly sent a ship and the hard Spanish dollars to buy them; with three or four other ships from Philadelphia for mixed cargoes, principally of sugar, indigo, rice, saltpetre, and a small assortment of muslins. At this period, not to exceed two ships sailed from New-York, and three or four to Canton, and not one from Baltimore. Salem took the lead of Boston and New-York, in the East India trade. The cotton cloths of India were spun and woven by hand, and of a much inferior quality to our machine-made cotton cloths and prints of the present day, yet we sold them for double and treble prices. We also received at that time fine jaconets, mull-mulls, dacca, shear and fine book-muslins, produced by the hand labor of the natives, with their patient industry expended on fine short, woolly staple cotton, but costing very high prices. Yellow nankeens from the Nanking cotton of China, a strong article, were imported in large quantities.

During the war of the Revolution the daughters of our farmers and wealthy citizens learned to spin, and many to weave. It was a matter of pride and necessity to be independent on their marriage, and to take their husbands their linens, sheeting, towelling, napkins, &c., as their trousseau. We well recollect in those days custom made it necessary that our females, except of the poorer class, (and they were employed to spin with foot-power on the small wheel,) had to spin and weave their marriage outfit, their dower or trousseau.

After commerce re-opened with Ireland, we had very extensive stores of

linen in all our sea-board cities, established mainly by persons with large capitals, who sold linen alone, and at such low prices, comparatively, that they soon broke down our domestic manufactures of flax. We can also recollect when the linen trade, in part participated in by Germany, was a great branch of our commerce; when German redemptionists, male and female, came to Philadelphia in considerable numbers, and indentured themselves for a term of years to pay their passage money, on the decline of the linen trade. They made a very useful and industrious class of inhabitants in Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, and we are now profiting by them and the Celt.

History is silent as to the name of the person who first introduced the exotic cotton plant into America. We find, in 1736, it was introduced into Talbot county, on the Eastern shore of Maryland, "as a pretty plant, bearing a beautiful flower;" and although it may have been raised in squares and patches in neighboring provinces, no particular attention was bestowed upon it as a profitable crop. At the close of the Revolution great financial distress prevailed. At a meeting of the celebrated convention of 1786, the subject of cotton came up. The late President MADISON, who had given much attention to the subject of the cotton culture, expressed it as his decided opinion, that, from the results of the garden culture in Talbot county, and numerous other similar proofs furnished South, there was no reason to doubt "*that the United States would one day become a great cotton country.*"

In the year 1764, W. RATHBONE, an American merchant in Liverpool, received a consignment of eight bales of cotton from Charleston. This cotton, on its arrival in Liverpool, was seized by the custom-house officers as not the growth of the country from which it purported to be shipped; being, as they said, outside of the Tropic of Cancer, it could not be grown there. The small supplies of cotton previously received and manufactured in England by hand, as in India, were imported from Calcutta and the West Indies. It was of a short, woolly staple, spun in private families; and manufactured, at that time, into velvets, velvetines, corduroys, fustians and satinets. It would not make strong yarns.

The importation of our strong, long, silky staple cotton before the close of the last century, when it had reached 35,000 bales, cleaned by WHITNEY'S gin, superseded, in a great measure, the India cottons, particularly when BOLTON & WATT perfected their steam engines to turn machinery, and HARGREAVES, ARKWRIGHT & CROMPTON invented the spinning jenny and the spinning mule. The effect of these inventions was, that whereas, previously, one man could clean one pound of cotton in a day, another card it, and another work one spindle, one man might (in 1800) clean 350 pounds, another card it, and the third work 2,200 spindles instead of one, thus making "*machine cotton goods.*" These goods, in a very short period, superseded the Irish and German linens, except a small supply for shirt bosoms, that the proud need not appear to wear cotton shirtings, a mark of poverty in olden times, and since continued.

The success of Manchester in manufacturing cotton yarns and cloths of fine and uniform quality, at very low prices, (a pound of cotton, costing ten to twelve cents, making eight yards of cloth, worth eight times its cost,) compared with linens, broke down this trade. It caused the yearly emigration of thousands of operatives from Ireland, who became useful to us in building our houses, digging our canals and constructing our

railways, and finally aiding us to settle our abundant wild lands. It has been estimated that during the last fifty years there have emigrated from Ireland to the United States two millions of souls, who have settled mainly in our northern and western States—a great source of national wealth, by their productive industry.

If Sea Island is spun into the finest yarn or thread, it is worth five guineas or $25 for a pound; if woven into muslin and tamboured, $75; constructed into a piece of lace, worth $500. (Report of Secretary of the Treasury, 1836.) Sea Island cotton is generally worth three times as much as the common quality.

Great Britain, it would appear, can afford to import four-fifths of our cotton crop to make "*machine goods*," and then to send these goods round the Cape of Good Hope, with a voyage of upwards of 10,000 miles, to Calcutta and back, and yet compete, successfully, with the native manufacturers of Hindostan, although they can hire their labor at three cents per day to plant and pick their cotton bolls, and they can spin and manufacture it, by hand, at the same rate as they do in their *hand* looms. They sell their raw cotton at from five to six cents per pound; yet it will not pay, at this price, to export to Liverpool, unless there is a deficit in our crop, and the price with us advances so as to exceed eight cents per pound, and in Liverpool is at a medium price of ten to twelve cents per pound.

Mr. J. B. Smith, the member for Stockport, England, read a paper before the Society of Arts, Manchester, treating of the three great divisions of cotton, "the long staple, the medium and the short staple," * * * which he describes. He then says: "It will be seen, therefore, that while we require, for the purposes of our manufacture, a limited supply of the first and third qualities of raw cotton, we need, and can consume, an almost unlimited supply of the second quality—American Uplands. In this fact lies our real difficulty, for, while several quarters of the world supply the first sort, and India could supply enormous quantities of the third sort, the United States of America alone have hitherto produced the second and most necessary kind." (Uplands of Georgia, Alabama, &c.)

"The finest cotton in the world is called the 'Sea Island.' The quantity is small and the price very high, mainly from the Sea Islands of Georgia and south of Cape Hatteras.

"Our great consumption and demand is for the soft, white, silky, moderately long cotton of America; the quality usually called '*Uplands, Georgia* and *New-Orleans*.' It can be consumed in any quantity; for it is available not only for weft but for warp, except for the higher numbers. We need and consume nine bales of this cotton for one bag of all other qualities put together." * * *

He closes: "The point we have to bear in mind, then, is this: our *desideratum* is not simply more cotton, but more cotton of the same character and *price* as that now imported from the States. If India were to send us two millions of bales of Surat cotton per annum, the *desideratum* would not be supplied, and our perilous problem would still be unsolved. We should be as dependent on America as ever." This is a candid confession.

We have given this exordium and these extracts, in connection with the unique quality of our cotton, and the acknowledged necessity of it

by Great Britain, to repeat the *cause* of our exotic *perennial* plant becoming an *annual*, to wit, by quick growth in a humid, hot climate, with the same average heat of 80 to 82 degrees in the summer months, the same as in the dry Bahama Islands, of latitude 25°. (See BLODGET'S Climatology and table herewith.)

This extra tropical heat, in part caused by the Gulf Stream, also with the fall of twenty inches of rain during the three summer months, *when little or none falls in other tropical cotton regions*, maturing the bolls in four to five months, is the *cause* of our white, soft, silky, moderately long, strong cottons, usually called "*Uplands*," of which, Mr. SMITH says "Great Britain can consume an almost unlimited quantity;" while "the dry, fuzz, woolly cotton of Surat," and from other tropical regions, for want of rains, will not serve for *warp* to make strong *machine-spun cotton goods*, and is only used by manufacturers in limited quantities for *weft* for an inferior class of "*machine goods*," and then only in cases of the utmost necessity, like the present. She last year imported 600,000 bales of Surat cotton from Calcutta, and exported 410,000 bales of it to the cotton manufacturers of the north of Europe, leaving the inconsiderable quantity of 190,000 bales to be used in Great Britain. The weight of the raw cotton exported from India was less than that of the manufactured goods exported. The United States is the only country to which Great Britain exports in weight less cotton goods than she imports raw cotton.

The May number (Vol. 44, No. 5) of the MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW presents important facts, showing the extraordinary increase of the manufacture of cotton goods in Great Britain and on the continent, as well as the United States, and the sources of supply of raw cotton from all parts of the world, and, let us add, the importance of a machine to cottonize flax.

It is there stated, and it cannot be repeated too often, "that in sixty years the manufacture of cotton goods had grown up to employ, in the United States and western Europe, 40,000,000 spindles in the production of yarns." * * * To supply raw material for those spindles there were last year produced in the United States 4,600,000 bales, and there was derived from India, in round numbers, 600,000; from other parts of the world, 300,000 bales, or equal to 5,500,000 bales. Of this quantity 87 per cent. was from the United States. Of that value, $300,000,000, the United States stood for 90 per cent.

It was recently stated before the Manchester Supply Association, that the number of spindles increased in Europe and America at the rate of 6,000,000 per annum, requiring, to supply these spindles, 810,000 bales per annum, a quantity equal to the whole United States cotton crop of 1828. There are then these prominent facts: First, that in the present century the demand for cotton has increased, from comparatively nothing, to, in round numbers, 5,500,000 bales per annum. Second, that it now increases at the rate of 800,000 bales per annum, which would, in ten years, give a demand for 13,500,000 bales. Third, up to this time nearly the whole increase in quantity has been supplied by the United States; also the only advance in *quality*. "These facts have been growing in importance before the eyes of manufacturers and statesmen during the last twenty-five years, and the most earnest attention has been directed to the means of insuring a future sufficient supply, but late events have given a new interest to the subject."

The editors then show, in detail, by the May number, "that vast sums had been furnished by the English and French governments, in the prosecution of these schemes. Disappointment has attended them all. The French government was disappointed in Algiers; the English, in India, after an expenditure of $1,750,000, where the climate is an insuperable bar to the growth of the proper variety," caused by the want of rain at the proper time.

The United States' capacity to produce is not now limited; but the limit must come, and the great question is, how will the future wants of the world be supplied when the capacity of the South to produce cotton is reached? What rival can be built up that will be able to supply the increasing excess of annual demand over production? The United States crop in

1800 was.....	35,000 bales.	1840 was.....	2,177,532 bales.
1820 "	425,000 "	1850 "	2,796,706 "
1830 "	870,415 "	1860 "	4,600,000 "

The crop of 1840 sold for 8½ cents per pound, and that of 1860, which was more than double in quantity, at 10⅞ cents. In the last ten years the crop has increased 67½ per cent., and will probably double in the next ten, but still falling short of the demand. It is plain *that a rival cotton-growing country cannot in any reasonable time lessen the importance of American cotton.* Efforts have, however, been made in another direction, viz., to find a substitute for cotton. Flax would have long since rivaled it, had it been adapted to *machine spinning.* That it has not, has, it is alleged, been owing to the faulty manner in which it has been cured. This difficulty is now said to be so far overcome that flax comes in direct rivalry with cotton, as a raw material.

The editors then devote eight pages to show, in an able article, there is a hope, with Mr. S. Randall's late invention, to cottonize flax so as to be spun by machinery. We are glad to find there is a prospect that we can have an article in the aid of cotton, to supply one of the great wants of man, "food, fire and *clothing.*" It is a great *desideratum*, we say, in aid of cotton. Let it prosper.

The superiority of our cotton—unique—combining *warp* as well as *weft*, and its necessity to keep in motion the machinery of Great Britain, on the Continent and in the United States, has been repeatedly acknowledged. The *cause*, however, we do not see laid down in the books or by the press. We believe we were the first to discover and to construct the following table, in proof, after the perusal of Maury and Blodget's works, showing the fall of water in our best cotton States, of 20 inches per annum, in our summer months, during which period little or none falls in other cotton-producing countries; and these States had the heat of the Bahama Islands—an extraordinary fact.

We repeat, we are the master of the position in raising cotton, particularly as compared with India. We have the advantage of the favoring Gulf Stream, and less than one-fourth the distance to make short voyages to and from Liverpool, and generally with return cargoes of salt, iron, crockery and passengers, to reduce the cost of freight.

The late Mr. N. Biddle, President of the Bank of the United States, the great regulator of our domestic and foreign exchanges—and events have proved him a sound thinker, as respects the exchanges, the balances of trade between Great Britain and France—was right when he said that cotton was destined to be the medium of effecting them.

He employed, it is well known, the capital of the Bank of the United States, and, by loans, encouraged the emigration of the sons of the "first families of Virginia" and Maryland from the worn-out lands of their fathers, with their share of the slaves, to buy and settle the new and fertile cotton lands of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana and West Tennessee.

The cheap lands they purchased in these States, with the operatives they carried with them from their fathers' roofs, made first rate mortgages; which, through the agency of Mr. BIDDLE and the Bank of the United States, the bankers in Threadneedle-street, London, and the manufacturers of Manchester and Lancashire were glad to cash, on the promise of their cotton crop, dollar for dollar. It was thus the production of cotton "of the right kind" that has stimulated to its immense proportions our foreign trade.

With the labor from our several States, settled in California, we have had the estimated average yield for several years of $50,000,000, to form the basis of new banks, and to aid us in paying foreign balances of trade. It is, however, the productive labor in our cotton crop, demanded in this country and in Europe, and even in India and China, that now yields us at the rate of $250,000,000 per annum, to exchange for the labor of Europe, Asia and Africa. This exchange of labor it is that centres the balance of exchange in the port of New-York, and makes the banks of Europe subservient to ours.

The trade with Africa is now trifling. It may be largely increased in covering the present nakedness of millions of her savage and brutalized inhabitants, and thus, by the means of commerce with them, open the door to the Christian missionary of their own color, who can stand the climate, to evangelize millions on millions of benighted and half-cannibal creatures, who are now, by all accounts, but a few degrees removed above their gorillas. Here are ample fields for the philanthropist to cut up, at the root, the slave trade of the savage men of Africa, "selling property in man," and in their own children, too; while in this country, it is to be hoped, we will continue to improve the African race as we have done for the last one hundred years, so as to fit them finally for freedom. It cannot be a sudden work, except with fatal results. It must be gradual. This will finally take place, as it is understood the blacks increase three per cent. faster than the whites by their side; and they flourish with the plant they cultivate, by a wise order of Providence. The whites cannot stand the humidity and heat of the climate, while a check of migration from the North to the South will accelerate the period of the gradual and prospective emancipation of the colored population.

The Climatology of BLODGET establishes the fact, that slaves in West Texas, and from West Arkansas and Kansas, on the belt of land reaching to the Pacific, are worth nothing to raise cotton with any profit, except on the east quarter of Texas, where there is a fall of forty-five inches per annum, with fifteen inches in summer. In the west part of Texas, and extending across the Rio Grande, we have the "*Llanos Estancados*," or staked desert plains, nearly without water—only three to six inches per annum. Then the desert of Mapimi. The fall of water per annum on this belt of land, tapering off, as you approach Fort Yumas on the Colorado, that falls into the Pacific, to three inches per annum—of course totally unfit to raise cotton. This is also the case to raise cotton from the Mexi-

can northern boundary, south to the Isthmus of Panama, of the right kind, although it is admitted that native cotton—a perennial plant—has been grown in this region and other parts of South America, time out of mind, and before the discovery by CORTEZ. So, also, in Egypt, and on the coast of the Mediterranean, from the time of HERODOTUS. In Africa it is a native tropical tree, a perennial plant of a short, staple, woolly character.

A Table of Heat, Moisture and Production of the Cotton States, prepared from the official sources of L. BLODGET, *by J. E. B.*

Heat and fall of rain during the four seasons.	*E. Blodget's Isothemal line of temperature.*	*Fall of Rain in East Texas.*	*Arkansas.*	*Tennessee.*	*Louisiana.*	*Mississippi.*	*Alabama.*	*Georgia.*	*S. Carolina.*	*Florida.*	*Years.*	*Amount of Crop in Bales.*	*Price, Cents.*
Spring, ..	70° to 60° ..	13	.. 13 ..	13 ..	15 ..	15 ..	15 ..	12 ..	12 ..	10 ..	1830 ..	870,415 ..	9.9
Summer,.	82° " 80° ..	15	.. 15 ..	15 ..	20 ..	20 ..	20 ..	20 ..	15 ..	25 ..	1840 ..	2,177,532 ..	8.5
Autumn,.	70° " 65° ..	12	.. 12 ..	12 ..	12 ..	12 ..	12 ..	10 ..	10 ..	12 ..	1850 ..	2,796,706 ..	11.3
Winter,..	50° " 50° ..	10	.. 12 ..	15 ..	18 ..	18 ..	12 ..	10 ..	10 ..	8 ..	1860 ..	4,600,000 ..	11.5
Fall p. an,		50	.. 52 ..	55 ..	65 ..	65 ..	59 ..	52 ..	47 ..	55			

Experience has shown that there is no part of the world better adapted to raising flax than our Northern States, and we presume that there is no difficulty with our Western States. It is, therefore, of vast importance, that a machine and process be invented to cottonize flax, so as to be spun by machinery. A premium of $100,000, or more, would be a cheap rate to perfect and secure the invention. In the mean time, we say again, "let us be thankful for the good (warp and weft cotton) the gods give us," and protect this great branch of national industry.

J. E. B.

TOLEDO—PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE.

IT was foreseen by sagacious men, at a period when nearly the whole interior region of our country was a wilderness, that, on the harbor at the western extremity of Lake Erie, a great commercial city would grow up with the growth of the extensive and fertile country around it, to which it would offer the nearest lake port. The estuary of the Maumee River affords the best harbor, all things considered, of Lake Erie. As this estuary was navigable fourteen miles above its entrance into the bay of the same name, the lake waters setting back that distance, the precise location of the future city was, for several years, keenly contested by Maumee City and Perrysburg, at the head of its navigable waters, and by Manhattan, at its entrance into the bay. During this contest, each place promulgated the most extravagant stories of the insalubrity of its rivals. These stories were extensively copied from the local press into the papers of the larger Lake Erie cities, several of which apprehended a successful rival in the new city. There was a basis of truth to give support to these exaggerations. Like all new settlements on a rich soil, especially on large rivers, the first settlers suffered much from malarial disorders; first, in the form of remittent fevers, afterwards subsiding into intermittents, and these, growing milder and less frequent from year to

year, until Toledo may now challenge a comparison, in point of salubrity, with the most favored city of the land. The mortality, as ascertained by the census of 1860, for the previous year, was one in sixty-four of its population, which is quite up to the rate of its average mortality of late years. It is deemed proper to be thus explicit in regard to the healthfulness of this new city, because of the extreme prejudice which still remains, in a great measure, uncorrected in the public mind on this point. This prejudice has materially retarded its growth and prosperity.

The location of Toledo is, fortunately, highly favorable in many repects for the growth of a large city. It embraces both sides of a fine harbor, averaging one-third of a mile in width and several miles in length. Indeed, the whole length of the bay and estuary, from the lake to the foot of the rapids, eighteen miles, may be set down as harbor room for Toledo, when its growth shall require it. The banks of this harbor rise directly from the water to an elevation of fifteen feet, in the bay, rising to sixty-two feet, at the foot of the rapids at Maumee City, with a gradual rise towards the interior about in the same proportion. The harbor affords good facilities for navigation. It is easy of entrance; has a depth of water ranging from twelve to thirty feet; is well protected from high winds; is little affected by the river floods, which rarely rise more than five or six feet above ordinary lake level; and never suffers injury to its shipping from the breaking up of ice on the river. This exemption it owes to the distance (nine miles) from the foot of the lower rapids of the Maumee, and to the great width of the river which admits lake tide to the rapids. It is only when heavy gales up or down the lake drive in or draw out the lake waters that its level is affected to the material injury of navigation. These gales usually occur in November, and seldom interrupt navigation more than two or three times in a season, or more than a day or two at a time. From the description it will appear evident that the harbor is convenient, safe, and otherwise of great merit. The entrance to it, through the bay, has a bar having but nine or ten feet of water over it, when the lake is low, and requiring an expenditure of some $50,000 to dredge a channel of sufficient width and depth to admit the passage of vessels drawing twelve feet. The outer harbor, under the south cape of the bay, can be entered, in the ordinary stage of water of the lake, with a draught of from twelve and one-half to fourteeen feet.

Such are the natural *positive* merits of the harbor and site of Toledo, as a commercial city. Its *relative* claims depend on its position in reference to the extent and fertility of the country which would be more conveniently accommodated in its commercial operations at this than at rival lake ports. The extent of this country may be approximately estimated, by drawing lines of equal distance between it and Cleveland, eastwardly, on one hand, and between it and Detroit, northwestwardly, on the other side.

These lines, extended to the Ohio River on the one side and to Lake Michigan on the other, embrace a very large area of country admirably adapted to support a dense population. The eastern limit embraces Columbus, and includes quite half of the State of Ohio. The northeastern line passes north of Jackson and Grand Rapids, embracing one-fifth of the lower peninsula of Michigan. Southwestward these lines, extended, em-

brace nearly all of Kentucky, two-thirds of Indiana and one-fourth of Illinois. This portion of these States is more properly within the range of the commercial influence of Toledo than that of Chicago. Toledo is the nearest lake port for Dayton, Cincinnati, Madison, Evansville, Louisville, New-Albany and other Ohio River towns between Portsmouth and Paducah; and it should be the lake point of connection and interchange of all their trade with the Canadas, the New-England States and Europe. Whether the late commerce of Cairo and the lower Mississippi shall be done chiefly through Toledo or Chicago is yet to be determined, when the railway facilities between that great region and the lake cities shall have been connected and arranged so as to give full play to the natural advantages of each of these ports.

The wide region above described is *naturally* within the commercial control of Toledo. We will now go into an examination of the extent of the artificial aids that come in, to secure to it what nature had previously furnished. In our day, proximity, in a commercial sense, has more relation to cost and time than to mere lineal distance. Canals and railways have brought remote districts into intimate relations, and are doing much to change the channels of interior commerce. They also are bringing land carriage, in many places, into competition with some of the great water-ways of commerce. Of all our navigable waters, the great lakes of the interior offer the most perfect facilities to commerce. Their inter-continental position, and the deep indentations into the lands, which, at remote points, they penetrate, give them a commercial power, in all directions, which waits only the dense peopling of their widely extended shores to make them fields of the most active commerce the world has ever witnessed. The purity of their waters gives to steam vessels (which are rapidly superseding sail vessels) greater safety and economy than they can enjoy on the turbid waters of the great rivers or the salt water of the ocean. The atmosphere over these lakes has an extraordinary purity and health-giving vigor, that is well worth the consideration of navigators and commercial men. These superiorities will avail much to make permanently cheap freights. No where can vessels, whether of wood or iron, find more or better raw materials for their construction than on these borders; and the fuel for making steam exists in inexhaustible coal beds at various points near their navigable waters. The generally received estimate of the cost to the shipper of freights on the lakes and on ordinary canals and rail-roads, per ton per mile, is proximately represented by the following figures:

By lakes,	3 mills.
" canals,	9 "
" rail-roads,	18 "

These figures, which pre-suppose a fair profit to the carrier, make it plain that canals and railways, in the West, to make a profit on freights during the season of navigation, should seek a lake harbor by the shortest and best route. When the lake mart is reached, cheap water transportation is offered, by way of New-York and Montreal, to and from all parts of the world.

The opening of the enlarged Erie Canal and the cheapening of the Canadian canals from the upper lakes to Montreal, will, this year, give a new impetus to the water transport between the ocean and the lakes. A short account of the canals and railways which have their lake terminus

in Toledo, will give many readers, hitherto uninformed respecting them, some idea of the advantages which these artificial channels have added to its commercial power, present and prospective.

Practically considered, these canals are two, connecting the Ohio River, at Cincinnati and Evansville, with Lake Erie at Toledo. They unite seventy miles above Toledo, whence the main trunk, six feet deep and sixty feet wide, becomes common to both, down to its entrance into the harbor, near the centre of the city. 1. The *Wabash and Erie Canal* was first constructed. It passes along the valleys of the Maumee and Wabash rivers, in a southwesterly course, from Toledo to Terre Haute, and thence south across the country to Evansville. It is four hundred and sixty (460) miles long, being the longest unbroken line of canal in the world. Its course is near the middle line of country, of which Toledo is the lake port; and so in the natural line of its main traffic. 2. The *Miami and Erie Canal* unites with the Wabash and Erie seventy miles above Toledo, and, by a line nearly south, traverses the rich Miami valley and joins the Ohio River at Cincinnati, making a nearly direct water channel between that city and Toledo, 247 miles in extent.

These canals would insure, for their lake terminus, a great destiny, independent of any location and arrangement of the railways that could be devised, to compete with them. Canals, in this country, are now out of fashion. The *furore* of our fast people for rail-road construction, and the policy of their shareholders and bondholders to make a large showing of freight receipts, at whatever sacrifice, have, for the time, by taking away from the canals their legitimate business, thrown them into the background. English canals, in aggregate earnings, yield better dividends than their rail-roads. Such will be the probable effect in this country of well-situated and well-managed canals, as soon as competing rail-roads charge freights high enough to give a fair profit on their cost. When such rates are charged, there need be no hostile rivalry between these equally valuable instruments of traffic. Each has its appropriate business, which is not antagonistic to that of the other. Indeed, they are naturally co-operative, and, working together, build up towns and villages which give an increasing profit to both. They are most profitable when working side by side, as they now do, on our best routes of interior commerce.

Indeed, along the borders of water-ways much more efficient than canals, to wit, the great lakes, Long Island Sound, Hudson and Connecticut Rivers, some of the most successful of our rail-roads are operated.

The water-ways of Toledo, by lake and canal, facilitate navigation in several directions, and to a large extent.

By lake,	west to Chicago,	800 miles.
"	northwest to Superior City,	850 "
"	northeast and east to Ogdensburg and Oswego,	500 "
		2,150 "
By canal,	southwest to Evansville,	460 miles.
"	south to Cincinnati,	247 "
		707 "

The rail-roads, of which there are six important lines centering in Toledo, radiate more completely, and, therefore, have commercial command of a

greater extent of country than the water-ways. The direct destinations of trains, leaving the city, are as follow:

To Cleveland,	112	miles.
" Detroit,	65	"
" Cincinnati,	202	"
" Chicago by Mich. So.,	243	"
" St. Louis,	459	"
" Elkhart by Air Line,	124	"
	1,205	"

The distance from Toledo to Chicago by the Northern Indiana, known as the "Air Line" Rail-Road, is 232 miles. This is the shortest practicable route across the peninsula of Michigan, and between the cities of Chicago and Toledo.

The population of Toledo, though still remarkably small compared with its commercial facilities and business, increased, from 1850 to 1860, in a larger proportion than any other lake city, except Chicago, as the following figures, derived from the United States census returns of the two periods, will show:

	Population.		*Increase Per Ct.*
	1859.	**1860.**	
Chicago,	29,963	109,430	265
Toledo,	3,829	13,784	260
Milwaukie,	20,061	45,325	124
Detroit,	21,019	46,834	122
Cleveland,	21,400	43,550	105
Buffalo,	42,261	81,541	93
Erie,	5,850	11,113	90

The same proportionate increase, continued to 1870, will give Toledo a population of 50,000. We think no one, well informed of the character of the country within the commercial control of the young city and the manifold facilities for concentration which its position invites, from lake, canal and rail-road, will anticipate a less favorable result.

Having described the *position* of Toledo, its natural and artificial advantages for commerce and the progressive increase of its population, let us now turn our attention to the main branches of its business during the calendar and fiscal year 1860. The figures that follow are drawn from reliable official data. The branch of business connected with and embracing transportation is the most considerable, and, probably, in all its parts and dependencies, yields the largest returns and supports the greatest number of people. We give here chiefly the eastward-bound movement, in aggregate quantities, as the general reader cannot be expected to take an interest in details.

Grain.—Embracing flour, computed at five bushels to the barrel, it appears that 14,504,903 bushels of grain were brought into Toledo during the year 1860. To place, in its true light, the relative position of this city, in the grain movement from west to east, we here present a table exhibiting this movement, which needs no comment. Flour, at all the ports, is counted in bushels, at five to the barrel:

	1859.	**1860.**	*Increase Per Ct.*
Tide-water at Albany,	21,636,700	46,867,600	..
Chicago,	20,000,000	36,500,000	82½
Toledo,	7,250,000	14,500,000	100
Milwaukie,	6,500,000	11,000,000	69¼

This table uses round numbers, which are approximately correct.

In the grain trade, Toledo has, for three years, stood, among the lake receiving and distributing ports, next to Chicago. It develops rapidly,

from the double effect of the opening of new fields for its culture, and the completion of new channels for its transport.

RECEIPTS OF FLOUR, WHEAT, CORN, &c., AT TOLEDO, 1859, 1860.

	Flour—Barrels.		*Wheat—Bushels.*	
	1859.	**1860.**	**1859.**	**1860.**
Receipts at Toledo,.....	739,419	800,768	2,312,583	5,341,190
Shipments, chiefly by lake,	....	803,700	....	5,033,836

	Corn—Bushels.		*Rye—Bushels.*	
	1859.	**1860.**	**1859.**	**1860.**
Receipts at Toledo,.....	714,291	5,386,951	....	35,216
Shipments,.....	....	5,299,026	....	....

A yearly increasing business is done at Toledo in packing pork and beef, but it is still small compared with the favorable position for this operation. Slaughtering, for packing, was commenced in a small way last fall.

PROVISIONS.	**1860.**	HIDES.	**1860.**
Pork, barrels received,.....	141,283	Receipts,.....lbs.,	5,033,000
Beef, do.	66,819	Shipments,..... "	5,283,000
	208,102		
Shipped of both,.....	215,296		

Butter, Lard, Oil-cake, &c.—A large quantity, but not ascertainable. The shipments of flour, grain and provisions, and, indeed, of most other heavy articles, was chiefly by lake. The Cleveland and Toledo Rail-Road carried eastward 96,000 bbls. flour and 158,000 bushels of wheat.

LUMBER—*White Pine—feet.*	**1859.**	**1860.**
Receipts by lake,.....	22,316,963	37,868,536
Manufactured by mills in Toledo,.....	....	8,000,000
Total,.....	....	44,868,536

The stock left over was large, so that the above is not much more than was distributed, from this point, by canals and rail-roads. There were shipped of laths and shingles a due proportion to the lumber. Many of the latter were manufactured in Toledo, from bolts brought from the pineries.

Cabinet woods, chiefly of black walnut, were received by canal and rail-roads, and shipped down the lake, to the amount of 14,000,000 feet. Square timber, to the amount of 256,000 cubic feet, was sent eastward. This was of oak, of which the country, on and near the harbor, has an abundance of excellent quality for ship-building.

Salt.—The receipts this year were smaller than usual, a large stock having been held over. It all came by lake, 106,994 barrels, of which 5,000 barrels, Turk's Island, came in a schooner direct from Boston, by way of the St. Lawrence, the outward cargo having been lumber from this place. Of the rest, the works of Syracuse furnished all but a small quantity, which came from the new salt works on Saginaw Bay.

Manufactures.—Manufactures and the mechanic arts increase naturally, *pari passu*, with commerce and population in all cities of the northern temperate zone, and especially when elevated above the ocean level.

Toledo has an elevation of six hundred feet, giving it a bracing, health-imparting atmosphere. It is, in some measure, participating in the benefits which cities generally are, more and more, receiving, from the in-

creasing tendency of this great department of human industry to concentrate within and near their borders, This tendency is strengthened by every improvement in machinery and in the economy of its use; and so powerfully is it strengthened, that the physical as well as the moral power of mankind seems destined, ere long, to be nearly monopolized by cities and their suburbs.

Though of recent origin, with all departments of labor in a formative condition, Toledo makes progress, in this direction, not unworthy a record in this magazine, as the following statistics, taken from the United States census returns of 1850 and 1860, will testify:

	1850.		1860.
Number of establishments producing over $500 value,	38	....	100
Capital invested,	$98,200	....	$660,700
Value of materials used,	165,295	....	997,889
Number of hands employed, male,	231	....	885
" " female,	32	....	223
Annual wages paid,	$75,240	....	$318,588
Annual product,	304,525	....	1,966,240

Ship and canal-boat building were not reported in either census. Toledo is well located for a profitable prosecution of this branch of manufacture, having excellent timber easily accessible, and furnishing more freights than any other city of equal population in the country. The construction of buildings, for residence and business, is an important manufacture in all flourishing cities. We are unable to give the figures to exhibit that of Toledo, but it may be safely inferred that it has been in full proportion to the increase of population and general business.

Schools.—In the excellence of its educational establishments Toledo is unsurpassed by any city of its numbers in our country. Its high-school building and grounds have cost over fifty thousand dollars, and are ornamental to the city. Several of the ward-school buildings are also in good architectural style, and all are well adapted to their use. A liberal compensation and a good position in society are enjoyed by a very efficient corps of teachers in the various departments. Almost the whole expense of education in these schools is defrayed by the city, which collects a liberal annual tax for this object. This is cheerfully paid, the public schools being generally looked upon as the chief glory of the city. Much of the merit of their organization and improvement is due to one public-spirited citizen, to whom be everlasting honor.

Rail-Road Concentration.—The concentration of the six rail-roads that come in from various directions to one point, and, for passengers, into one union depot near the centre of the city, is admirable. A middle ground of shoal water, in the harbor, of great length, has been availed of and filled in by earth, necessarily removed to give the roads a favorable grade up to the level of the country in the rear. On this middle ground extensive depot buildings and warehouses have been erected, and miles of quay along the navigable water have been constructed, giving unequalled facilities for the exchange of freights and passengers, by the rail-roads with each other, and between cars, lake vessels and canal-boats. Not one of the six rail-roads passing through the city to their common depot crosses a street on grade, but is low enough below the surface to admit of convenient bridging. The entrance of the canal being at the same point, one can hardly imagine a more perfect ar-

rangement for centralizing a great commerce, with the least inconvenience and danger to the citizens, and the greatest facilities for the interchange and storage of commodities.

To one interested in the subject of the progress and destination of population on this continent, the history and prospects of Toledo will not be without interest. The centre of population and industrial power is moving, unmistakably, in the direction of the great lakes. It seems certain that, at a time not very distant, it will have reached and established itself there, and, in the most favorable positions, have gathered men into cities of greater magnitude than have yet been reared in any age or country.

The commanding geographically-commercial position of the harbor at the western extremity of Lake Erie attracted the attention of sagacious men when that whole region was yet the favorite home of the red man. Soon after WAYNE'S victory, in 1794, the Indians ceded to the United States a tract of twelve miles square around the foot of the rapids of the Maumee River. This embraced most of the harbor and Fort Miami, then held by the British. During the war of 1812, Fort Meigs was built at the foot of the rapids. The tract of land on which it was built was bought, after the close of the war, by YATES & MCINTYRE, of Albany, and its river front laid out for a city, named "Orleans of the North." To promote this speculation, the steamer WALK-IN-THE-WATER, the first steamer on the lake waters, was built by Dr. STEWART and others of Albany; and Mr. LOVETT, a distinguished member of Congress of the same place, was made resident agent. All the northwestern quarter of Ohio (except the twelve miles square) and the whole surrounding region southwest, west and north, was owned and inhabited only by the Indians. The WALK-IN-THE-WATER never reached "Orleans of the North." It drew too much water to go above the harbor on which Toledo is now situated. About the same time, other points on the estuary of the Maumee, below the foot of the rapids, and, among them, a portion of the site of Toledo, became the subjects of speculations, by associations of wealthy individuals—each location being claimed to be the true position for the great future city. Perrysburg, a mile below Fort Meigs, was laid out by the United States government, and lots in the plat sold, in 1817, at high prices. All these town speculations, except that on which a portion of Toledo now stands, proved disastrous to the owners, as have, also, several others entered into subsequently, in anticipation of the construction of the great canals. The commanding position of Toledo would warrant its designation of the "New-Orleans of the Lakes." It may become more important than the New-Orleans of the rivers. The course of trade of the country, to a great extent, southwest and west of the lakes, tends strongly to their nearest good harbors. Our secession war is giving that tendency a new impulse which promises to be permanent. Chicago and Toledo will profit most by this change in the course of trade, which can hardly fail, ere long, to give them a forward impulse stronger and more enduring than has been witnessed hitherto in the most flourishing cities of the continent. These cities are nearer and more accessible to the great industrial districts of the world, to Western Europe, the Canadas and the old free States of our Union, than New-Orleans or St. Louis, and should, therefore, have the preference, in the interchange of commodities between these regions, so rich in accumulated wealth and exchangeable products, and the great interior plain of North America.

ENGLISH INSURANCE STATISTICS FOR 1860.

We are indebted to the "*British Wreck Chart*" of 1860 for the following valuable particulars as to the losses of life and property during the year:

The year 1860 has been almost unprecedented for a continued succession of bad weather; and the number of wrecks and casualties from causes other than collision is, as might be expected, greater than the number recorded during either of the preceding eight years. It is, as will be seen on reference to tables, 146 above the annual average for six years, or 1,081, against 1,067 in 1859. Whilst, however, wrecks and strandings have increased, collisions have decreased, being 298, against 349 in 1859. The whole number of casualties of allkinds, including collisions, is 37 less than the number recorded in 1859, but it is 146 above the annual average for six years.

Although the number of wrecks and strandings has been greater than usual, the loss of life has been less; the number of lives lost in 1860 being under one-third of the number lost in 1859, and 264 under the annual average for nine years. The numbers for 1859 and 1860 are 1,645 and 536.

The great loss of life during 1859 was mainly attributable to the loss of two or three fine passenger ships, and the decrease in the number of lives lost in 1860 is owing to the absence of the loss of any large ships under similar circumstances. In 1859, 870 lives were lost in two casualties alone, viz., the wrecks of the "Pomona" and the "Royal Charter," whilst in 1860 the greatest number of lives lost in any one casualty was 37, and the next greatest number 31.

It will be seen that the number of casualties to ships of the collier class (*i. e.*, ships carrying coals, coke, ores and stone in bulk) is below the number for the last year, although, as is usual, it exceeds the number of casualties to all other descriptions of ships put together. For the purpose of comparison, the number of casualties to each description of ship during the last two years may be briefly stated as follow:

Ships.	1859.		1860.		*Total.*
Colliers, laden,	506	..	479		
" light,	71	..	60	..	1,504
Iron and copper ore,	130	..	93		
Stone, &c.,	82	..	83		
Timber,	61	..	76		
Other laden vessels,	376	..	338	..	1,291
Other vessels in ballast, not colliers,	148	..	224		
Passengers,	42	..	26		
Total,	1,416	..	1,379	..	2,795

This shows that the total number of casualties in the two years is 2,795, and that of this number 1,504, or considerably more than half, happened to ships of the collier class. The result of table p. 581, taken in connection with the result of table, p. 580, shows that the classes of ships to which casualties most frequently happen on our coasts, are those between 50 and 300 tons burthen, employed in carrying coal, coke, ores and stone.

Other tables show the whole of the casualties attended with loss of life that have happened on the coasts of the United Kingdom during the last eleven years. The one contains a list of the cases in detail, geographically arranged, according to the place where the casualty happened, and the other is a summary, with the numbers classified according to districts. These tables are this year inserted for the first time.

It has been stated that the greatest number of lives lost from shipwreck are lost on the northeast coast. These tables, however, give the following results:

Districts.	*Total number of lives lost during eleven years.*	*Annual average.*
Farn Islands to Flamborough Head,	523	47 6-11
Flamborough Head to the North Foreland,	957	87
North Foreland to St. Catharine's Point,	465	42 3-11
St. Catharine's Point to Start Point,	81	7 4-11
Start Point to Land's End,	445	40 5-11
Land's End to Hartland Point, including Scilly,	330	30
Hartland Point to St. David's Head,	440	40
St. David's Head and Carnsore Point to Lambay Island and Skerries, Anglesa,	879	79 10-11
Skerries and Lambay to Fair Head and Mull of Cantire,	1,456	132 1-11
Cape Wrath to Buchan Ness,	197	17 10-11
Buchan Ness to Farn Islands,	271	24 7-11
All other parts of the coast,	842	76 5-11
Totals,	6,883	625 8-11

The experience of the past eleven years shows that the most serious wrecks, resulting in the greatest loss of life, do not happen, as was supposed, on the northeast coast, but in those seas and channels mostly frequented by large foreign-going ships.

A chart, illustrating these returns, and showing the spot where each casualty occurred, and the number of lives lost by it, is added.

Tables distinguishing the casualties according to the force of the wind, show that the greater portion of casualties happen with the force of the wind at and under 8, ("fresh gale,") or under circumstances in which a ship, if seaworthy and properly manned and found, ought to be well able to keep the sea. The numbers are as follow: With the force of the wind at and under 8, *i. e.*, from "calm to fresh gale," 731; with the force of the wind from 9 to 12, *i. e.*, from "a strong gale to a hurricane," 648.

It has been observed that the wreck returns for late years show that collisions are greatly on the increase, and that, from 1855 to the present time, they have nearly trebled the numbers reported in previous years. It is probable that collisions should have increased with the increased trade and consequent increase in the number of ships frequenting narrow channels; but the sudden increase which the returns seem to show to have taken place since 1854 admits of a very simple explanation.

It will be seen from our tables, that for the five years ending 1854 the annual average number of collisions reported was 91, whilst for the five years ending 1859 the annual average number reported was 298.

In 1855, the first year of the sudden increase, the wreck register was transferred to the Board of Trade and officers of the customs and coast guard; and receivers of wreck, acting under that Board, were empowered, by act of Parliament, to examine on oath the masters and crews of ships

and other persons able to give information respecting wrecks. These officers are also authorized to reward, if necessary, any person bringing the earliest information of a wreck. From these powers, and from the nature of the employment and the staff at their disposal, they have every opportunity of becoming well acquainted with the nature and circumstances of almost every casualty, and they lose no time in reporting to the Board of Trade.

It is easily understood that the Board of Trade, with its statutory powers and ample means at its disposal, obtains more reports and more accurate information of collisions, which of course happen at sea beyond the immediate cognizance of the coast guard, than it was possible for the Admiralty to obtain under the previous system, when the means available were much less. The great increase is, therefore, in all probability, due to the increased number of reports, rather than to any great increase in the number of collisions.

The *Chart* contains a list of the life-boats stationed on the coasts of the United Kingdom. It appears from the table that the number at the end of 1860 was 173, against 158 in 1859. The increase in the number of life-boats is as follow:

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Number of boats under the management of the National Life-Boat Institution,.....	81	92	110
Number of boats under other management,.....	68	66	63

Of the number in existence at the end of the year 1860, 91 are under the management of the National Life-Boat Institution, but are subsidized by the Board of Trade, and five are subsidized by the Board of Trade direct, without the intervention of the institution. Of the remainder, 19 are maintained by the institution and 58 by local bodies.

The mortar and rocket apparatus is maintained in a very effective state: there has been an increase of 17 in the number of stations during the past year; many of the existing stations have been removed, and the apparatus has, in many cases, been renewed and remodeled.

Through the energy and zeal of the officers and men of the coast-guard service, great proficiency has been attained in working the apparatus from the shore. It does, however, sometimes happen, that after a communication is effected, the crew are unable to use it from ignorance of the working of the apparatus, notwithstanding the means taken to make it known by circulation of hand-bills, by inserting the directions in ships' logs, by exercising the apparatus in the presence of merchant seamen, where possible, and by examining masters and mates in its use and application when they are passing for certificates of competency.

The expense of providing and maintaining the life-boats and apparatus for saving life will be seen as annexed.

The sum paid to the Royal National Life-Boat Institution during 1860 is £2,486 13s. 6d. The payments by the Board of Trade direct, for rewards and gratuities, and for services at wrecks, amount to £918 8s. 6d.; and the expenses of maintaining the mortar and rocket apparatus, to £2,456 15s. 8d.; being a total payment of £5,861 17s. 5d. for saving and endeavoring to save life during the year 1860.

The mortar and rocket apparatus and life-boats cannot be over-rated as means for saving life. The good they have effected will most easily be

seen by a reference to the following table, showing the number of life-boats, &c., and the number of lives saved during the last six years:

Years.	*No. of Life-Boats.*	*No. of Mortar and Rocket Apparatus.*	*No. of Lives saved on the Coast by assistance from the Shore.*
1855,.....	47	....	1,098
1856,.....	47	....	1,836
1857,.....	66	198	1,161
1858,.....	81	216	1,161
1859,.....	92	216	1,566
1860,.....	110	233	1,383
Total to 1860,.....	....	....	8,205

The number of lives saved during 1860 on or near the coasts of the United Kingdom, of which reports have been received, was 2,152, against 2,332 in 1859. The number saved, with more or less risk, by assistance from the shore during 1860, was 1,383, or nearly-two-thirds of the whole number saved. The life-boats saved 326 lives, being greatly in excess of the number saved by life-boats during the two previous years; and the mortar and rocket apparatus saved 408 lives. The remainder (viz., 635) were saved by fishing boats, smacks, &c., at sea, and 14 by individual exertions of a meritorious character.

Charts, showing the wrecks and casualties for the year 1860, the wrecks and strandings involving loss of life during the last eleven years, and the collisions involving loss of life during the same period, are appended.

I. *British Wrecks and Casualties for Five Years.*

Months in which Casualties happened.	Number of Wrecks and Casualties in 1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
January,.....	149	281	124	115	206
February,.....	154	64	116	139	137
March,.....	96	166	148	136	71
April,.....	74	76	115	126	70
May,.....	57	33	48	32	187
June,.....	32	34	30	27	74
July,.....	48	33	61	34	30
August,.....	51	75	33	52	74
September,.....	98	66	91	86	84
October,.....	99	135	148	343	156
November,.....	129	94	120	170	164
December,.....	166	86	136	156	126
Total,.....	1,153	1,143	1,170	1,416	1,379

II. *Statement of the number of Lives lost on the Coast of the United Kingdom during the Eleven Years ended December,* 1860.

1850,.....	645	1855,.....	437	1860,.....	466
1851,.....	277	1856,.....	297		
1852,.....	838	1857,.....	439	Total,.....	6,883
1853,.....	842	1858,.....	243		
1854,.....	834	1859,.....	1,565	Annual average,..	625

III. *Number of Lives Saved from Shipwreck on the Coast of the United Kingdom during the Years* 1856, 1857, 1858, 1859 *and* 1860.

1856,.....	2,243	1858,.....	1,555	1860,.....	3,697
1857,.....	1,668	1859,.....	2,332		
				Total,.....	11,495

IV. *Wrecks and Casualties, distinguishing the Ships and Cargoes Insured and Uninsured, and the amount of Insurance, where known.*

	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
No. of vessels reported to be insured,	484	599	476	554	514
Amount of insurance,.....	..	£ 451,513	£ 388,904	£ 587,772	£ 463,005
No. of cargoes reported to be insured,	110	84	62	87	57
Amount of insurance,.....	..	£ 21,622	£ 25,413	£ 101,212	£ 21,274
Total amount of insurance,.....	..	473,135	414,317	688,984	484,279
No. of vessels reported as not insured,	179	179	232	316	280
" cargoes " "	264	118	152	173	145
No. of vessels, whether insured or not, unknown,.....	490	365	462	546	585
No. of cargoes, whether insured or not, unknown,.....	592	741	765	923	893
Ships in ballast,.....	187	200	191	233	284
Total,.....	1,153	1,143	1,170	1,416	1,379
Est'd No. of ships lost or damaged,..	..	507	576	860	817
" Amount of insurance,.....	..	£ 393,859	£ 343,117	£ 528,261	£ 508,754
" No. of cargoes lost or damaged,	..	169	228	294	258
" Amount of insurance,.....	..	£ 125,442	£ 92,648	£ 221,860	£ 94,311
Total estimated loss as reported,....	..	519,301	435,656	750,121	603,065

V. *British Wrecks and Casualties, distinguishing the Description and Tonnage of the Ships.*

Description of Ships.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
Steamships,.....	34	39	48	34	38
Barks,.....	139	129	102	123	110
Billy boys,.....	..	..	4	4	13
Brigs,.....	299	311	280	292	352
Brigantines,.....	66	51	85	98	99
Chasse maree,.....	3	1	..	4	..
Cobles,.....	2	1	2	1	1
Cutters,.....	3	8	2	17	8
Dandy,.....	..	3	7	10	5
Flats,.....	..	4	5	4	2
Galliots,.....	18	21	15	22	16
Hermaphrodites,.....	2	..	..	..	..
Hookers,.....	..	1	1	..	1
Ketches,.....	9	5	6	20	13
Keels,.....	..	2	1	1	1
Luggers,.....	11	11	26	12	25
Polaccas,.....	1	..	..	4	7
Ships,.....	92	58	55	50	49
Schooners,.....	342	354	374	491	421
Sloops,.....	76	68	89	127	114
Smacks,.....	47	65	55	90	70
Snows,.....	4	8	4	8	11
Trows,.....	1	..	..	1	1
Yachts,.....	3	1	4	2	4
Yawls,.....	..	..	4	..	15
Unknown,.....	1	2	1	1	3
Total,.....	1,153	1,143	1,170	1,416	1,379

Description of Ships.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.
Vessels not exceeding 50 tons,	.. ..	145 ..	172 ..	199 ..	306 ..	284
51 and not exceeding 100 "	541 ..	338 ..	321 ..	352 ..	455 ..	393
101 " " 300 "	496 ..	472 ..	473 ..	467 ..	493 ..	557
301 " " 600 "	67 ..	137 ..	114 ..	96 ..	105 ..	105
601 " " 900 "	27 ..	34 ..	43 ..	28 ..	33 ..	25
901 " " 1,200 "	4 ..	15 ..	7 ..	23 ..	17 ..	9
1,200 tons and upwards,.....	6 ..	12 ..	13 ..	5 ..	5 ..	6
Unknown,.....	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	2 ..	..
Total,.....	1,141 ..	1,153 ..	1,143 ..	1,170 ..	1,416 ..	1,379

IV. *Total number of Wrecks and Casualties during the Years* 1852 *to* 1860 *inclusive, distinguishing British from Foreign Ships, with the total number of Voyages of British and Foreign Ships.*

	Number of Voyages.			Number of Casualties.		
Year ending	*British Ships.*	*Foreign Ships.*	*Total Ships.*	*British Ships.*	*Foreign Ships.*	*Total Ships.*
Dec. 31, 1852,.....	197,580 ..	34,118 ..	231,698 ..	946 ..	169 ..	1,115
" 1853,.....	198,430 ..	44,549 ..	242,979 ..	688 ..	144 ..	832
" 1854,.....	195,165 ..	43,510 ..	238,675 ..	824 ..	163 ..	987
" 1855,.....	191,813 ..	38,238 ..	230,051 ..	974 ..	167 ..	1,141
" 1856,.....	206,339 ..	40,792 ..	247,131 ..	916 ..	237 ..	1,153
" 1857,.....	213,185 ..	44,818 ..	258,003 ..	930 ..	213 ..	1,143
" 1858,.....	201,872 ..	45,713 ..	247,585 ..	961 ..	209 ..	1,170
" 1859,.....	206,652 ..	46,713 ..	253,365 ..	1,228 ..	188 ..	1,416
" 1860,.....	209,026 ..	51,165 ..	260,191 ..	1,193 ..	186 ..	1,379
Total,.....	1,820,062	389,616	2,209,678	8,660	1,676	10,336

The Sea.—The mean depth of the sea is, according to La Place, from four to five miles. If the existing waters were increased only by one-fourth, it would drown the earth, with the exception of some high mountains. If the volume of the ocean were augmented only by one-eighth, considerable portions of the present continents would be submerged, and the seasons would be changed all over the globe. Evaporation would be so much extended that rains would fall continually, destroy the harvests, fruits and flowers, and subvert the whole economy of nature. There is, perhaps, nothing more beautiful in our whole system than the process by which the fields are irrigated from the skies—the rivers are fed from the mountains—and the ocean restrained within bounds, which it never can exceed so long as that process continues on the present scale. The vapor raised by the sun from the sea flows wherever it is lighter than the atmosphere, and condensed, it falls upon the earth in water. If we suppose the sea, then, to be considerably diminished, the Amazon and the Mississippi, those inland seas of the Western world, would become inconsiderable brooks; the brooks would wholly disappear, the atmosphere would be deprived of its due proportion of humidity. All nature would assume the garb of desolation; the bird would droop on the wing; the lower animals would perish on the barren soil, and man himself would wither away like the sickly grass at his feet. He must indeed be incorrigibly blind, or scarcely elevated in the scale of reason above the monkey, who would presume to say, or could for a moment honestly think, when duly informed on the subject, that the machinery by which the evaporation and condensation has been constantly carried upon the earth for so many centuries exhibits no traces of Divine science, power and benevolence towards mankind, whose subsistence and happiness absolutely depend upon the circumstance of the waters of the ocean, earth and air, uniformly preserving the average of their present mutual proportions.—*Quarterly Review.*

JOURNAL OF MERCANTILE LAW.

I. The Statute of Frauds. II. Insurance. III. Fire Policy. IV. Use of Camphene. V. Rail-Roads. VI. The British Law of Bankruptcy. VII. Rail-Road Mortgages. VIII. Mosaics and Precious Stones. IX. Playing Cards.

The Statute of Frauds.

A Promise to Pay the Debt of Another.—As is well known, the statute of frauds, first enacted during the reign of Charles II., (1677,) has been generally adopted in this country; yet none of the various statutes of the States exactly agree with the English statute, or with one another; but still, in substance, they are all very nearly alike.

The interpreting of this enactment has given rise to an almost endless amount of litigation; and even now cases are reported every day, on points which would seem long since to have been settled by our courts, and which litigation could therefore have been avoided, had the parties to the contract understood the true meaning of the statute, as already thus interpreted. Many of its provisions, too, relate so directly to commercial transactions that it is impossible for any one engaged in any mercantile or commercial business to be too familiar with them. We are led to these remarks from seeing a case reported in the last number of Gray's *Mass. Reports*, (Stone *et al. vs.* Walker *et al.*, 13 *Gray*, 613,) involving a point which we had supposed was already so clearly settled by repeated decisions that it would be impossible again to raise a question about it.

It will be remembered that this statute of frauds relates to several distinct kinds of contracts, but we would only call attention, at this time, to that provision requiring a promise to answer for the debt of another person to be in writing. To understand this provision fully it is only necessary to bear in mind one or two principles which the decisions made under it have clearly laid down.

And in the first place, of course, there must be a *consideration* for such a promise, to make it good. Hence, even if one promises in writing to answer for a debt of another, where there is no consideration for the promise, the promise cannot be enforced. The consideration may be either "a benefit to the promissor or else an injury or loss to the promisee, sustained by him at the instance and request of the promissor;" but there must be, as we have said, some consideration, either of one kind or of the other, to sustain the promise.

Then, again, it must be, as the statute says, in writing. But here arises the question which has been the source of most of the litigation under this provision, and it is this: What promises or contracts come *within this statute?* By the words "within the statute" is meant what contracts the statute *applies to.* Our courts, in interpreting this provision and answering this question, have long since made a distinction, which, if remembered, will explain the whole thing, and clear up the difficulty. They have settled, that where the promise is an *original* undertaking it

does not come within the statute, and need not, therefore, be in writing; but where it is a *collateral* promise, it must be in writing. For instance: "If two come to a shop, and one buys, and the other, to give him credit, promises the seller, 'If he does not pay you I will,' this is a *collateral* undertaking, and void by the statute of frauds, unless in writing. But if he says, 'Let him have the goods—I will be your paymaster,' this is an *original* undertaking, an undertaking as for himself, and he shall be intended to be the very buyer, and the other to act but as his servant." This is the substance of an illustration in an old English case, but the same has been used and the principle affirmed in very many of our American cases. In the recent one above referred to (13 *Gray*, 613) the court says: "If the promise is made by one in his own name to pay for goods or money delivered to or services done for another, that is *original;* it is his own contract, on good consideration, and is called *original*, and is binding on him without writing. But if the language is, 'Let him have money or goods, or do service for him, and I will see you paid,' or, 'I promise you that he will pay,' or, 'If he do not pay I will,' this is *collateral*, and, though made on good consideration, it is void by the statute of frauds, unless in writing." This principle will also be found illustrated in the older Massachusetts case of NELSON *vs.* BOYNTON, 3 *Met.* 400, as well as in numberless other cases in other States.

Thus it will be seen that the question always to be decided is, (see *Parsons on Laws of Business*, 77,) To whom did the seller give and to whom was he *authorized* to give credit? This question the *jury* will decide, upon consideration of all the facts, under the direction of the court. If a seller sues one to whom he did not deliver the goods, on the ground that this other promised to pay for them, then the question is, Did this other promise to pay for them as for his own goods? for then it is an *original* promise, and the promise need not be in writing; or did he promise to pay for them as for the goods of the party receiving them, and in case such party did not pay? then it is a *collateral* promise, and must be in writing. If, on examination of the books of the seller, it appears that he charged the goods to the party who received them, it will be difficult, if not impossible, for him to maintain that he sold them to the other party. But if he charged them to this other, such an entry would be good evidence, and, if confirmed by circumstances, strong evidence, that this party was the purchaser. But it cannot be conclusive, for the party not receiving the goods may always prove, if he can, that he was not the buyer, and that he promised only as surety for the party who was the buyer, and, consequently, his promise cannot be enforced, if not in writing. And, in general, in determining this question, the court will always look to the actual character of the transaction and the intention of the parties.

There is also another kind of promise, which is *original* and not *collateral*, and which does not, therefore, come within the statute. It is this: when the promise to pay the debt of another is not made at the time the debt is contracted, but subsequently, and arises out of some new and original consideration of benefit or harm moving between the newly contracting parties. As KENT, Ch. J., says, (8 *J. R.* 29,) "If a promise to pay the debt of another be founded on a new and distinct consideration, independent of the debt, and one moving between the parties to the new promise, it is not within the statute, but is an original promise."

For instance, take the case of SKELTON *vs.* BREWSTER, (8 *J. R.* 376,) where A., in consideration that B. would deliver him all his household goods, and that C. would discharge B. from execution, promises to pay C. the amount of the execution. In that case it was held that the promise of C. was an *original* undertaking and not within the statute. So, also, in GOLD *vs.* PHILIPS, (10 *J. R.* 412,) the court held, that if A., in consideration of a sale of land to him by B., promise to be accountable for debts due C. from B., it is an *original* undertaking, and not within the statute. So, also, in MERCEIN *vs.* ANDREWS, (10 *Wend.* 461,) it was held, that a promise to pay the debt of a third person, in consideration of the promisee surrendering property levied upon by execution, is, in like manner, an *original* undertaking, and need not be in writing to render it valid. These cases show very clearly the general principle, that when the promise to pay the debt of another is subsequent to the contraction of the debt, and arises out of some new consideration, such a promise does not come within the statute. We have also seen above, that when the promise is such that the guarantor becomes actually the purchaser, the promise in that case is, also, not within the statute. These exceptions, then, (if we may be permitted to call them such,) embrace, we believe, all the explanations necessary for a right understanding of this vexed question; and, could these principles and explanations be as familiar as household words (and they ought to be) to every one, we should have no more litigation under this provision of the statute of frauds.

INSURANCE.

Insufficiency of Policies.—In our last number was reported the case of TAYLOR *vs.* THE ÆTNA LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY OF MASSACHUSETTS, (13 *Gray*, 434,) illustrating the necessity of stating in an insurance policy the precise restrictions the company wishes to make to their contract. We find in the last volume of the Reports of the Court of Appeals of New-York State, (CASLER *vs.* THE CONNECTICUT MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, 22 *N. Y.* 427,) another instance of this same carelessness in wording a policy. In fact, the books are full of just such instances. Yet nothing is more damaging to insurance companies, as all know, than litigation as to the nature of the contract after a loss has happened. Nor is there, as a general thing, any need for it. The contract should be drawn up in simple, precise language, leaving out all vague generalities, so that the assured may know, without a doubt, what he can depend upon. When there is an actual honest loss, we think that the claim should be paid at once, and no attempt made on the part of the company to dig up defences or to creep out of their liability. In most cases, however, we are happy to say, that the difficulty between the insurer and the assured arises, as we have intimated, not from a dishonest desire of the company or its officers, but from having inserted in the contract phrases used in common conversation which have no accurate and well-defined meaning. For instance, take the case (13 *Gray*, 434) referred to in our last number. There the company probably wished not to assume the risks incident to a second-class passage to California in a second-class vessel. But fancying that if they expressed a part, the remainder would be understood, they simply restricted the assured to a first-class vessel. In ordinary conversation, if one were to tell us that he made a voyage in a first-

class vessel, we might, to be sure, suppose that he did not go "as a steerage passenger." But in drawing a contract it will not do to express only a part of what is meant, and rely upon such loose construction to work out the remainder of the intended meaning. Especially is this true of an insurance contract; for a policy of insurance is a contract of indemnity, and must, therefore, receive such a construction of the words employed in it as will make the protection it affords co-extensive, if possible, with the risk of the assured. (1 *Hall*, 166.) When, therefore, it is desired that the assured should not "pass to and from California" *as a steerage passenger*, it must, without doubt, be so stated in the policy.

The case of CASLER *vs.* THE CONNECTICUT MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY (22 *N. Y.* 427) is also, as we have said, an error of the same class, and the precise error made in this instance is one that many companies have fallen into, as appears by the policies we have examined, issued by them. The company in this case wished, we suppose, not to assume the risk the assured would incur by going into some of the almost unsettled portions of our country's territories. To express this wish the policy restricted the assured "*to the settled limits of the United States.*" Of course, when the court came to give effect to such a clause, it was held to be too vague and uncertain to mean what the company supposed it did, and therefore decided that it only restricted the assured *to the settled boundaries of the United States*—that is, that the policy allowed the assured to pass through any of the States (with the exceptions specially named) or territories, whether settled or unsettled. But we deem this case of so much importance that we shall insert it almost entire, simply adding that too much care and study cannot be spent upon each word of a policy, and the simpler and more exact the words, the less chance there will be of misunderstanding and litigation. The facts and opinion of the case we refer to (22 *N. Y.* 427) are in substance as follow:

Facts.—This action was brought to recover the amount insured by a policy issued by the defendant upon the life of NICHOLAS CASLER, of which the plaintiff was the assignee. One of the conditions of the policy was in substance that if the assured should pass beyond the settled limits of the United States, (except into the settled limits of the British provinces of Canada, &c.,) or visit parts of the United States lying south of the southern boundary of Virginia and Kentucky during certain periods of the year, then the policy should be void. The complaint averred the issuing of the policy and its assignment, and that the death of CASLER took place on the 21st June, 1850, within the settled limits of the United States, and while the policy was in force. The answer denied the averment in respect to the death of CASLER, and alleged affirmatively that on the 21st of June, 1850, he was beyond the settled limits of the United States.

Upon the trial it was proved that in the spring of 1850, CASLER started upon a journey to California by the route over the plains from Fort Independence, in the direction of the Great Salt Lake, and at the upper crossing of the South Fork of the Platte River was seized with cholera, and died there on the 21st of June, 1850.

The judge who tried the cause found, among other things, that the assured died at the time and place specified in the complaint, and, as a conclusion of law, that he did not pass and was not, at the time of his death, beyond the settled limits of the United States.

The judgment entered upon his direction for the plaintiff, was affirmed at General Term, and the defendant appealed to the Court of Appeals. The following is the decision of the Court of Appeals, affirming the judgment at General Term:

The Hons. W. J. BACON and S. L. SELDEN delivered the opinions.

Decision of the Court.—BACON, J., in his opinion, says: "It is claimed by the counsel for the plaintiff that the words 'settled limits' as used in the policy, mean 'established boundaries,' and that they are susceptible of no other fair or reasonable interpretation. On the other hand, the defendant's counsel insists that these words are synonymous with the phrase 'the region of the settlements,' and that consequently, as the assured could only reach California by going into and passing through an unsettled region of the country, the policy was forfeited.

"It is, on all hands, conceded that the place of CASLER's decease was within the established boundaries of the United States. If the words 'settled limits' had been only once used in the policy, and in no other connection than the one in which they first occur, I think it would readily be conceded, that the most natural and obvious interpretation is that given to them by the plaintiff. The word 'settled,' when used in connection with the word 'limits,' has its most natural synonym in the words 'fixed,' 'determined,' 'established.' And the word 'limit' most obviously and normally designates a bound, a restraint, a circumscription, a boundary. Then, again, if the words are to be understood in any other sense than as designating the recognised or established boundaries of the country, there are practical difficulties in giving them an application, such as would almost authorize a court to pronounce them void for uncertainty. What are we to understand by 'the region of the settlements,' and when could a man be said to be within or beyond there? How thickly must, or how sparsely may, any given section of the country be populated to come clearly within the scope of these terms? We have, in the very heart of this State, a vast region almost entirely untenanted by man. From the eastern boundary of the county of Oneida, extending almost to the shores of Lake Champlain, there stretches a wide expanse of unsettled and almost literally uninhabited country. It is the region of the primeval forests, with their native denizens, an 'unbroken, unbounded, magnificent wilderness.' Since the unfortunate HERISHOFF, more than half a century ago, penetrated the western verge of JOHN BROWN's tract, and for a short period attempted a residence at the outlet of one of the Moose lakes, not a dozen settlers have ventured to follow him, and locate permanently in this wild region. It is visited, indeed, during certain periods of the year, by sportsmen intent on game, or by those whose purpose it is for a season to banish themselves from society, and realize that 'boundless contiguity of shade' which the poet sighed for. It is far enough beyond the region of the settlements; and yet it would be a rather startling proposition that any one who should happen to have such a life policy as this, and who, for the purposes of relaxation, amusement or the love of adventure, should penetrate that great wilderness, would, by that act, run the risk of forfeiting all his interest in this policy.

"Again, there are in several of the Western States extensive prairies, varying in width from fifty to a hundred miles. On either side are the habitations of men and the accompaniments and appliances of civilized life; but in the wide and sea-like expanse nothing human lives. Sup-

pose the traveller, passing over this region, should be overtaken by sudden illness and perish in the midst of the prairie, without aid or the power of invoking it, would he be within or without the region of the settlements? Considerations like these soon inevitably lead to the conclusion that the language of the policy must have been used to indicate the established boundaries of the country; and such, upon the whole, I am satisfied is the interpretation that should be given to them. This is the more natural and ordinary signification of the language, and it is susceptible of a precise and definite application, for the boundaries of the nation are either well known or are capable of perfect ascertainment."

SELDEN, J., in his opinion, also says: But this question does not depend upon any refined criticism upon the language used. The clause is to have a reasonable interpretation. To provide that the insured should not, without the consent of the company, go without the bounds of the United States, would be a perfectly natural and proper provision; and this is precisely what the phrase in question means, upon a plain literal construction of its terms. But what sort of a contract should we have upon the other construction? Who can interpret the phrase, "the region of the settlements?" Can any one tell, with any precision, what it means? Is it not, in the highest degree, vague and indefinite? It is a phrase which would convey some vague idea, if used in a loose conversation, but which would seem to be utterly out of place in a contract where some degree of precision is required; and yet it is proposed to discard a phrase used by the parties, the literal meaning of which is simple, plain and appropriate, and to substitute in its place one invented by the court, the meaning of which is utterly vague and uncertain. I suppose Salt Lake City to be something of a "settlement;" could the insured, under such a policy, go there? If not, for the reason that the intermediate territory was unsettled, how near must he get to the city before he would be in "the region of the settlements?" Suppose he was residing there when insured, could he go for any purpose into the surrounding territory, or must he confine himself to the bounds of the city? Again, assuming that the insured could go to Marquette, upon Lake Superior, without going out of "the region of the settlements," could he cross from there to the Mississippi River? Once more: Suppose he should go, by the advice of his physician, upon a hunting or fishing excursion to the centre of the JOHN BROWN tract in this State, would he, when there, be within or without the region of the settlements? I confess myself unable to give a satisfactory answer to any of these questions.

It has been suggested that, by the phrase "settled limits," it was intended to embrace all the organized States and Territories of the Union, and to exclude all other territory. The language, however, seems ill-adapted to express such an idea, and there is nothing in the circumstances or in the nature of the contract to indicate any such intention. It is certainly safer, and more in accordance with legal principles, where there is so much doubt, to adhere to the plain, literal meaning of the terms of the contract. In accordance with these opinions the judgment was affirmed.

Notice of Subsequent Insurance.—We also find reported (22 *N. Y.* 402) the case of BIGLER *et al. vs.* THE NEW-YORK INSURANCE COMPANY, in which the question is finally settled, that when the condition of a fire policy requires the assured to give notice of any subsequent insurance,

the policy is avoided by a failure to give notice of a subsequent policy, *although the latter be void*, its invalidity, however, not appearing on its face. This decision does not agree with those of several other States, yet of course it must hereafter be considered the law of New-York, although it would seem that where the subsequent policy *was void*, there would be, in reality, no "*subsequent insurance*" of which to give notice. The facts of this case were these:

Facts.—On the 5th of September, 1851, the plaintiffs effected an insurance with the defendants in the sum of $1,000 on their saw-mill in this State, and the defendants issued to them a fire policy in the usual form. This policy contained the usual stipulation, that if the insured should make any other insurance, and should not, with all reasonable diligence, give notice to the secretary and have the same endorsed on the said policy, or otherwise acknowledged by the corporation in writing, then the said policy should cease and be of no further effect.

On the 30th of January, 1852, the plaintiffs procured from the Globe Insurance Company another policy on the same property for the sum of $1,000, and this policy contained the stipulation, that in case the assured should have already any other insurance against loss by fire on the property thereby insured, not notified to the Globe Insurance Company, and mentioned in or endorsed upon their policy, then the policy issued by them should be void and of no effect. We have seen that the plaintiffs did have a prior insurance with the defendants, but there was no endorsement on the Globe policy nor statement in or annexed to it, showing that there was any such prior insurance. Nor did the plaintiffs notify the defendants of the issuing of this policy by the Globe Insurance Company.

On the 31st of May, 1852, the property thus insured was consumed by fire, whereby the plaintiff sustained a loss to the amount of $2,800. Thereupon the plaintiffs brought an action against the Globe Company for the amount of the policy issued by them, and in settlement of this a draft was given by an agent of the Globe Company, which, however, at the time of this trial, had not been paid.

Decision.—On these facts the court held, as we have stated above, that the plaintiffs could not recover. The following is the substance of the opinion of the court:

I. The only question presented for our consideration is whether the plaintiffs, in the face of the conceded violation of their agreement with the defendants, can recover on this policy. That agreement was, that in case they should effect any other insurance upon the property covered by the defendants' policy, then the defendants' policy was to cease and be of no further effect, unless the plaintiffs should give notice to the secretary of the defendants of such further insurance, and have the same endorsed on the policy, or otherwise acknowledged in writing by the corporation.

Here it is undeniable, upon the facts proven in the case, that the plaintiffs did effect further and other insurance upon the same property, but did not give the defendants the required notice. By virtue of the agreement between the parties, the policy issued by the defendants was, from the happening of that event, to cease and be of no further effect.

II. The plaintiffs seek to excuse themselves for this breach of their agreement, by alleging that the policy obtained by them from the Globe Company was void by reason of the stipulation and agreement contained

in that policy, "that in case the assured shall have already any other insurance against loss by fire on the property hereby insured, not notified to this company, and mentioned in or endorsed upon this policy, then this insurance shall be void and of no effect." The plaintiffs say, therefore, that this latter policy was void, and hence, that they had no further or other insurance than the defendants' policy. Thus the agreement in that regard with these defendants was not violated. In assuming this position, they overlook the fact that this agreement or stipulation was made for the benefit of the Globe Company, and that it was competent for that company to waive it. It would appear that in the suit brought by these plaintiffs against that company, its liability on the policy was acknowledged, and a draft given to pay the amount of the loss. Hence the plaintiffs, although they now claim the Globe policy to be void, might receive the benefit of both policies, if allowed to recover in this action, and their answer, therefore, simply amounts to this, that this second insurance might legally have been resisted and avoided. Such was not the agreemeut between the parties to this action. For good reasons, the insurer and the assured agreed that if the latter thereafter made any other insurance on the property, such act should vitiate the policy. The defendants meant to have the plaintiffs take some risk themselves in reference to the insured property, and this was secured by its not being insured to its full value. This safeguard was lost when the second policy was taken, and that was precisely what the defendants intended and had a clear right to prevent, by the clause under consideration.

III. It is earnestly insisted, however, on the part of the plaintiffs, as above stated, that, in fact, they had no other insurance; the policy issued by the Globe Company being invalid, and that the "other insurance," in the contemplation of the policy, means legal and valid insurance. In reference to this point we have already made some suggestions. But assuming to be correct, that it was invalid, and that, consequently, the plaintiffs had no other legal insurance on the property, still we say the plaintiffs' position is untenable. The question thus presented arose in the Supreme Court of the United States, in the case of CARPENTER *vs.* THE Providence WASHINGTON INSURANCE COMPANY, (16 *Pet.* 495,) where this point was very fully discussed, and a decision made against the position of the plaintiff in this action. We regard this case as in point, and the reasoning of the court is satisfactory to us, and we think, therefore, the rule adopted by it should be sanctioned by this court.

Such is the substance of the opinion of the court in this case. As we have said above, however, a different view has been taken of this same question by the courts of Maine (37 *Maine*, 137) and of Massachusetts. (23 *Pick.* 418.) Both these States have held, that as, under the facts of the case, the second policy would be void, it could not amount to another insurance, or in any way affect the first policy. This seems to us to be the most reasonable conclusion.

Policy—Written Portions to prevail over Printed Portions.—We also find in this same volume of the New-York Reports (22 *N. Y.* 441) the case of HARPER *vs.* THE NEW-YORK CITY INSURANCE COMPANY, re-affirming the principle decided in 17 *N. Y.* 194, and holding that the printed portions of a policy are to be controlled by the written portions. In this case the plaintiffs' insurance was upon their printing and book materials, stock, &c., "privilege for a printing office, bindery, &c.," as appeared

from the description in the *written* portion of the policy. The *printed* condition declared in substance, that if camphene was used and a loss was occasioned thereby, the insurer would not be liable. The jury found, in answer to interrogatories specially submitted to them, that the use of camphene was according to a general and established usage in the printing and book business, as carried on by the plaintiffs, and that such use was necessary in that business. The plaintiffs used camphene in this manner, and the fire was occasioned by a workman throwing a lighted match into a pan upon the floor containing camphene.

On these facts the court held, that as camphene was necessary in the business carried on by the plaintiffs, the insurers were, under the written portions of the policy, liable for a loss occasioned by such necessary and customary use of camphene, although the printed condition declared that if the article were used, and a loss were occasioned thereby, the insurer would not be liable. By insuring the plaintiffs' stock with the privilege of a printing office and book bindery, the use of such materials as were necessary in that business were allowed, otherwise the contract was a mere delusion. The printed condition, exempting the underwriters from loss when occasioned by this article, should, therefore, be construed as referring to uses not within the privilege thus granted. So far as the two parts of the contract are repugnant to each other, the printed form must yield to the deliberate written expression.

Decisions in Admiralty.

United States Circuit Court, New-York. Before Judge Nelson, November 8, 1861:

Simon Banks *vs.* The Steamboat Metropolis.—The libel is filed in this case to recover damages against the Metropolis for a collision with the sloop Golden Rule, on the night of the 12th August, 1858, on Long Island Sound, some five or six miles off Falkland's Island, and nearly midway between that and Long Island shore. The sloop was laden with corn and feed, and bound for Providence, Rhode Island. The Metropolis was on her usual trip from Fall River to the city of New-York. The night was not very dark, the wind light, east southeast or southeast, the sloop going but one or two miles an hour, close hauled; she saw the lights of the steamer several miles off, and, when within some two or three miles, coming on a course apparently towards her, a bright light was hoisted by a hand standing on the deck; and afterwards, the steamer still continuing her course, he stood upon top of the cabin, holding the light as high as he could with his arm.

The pilot of the Metropolis admits he saw a light of a vessel some two or three miles off on his port bow, but that it soon disappeared, and he did not again see it till the moment of the collision. No change was made in the course or speed of the vessel, which was sixteen miles an hour, after discerning the light, nor, for aught that appears, was there any attention paid to it. The look-out admits he saw no light, nor did he report any till just as the collision happened. The better opinion, upon the proofs, is that, with a competent and vigilant look-out on the steamer, the sloop might have been seen even without a light, as the night was not very dark; but, with the light exhibited on the sloop, of

which we cannot doubt, as all on board testify to it, there is no excuse for not having seen her in time to have avoided the disaster. We consider the case a very plain one of fault on the part of the steamer. As to the damages, we agree with the court below that the libellant was entitled to recover on the basis of a total loss. The injury to the vessel and cargo was so great—and both submerged near the middle of the Sound, which, at the place of collision, was some sixteen miles wide—he was not under obligation to encounter the hazard and expense of attempting their rescue, or to save anything from the wreck. If the attempt had resulted in the increase of his loss, which it probably would, the respondents would not have been liable for it. Decree affirmed.

Rail-Roads.

Where two corporations, chartered respectively by the States of Michigan and Indiana, with power to each to build and operate a rail-road within its own State, have united in the business of transporting passengers over a third road in the State of Illinois, beyond the limits authorized by the charter of either, such corporations are jointly liable for injuries to a passenger resulting from the negligence of their employees. (Bissell *vs.* The Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana R. R. Co. *N. Y. Court of Appeals.*)

The New British Law on Bankruptcy and Insolvency.

The following is a summary of the most important changes made in the law of bankruptcy by the bill which received the royal assent on July 6th. In regard to the merits of this bill the London *Times* says:

"There can scarcely be a doubt that these alterations in the law will not only greatly lessen the expenses attending bankruptcy proceedings, but will be most acceptable to the mercantile classes, releasing them from the official trammels with which those proceedings have hitherto been invested. It is believed that a bill will be brought in, next session, to consolidate the law in one statute."

Non-traders are to be liable to the bankruptcy laws in respect of future debts. The seizure and sale of the goods of a debtor, under an execution for debt above fifty pounds, will be an act of bankruptcy, and all such sales must be by public auction, duly advertised. Per centages are no longer to be taken from bankrupts' estates, and the official assignees and messengers are to be greatly reduced in number, and paid by fixed salaries.

At the first meeting under a bankruptcy the creditors may remove the proceedings to any county court, or, if they think fit, determine to wind up the estate under a private arrangement, and also decide whether the bankrupt shall have any and what allowance for support. The official assignee is to collect the debts not exceeding ten pounds, and the court is to order in whose custody the books and papers belonging to the estate shall be deposited. The creditors are to determine whether the estate shall be realized by an official assignee or assignees chosen by themselves, and, in the latter case, may allow them the assistance of a paid manager. All moneys received by the assignees are to be forthwith

paid into the Bank of England, to the account of the accountant in bankruptcy, and in country districts, where there shall be no branch of the Bank of England, then into such other bank as the court shall direct.

The creditors' assignee must, every three months, submit a statement of his accounts, with vouchers, to the official assignee for examination, and, after such accounts have been passed, the official assignee is to send a printed copy thereof, or a statement showing the nature and result of the transactions and accounts of the assignee, to every creditor who has proved under the bankruptcy.

The proof of debts may be made by sending to the assignees, through the general post, a statement of such debt and of the account, if any, between the creditor and the bankrupt, together with a declaration, signed by the creditor, that such statement is a full, true and complete statement of account between them. False declaration is to be a misdemeanor. All statements of account are to be compared with the books and papers of the bankrupt by the assignees.

The classification of certificates is abolished, and the bankrupt, after passing his last examination, is to be entitled to an order of discharge.

Very stringent penal clauses are provided, and for a variety of offences the court may summarily order imprisonment for any period not exceeding one year, and may refuse or suspend the order of discharge, or attach conditions thereto as to future property. For offences made misdemeanors under the act, bankrupts may be tried in the court, with or without a jury, at the option of the bankrupt, and, on conviction, may be imprisoned for any term not exceeding three years, and be liable to any greater punishment attached to the offence by any existing statute. The court may direct the creditors' assignees, official assignee or any creditor to act as prosecutor, and the costs of such prosecution will be borne in the same manner as the expenses of prosecutions for felonies are now borne; and other costs incurred by such prosecutor, not so defrayed, are to be paid out of the accountant-general's fund.

Most important facilities are afforded to enable a debtor and his creditors to effect private arrangements under trust or composition deeds. A majority of creditors in number, including three-fourths in value, may, on execution of a deed of arrangement, and registering it in the court, bind a minority, and are to have the use of the court in all cases in which they shall require its assistance to decide questions as to disputed claims, or any difference that may arise between the parties interested in the debtor's estate. The court is not, however, to interfere in any manner, except its aid is invoked by some person having a direct interest in the matter. Every deed of composition must be registered.

Rail-Road Mortgages.

A question of considerable importance in relation to rail-road mortgages was decided on the 21st October, in the United States Circuit Court at Chicago, before Judge Drummond, in a suit upon a mortgage on the Peoria and Oquawka Rail-Road. The Chicago *Journal* gives this report:

"A bill having been filed to foreclose the second mortgage upon all that part of the rail-road of that company lying west of Peoria, and its appurtenances, revenues and income, after filing a cross-bill and several

amendments thereto, a petition was again filed for leave to file a further amended bill (cross and supplement) by the company, setting forth that the rail-road of said company extended across the State to its east line, and was completed through and extending, by its eastern connections, to the Atlantic cities; and that upon the eastern portion of the road were other mortgages amounting to two millions two hundred thousand dollars, which would be ruined and rendered worthless if the road west of Peoria could be sold separately, under the mortgage upon it; while if it could be kept together as one road, it would, as was alleged, earn money enough to pay the interest on all its mortgages, and ultimately the principal debt; and also setting forth that the lessees of a part of the road, HESS, HARDING & Co., were obligated, as lessees, to pay the interest upon the mortgage bonds by the terms of the agreement, and that interest had been paid, and that there were fraudulent and collusive arrangements between HESS, HARDING & Co., and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Rail-Road Company, to procure the sale and separation of the road west of Peoria from that east of that point, &c., &c., and praying a decree so shaped that the road mortgaged should not be sold separately, except upon condition to protect the interests of the bondholders on lines east of Peoria in the preservation of the road as an uninterrupted and single line, and MOSS & COMPANY'S interest should be first sold and the proceeds applied to pay the interest. His Honor, Judge DRUMMOND, after a very full discussion by the respective counsel, decided that for the purpose of enabling counsel fairly to raise the question in the Supreme Court, if they desired the allegation that the road was built to the east line of the State, and that it was mortgaged, as alleged, might be incorporated in the pleadings, but stating that the road, when sold, must be sold as mortgaged, and that no condition could, in his judgment, be inserted in the decree for the benefit of the eastern extension or the mortgagees thereof.

"That the mortgagees took a mortgage of the road and of the franchises, at least to some extent, and took it, therefore, subject to such rights as the public might have in the operation and management of the road; that when it should be sold it would be sold charged with the same rights, of course, but that those rights could not be defined by the court now nor settled by a decree; that if the purchasers at the mortgage sale did not live up to and discharge those duties, whether to the public directly or the rest of the line, the matter would become a subject for the interposition of the proper courts of equity or law, as the case might be, at the time when any question of that nature might arise. On these points he stated his judgment to be very firm.

"He held, also, that no proof was admissible to show that the road, if well managed and under one management, would earn money enough to pay the interest or principal of its debts. That was a matter susceptible of no satisfactory proof, and was not pertinent to the merits of the case, and that if in future it could possibly be the case that the road would turn out to be prosperous, it could be no answer to the claim of its credi tors now.

"He therefore ordered that only so much of the allegations as related to the construction of the road to the east line of the State, and the mortgages thereon, and as related to the payment of the interest since the filing of the original cross-bill, and as related to the earlier filing or ask-

ing to file the amendment, only be allowed to go on file, and that all the other allegations be struck out after the proposed amended bill.

"This is the first case of a mortgage of a part of a rail-road that has ever come before the courts, though it is understood that there may be many such in this State."

"Mosaics," &c., are not "Precious Stones."

In the Supreme Court, Circuit, New-York City, before Justice Barnard, there was tried recently a suit of Ball, Black & Company *vs.* The Liverpool, New-York and Philadelphia Steamship Company. The plaintiffs sued to recover of the defendants a box of mosaics and malachites, which were delivered to defendants at Liverpool to be carried to New-York. The box appears to have been lost, when or where was not shown. The defendants claimed that they were not liable, under a clause in their bill of lading that they would not be liable for boxes containing jewelry, precious stones, paintings or metals, unless the contents were stated at the time of the shipment by the shippers and extra freight paid. It appears that in this case no declaration was made, and defendants were kept ignorant of the contents of the box, and did not take any special care thereof, as they would otherwise have done, having a person on board for that purpose. The plaintiffs contended that technically the words "jewelry" and "precious stones" do not include either malachites or Florentine mosaics, because they were not set and ready for immediate use.

The jury rendered a verdict for the plaintiffs for $907 50. This verdict, as far as it goes, establishes that unset mosaics and malachites are not precious stones or jewelry. The court granted an allowance to plaintiffs' counsel of five per cent. on the verdict, and allowed the defendants twenty days to make up a case for appeal to the General Term.

Playing Cards an Article of Merchandise.

The Cincinnati *Commercial*, of 23d ult., furnishes the following report of a suit in the Superior Court in that city:

S. Hart *vs.* Marienthal, Lehman & Company. This case was before Judge Hoadley, on a demurrer to the answer. The suit was on a promissory note. The defence admitted the execution of the note, but averred that the consideration consisted of playing-cards manufactured by the plaintiff, and made for the purpose of gambling, the sale whereof was illegal; and it was urged that, therefore, the note was given without legal consideration, and that the plaintiff ought not to recover a judgment.

The court would not say that this answer may not be good, if it were alleged as a fact that playing-cards could not be used for any legal purpose; but as it is known that they are used for legal and even a laudable purpose—the amusement of parties sitting down at a whist-table, or in other games in which there was no betting—the court was not at all disposed to say the answer was good. The demurrer must be sustained, and, unless a good defence is presented, the plaintiff will receive a judgment.

INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF WORKS OF INDUSTRY AND ART,

To be held at London in May, 1862.

The undersigned, having been appointed by the President of the United States, under the authority of Congress, commissioners to represent the interests of such American citizens as may desire to become exhibiters at the Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations, to be held in London, 1862, invite the co-operation of their fellow-citizens in carrying out the objects of their appointment.

The articles exhibited will be divided into the following classes:

SECTION I.

Class.

1. Mining, Quarrying, Metallurgy and Mineral Products.
2. Chemical Substances, and Products and Pharmaceutical Processes.
3. Substances used for Food, including Wines.
4. Animal and Vegetable Substances used in Manufactures.

SECTION II.

5. Railway Plans, including Locomotives, Engines and Carriages.
6. Carriages not connected with Rail or Tram Roads.
7. Manufacturing Machines and Tools.
8. Machinery in general.
9. Agricultural and Horticultural Machines and Implements.
10. Civil Engineering, Architectural and Building Contrivances.
11. Military Engineering, Armor and Accoutrements, Ordnance and Small Arms.
12. Naval Architecture, Ships' Tackle.
13. Philosophical Instruments and processes depending upon their use.
14. Photographic Apparatus and Photography.
15. Horological Instruments.
16. Musical Instruments.
17. Surgical Instruments and Appliances.

SECTION III.

18. Cotton.
19. Flax and Hemp.
20. Silk and Velvet.
21. Woollen and Worsted, including Mixed Fabrics generally.
22. Carpets.
23. Woven, Spun, Felted and Laid Fabrics, when shown as specimens of Printing or Dyeing.
24. Tapestry, Lace and Embroidery.
25. Skins, Fur, Feathers and Hair.
26. Leather, including Saddlery and Harness.
27. Articles of Clothing.
28. Paper, Stationery, Printing and Bookbinding.
29. Educational Works and Appliances.

30. Furniture and Upholstery, including Paper Hangings and Paper Mache.
31. Iron and General Hardware.
32. Steel and Cutlery.
33. Works in Precious Metals and their Imitations and Jewelry.
34. Glass.
35. Pottery.
36. Manufactures not included in previous classes.

SECTION IV.—MODERN ARTS.

37. Architecture.
38. Paintings in Oil and Water Colors, and Drawings.
39. Sculpture, Models, Die-Sinking and Intaglios.
40. Etchings and Engravings.

Prizes in the form of medals will be given in Sections I., II., III., but none in Section IV.

Persons desirous of contributing must have their articles entered without delay, and accepted, as all articles, if to be sent by public conveyance, must be ready for shipment at New-York by the 1st of January, 1862. A brief description of the articles will be required, with the space they will probably occupy. The articles to be exhibited in Sections I., II., III., must have been *produced since* 1850.

Articles intended for exhibition in Section IV. (Fine Arts) are referred by the commissioners to a special committee of their own number, consisting of the Hon. EDWARD EVERETT, of Boston, ROBERT B. MINTURN, Esq., of New-York, and ELI WHITNEY, Esq., of New-Haven, to whom artists will address their communications.

Applications for admission of articles for exhibition must state the section and class under which such articles would come, and the space or area (in square feet) required for placing or hanging the same.

The application for the entry and reception of articles may be made to the chairman of the Executive Committee, at Washington, or to either of the commissioners or agents named below, who will forward the necessary papers to be executed by the applicant. Particular attention is called to the requirements of her Majesty's Commissioners. The following is the requirement in relation to entries from foreign countries:

"Her Majesty's Commissioners will communicate *only through* the commission which the government of each foreign country may appoint: *and no article will be admitted from any foreign country without the sanction of such commission.*"

No article, therefore, from this country will be admitted by her Majesty's Commissioners to the exhibition, unless they shall be approved or authorized by this commission, nor will any agent, representative or commissioner, other than such as may be appointed or accredited by this commission, be recognised by them.

It is expected that a vessel will be furnished by the government for conveying to London and return, free of charges, the articles entered and approved for the exhibition.

The importance of our country being fully represented at this exhibition is most manifest. Since the exhibition of 1851, the improvements in this country in implements, machinery and manufactures have, it is believed, been important, and it is a duty we owe to ourselves, as well as

to the countries of the Old World, that these improvements should be exhibited for the benefit of all. We trust that in this respect we shall not be disappointed.

The undersigned make their appeal to their fellow-citizens in full confidence that our country will be properly represented in this great exhibition.

As soon as the entire regulations adopted by her Majesty's Commissioners are received, they will be published and furnished to all who may desire them.

Wm. H. Seward,	G. Dawson Coleman,
Caleb B. Smith,	B. P. Johnson,
Edward Everett,	R. Wallach,
Robt. B. Minturn,	W. W. Seaton,
Joseph Henry,	Eli Whitney,
J. H. Klippart,	J. C. G. Kennedy.
Jas. R. Partridge,	

Washington, October 15, 1861.

Names of commissioners and agents who may be addressed by persons desiring to exhibit:

Edward Everett, Boston,	*Commissioners.*
Eli Whitney, Esq., New-Haven, Conn.,	
R. B. Minturn, New-York,	
B. P. Johnson, Albany, New-York,	
J. H. Klippart, Columbus, Ohio,	
J. R. Partridge, Baltimore,	
G. Dawson Coleman, Pennsylvania,	
J. W. Hoyt, Madison, Wisconsin,	*Agents.*
David Davis, Bloomington, Illinois,	
J. W. Hearney, Ladoga, Indiana,	
Jas. H. Baker, St. Paul, Minnesota,	
R. Lowe, Iowa,	
Leland Stanford, San Francisco, Cal.,	
Jacob M. Howard, Detroit, Michigan,	

Names of Executive Committee, office in the Department of the Interior, Washington, (No. 10 Patent Office Building:)

H. P. Johnson, *Chairman.*	Prof. Joseph Henry.
J. R. Partridge, *Secretary.*	W. W. Seaton.
J. C. G. Kennedy.	

STEAM AND THE TELEGRAPH TO INDIA AND CHINA.

By PERRY MCD. COLLINS.

I. TELEGRAPHIC AND STEAM COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SAN FRANCISCO AND ASIA. II. STEAM TO JEDDO, HAKODADI, NAGASAKI, SHANGHAI, AMOY, HONG KONG, AUSTRALIA AND INDIA. III. TELEGRAPH UP THE COAST OF THE NORTHWEST TO OREGON, WASHINGTON, VANCOUVER (BRITISH) AND SITKA, (RUSSIAN,) TO THE ALUTIAN ISLANDS, OR *via* BEHRING'S STRAITS TO ASIA, AND THENCE, *via* THE AMOOR RIVER AND SIBERIA, OVERLAND TO MOSCOW. IV. LATERAL LINES, TO CONNECT WITH THE MAIN TRUNK LINE, TO JEDDO, PEKIN, SHANGHAI, HONG KONG AND AUSTRALIA; ALSO TO BOMBAY, BRITISH INDIA, PERSIA, THE CASPIAN SEA, CIRCASSIA AND GEORGIA, THUS UNITING THE WHOLE WORLD IN TELEGRAPHIC UNION.

CAPE RACE and San Francisco are united. London, Paris and St. Petersburg are now the same distance from San Francisco as Boston, Quebec or New-York. Space has been annihilated; the Atlantic and Pacific are no longer separated by oceans, deserts or mountains. One hundred and fifty thousand saplings and some five thousand miles of iron wire have done the work. We stand on both oceans at the same moment of time. The Pacific Telegraph Company has conquered time and space, and, in an incredibly short space of time, united the Atlantic with the Pacific.

It is only about a year since that this gigantic work was placed upon a working basis; during the winter of 1860–61 the work of procuring the poles at the most available points was commenced, but it was not until the 20th day of June, 1861, that the actual work of erecting the line was commenced; and on the 25th day of October, 1861, San Francisco spoke to New-York.

St. Joseph, in Missouri, is considered the starting-point of the Pacific Company—about 2,200 miles to San Fransisco. This is properly the Pacific Telegraph, other independent companies occupying the space thence, distant from New-York say about 1,500 miles.

The government, by act of Congress, is to pay the company $40,000 a year for ten years. The line has cost, probably, about $350,000; of this, as yet, we have no positive data, but the cost will be much less than the most favorable estimate, many of the apparent and imaginary difficulties vanishing as they were approached by the workmen.

To HIRAM SIBLEY, Esq., of Rochester, the President of the Western Union Telegraph Company, probably more than to any other one man, we owe this gigantic enterprise. He has pursued it with faith, works and money, until triumphant success has crowned his earnest efforts.

Here, then, we find ourselves actually in telegraphic union with San Francisco. Are we to stop there? That is the next question. In looking west from San Francisco (for that seems to be our destiny) our eye falls upon the shores of Asia and upon the thousand islands of the Indian Ocean, teeming with one-third the population of the whole globe, and opening up to our view all the dreams, visions, facts and fancies of all those who have, from the earliest times, contemplated unrestricted commerce with the populous and opulent Orient, India and the further Ind. Thus we find ourselves with the speed of lightning on the shores of the great Pacific Ocean, calmly awaiting a further and a greater stride, still westward; because in our march to the Pacific we have reversed all the

old laws and usages of time-honored commerce, and the Orient has now become the Occident.

A telegraph is already in course of construction, connecting California with Oregon, and most probably an independent line, without any connection with a proposed Asiatic line, will reach Washington and Vancouver. This may be considered, then, as the utmost limit of telegraphic enterprise, as far as North America is concerned, at present. In looking west from the shores of the Pacific towards Asia, we find an immense expanse of water intervening, which would seem to preclude the idea of any further progress in the realization of telegraphic union. But brute instinct, as well as the reasoning power of man and the more unerring square, compass and level, have all determined that it is easier and quite as *direct* to go around a mountain rather than over it. Upon this theory, granting the Pacific Ocean to be a mountain over which we cannot reach Asia, and the distance being too great to *tunnel* it with a submerged cable, we must resort to the only plan left, and go around it. Taking, then, Vancouver as the western *terminus* of telegraphic communication, which is in about 50° N. L., we would ascend the coast to Sitka, the capital of Russian America, in about 56° N. L. Thence, following up the coast to Mount St. Elias, in 60° N., we would proceed northwest to Behring's Straits, 65° N. 168° W. L.

At this point the strait is about forty miles wide; here, of course, submerged cables would unite the American to the Asiatic shore. In order to insure the union of the two worlds, at least four or five separate cables should be submerged, all of which would be united at the shore ends. This would not only tend to preserve the cables from over-work, but render the possibility of breakage or other accident to the continuity of the line quite beyond doubt.

Leaving Behring's Straits, the Asiatic coast would be followed as far as practicable to the Anadir River, whence the line would be extended across the head of the peninsula of Kamschatka to Penjinsk, at the northeastern extremity of the Sea of Okotsk, and thence around and along its shores to the mouth of the Amoor River, in 53° N., 140° E. L.

Here we stop, because the Russian government not only propose, but is in fact now engaged in constructing a line of telegraph which is to connect Europe with this point on the Pacific Ocean.

Pausing for a few moments at the Amoor, we find, in looking back along our track, that we have overcome the *mountain* of the Pacific by merely keeping the shore line or base of this mountain, and thus reached a point on the Asiatic shore where we can open communication overland to Europe.

We have ascended from 50° N. to 65°, and descended to 53°, having overcome, in the mean time, 95° of longitude and 27° of latitude.

We scarcely need remind our readers, that although in ascending so high north so much out of a direct line from our starting point, in order to reach the opposite coast of Asia, we have in all probability not increased the distance at all.

In doing this we have merely followed a great circle, while the known spheroidity of the earth will prove the hypothesis that it is quite as easy to go around as over it.

By looking at the map of the North Pacific it will be perceived that from a point on the Russian-American coast west of Sitka, at Alyaska, the Alutian Islands form, and separate the North Atlantic from Kamschatka or Behring Sea.

These islands are prolongated towards the coast of Kamschatka, and, with Copper and Behring Islands, form, as it were, a succession of steps between the two continents.

Again, from the southern point of Kamschatka, the Kurile Islands enclose the Sea of Okotsk, and, leading to Jesso or Sak-hah-lin, conduct, by short intervals of water, to the main coast of Asia.

Again, between Alyaska and Behring's Straits there are other islands, such as Nunivak, Gores, St. Lawrence, &c., which might be used as *posts* for submerged cables, in order to reach Asia. But in considering all these island routes, we must look to the practicability and expense of submerged cables, as compared with the almost exclusive land route, *via* the straits.

If we follow the Alutian and then the Kurile Islands we shall have probably two thousand miles of cable, in sections not to exceed probably three hundred miles; or, if after reaching Kamschatka, we should be compelled to cross to Amoor direct, on account of the inexpediency of touching Japanese soil, then we have the Sea of Okotsk to cross with a cable of 600 miles.

The other island route further to the north, though not requiring in the aggregate so much cable as the Alutian route, would, however, require sections of two, three and four hundred miles.

The distance over these various routes will fluctuate between four and five thousand miles.

As to cost, take the Behring's Straits route and call it 5,000 miles, at $300 a mile, and we have the cost at $1,500,000.

If we take the Alutian Island route, where the greatest length of cable will be required, and carry it by the Kurile Islands to the Amoor, the cost may be stated at from four to five millions of dollars; in fact, calculations have run up to £1,500,000 or $7,500,000. Thus we have the difference in calculations of cost and distances over the various proposed routes.

In round numbers we have the following distances:

New-York to St. Louis	1,100 miles.
St. Louis to San Francisco,	2,600 "
San Francisco to Vancouver,	700 "
Vancouver to Sitka,	600 "
Sitka to Behring's Straits,	1,200 "
Behring's Straits to Amoor,	2,500 "

The distance by the island routes would be nearly the same as by the longest land route.

From this great world-encircling telegraph, as it progresses east from Moscow, lateral lines will in time branch off to the Caspian, Circassia, Persia and India.

From Irkutsk, in Eastern Siberia, a line following the track of the tea caravans could reach Pekin, thence to Shanghai, Amoy and Hong Kong. From the Chinese coast, opposite Formosa, a line could, by way of that island, reach Manilla, and thence over islands and straits to Melbourne, Australia.

Tapping the main trunk line at the Amoor, we could reach Jeddo and connect all the Japanese islands, thus actually concentrating the whole world telegraphically upon this great overland route.

At Omsk, in Western Siberia, a branch line following the Russian and Chinese frontier would penetrate the route of the overland caravan commerce, between the Caspian provinces on the west and the Chinese prov-

inces on the east; this branch line might also be pushed still to the south and west, *via* Bokhara, Balk and Cabool, to connect with the lines throughout the whole of British India; but all these lateral lines are questions of time and necessity. The first work in order is to build the great trunk line, after which the construction of these lateral lines will become questions of State policy or commercial necessity.

But, enough of telegraphs; let us now turn our attention to steam.

San Francisco must, from her position, climate and productions, be, to the Pacific side of our continent, what New-York is to the Atlantic side. Already, telegraphically, San Francisco is, say seven days from London, the shortest time; under ordinary circumstances, ten days.

Westward the star of empire has taken its way; let us but carry out its destiny and cause it to shed its rays upon the shores of Asia.

A line of steamers from San Francisco to Shanghai should not only become the first study of our Pacific merchants and bankers, but New-York should, by every means in her power, hasten the consummation of such a noble project. Nay, there is not within the legitimate scope of governmental protection and patronage a more important or useful field.

With a line of swift steamers from San Francisco, Shanghai can be brought to within twenty days of New-York, and London in twenty-six days. Over this line the current news, the mails, the exchanges and the bullion would soon inevitably find their way, as well as the lighter and most costly of Chinese, Japanese, and much of the Indian commerce, seek a market or eastern transportation.

San Francisco is in 38°, Shanghai in 32° N. L.; the distance is about 5,500 miles. From New-York to Liverpool it is 3,000 miles; consequently, with steamers such as the VANDERBILT, the ADRIATIC and the BALTIC, Shanghai would be but sixteen and a half days distant from San Francisco.

Counting seventeen days from Shanghai to San Francisco, one day's telegraph to Cape Race, and six days thence by steam and telegraph to London, we find that China is only twenty-four days distant from the Bank of England.

This schedule gives us an important advantage over the western mails and steamers leaving Shanghai for Europe *via* the Peninsular and Oriental Company's line.

Considering, as I do, that by no combination of circumstances the centre of commerce and power on our side of the Pacific can ever be removed from San Francisco, I shall consider that as the point from which our contact with Asia shall concentrate.

There seems to be, as yet, no limit to the discoveries of the more precious metals. The field is no longer limited to the foot-hills and western slope of the Sierra Nevada, but has crossed equally to the eastern slope; while Oregon, Washington and British Columbia have been added.

The silver deposits of our young and thriving Nevada, now in rapid course of development, must, within a very few years, give to San Francisco the control of supply for India and China of that metal.

It has been estimated by parties engaged in silver mining in Nevada, that there is now sufficient machinery on located mines in the territory to produce, when put in working order, fifty millions of dollars the first year.

Again, the cinnabar of California assures the working of the silver mines, for this metal is found in such abundance that the supply of quicksilver may be considered adequate to all demands.

Amid all this surfeit of gold, silver, cinnabar and copper of California and adjacent territories, we find yet other elements of prosperity, safety and wealth.

While the gold-fields are so rich and extensive, the wheat fields are adequate to all demands; and while the miners in the mountains, ravines and placers are settling the balances of the world with their yellow dust, the no less industrious cultivators of the soil are distributing to distant nations of the earth their golden harvest.

Not content with regulating and sustaining the commerce of the world by supplying the basis upon which it rests, as well as literally scattering her bread upon the waters, California, with her vine-clad hills and valleys, must soon make herself not only independent of, but will enter the markets of the world with her wines and brandies.

Thus, amid all these elements of wealth, prosperity and luxury, it is hardly necessary to attempt to foreshadow what position San Francisco must surely hold on the shores of the Pacific, nor attempt to picture her steady and irresistible march to power and wealth.

But these white-winged messengers, that so much delighted and astonished our forefathers, which walked the waters like things of life, and dared the elements to strife, and all that, no longer rule the wave.

In our degenerate times we most delight to see a black but graceful combination of iron and wood, some three to six hundred feet long, belching forth from her great smoke-stack volumes of the densest and blackest smoke, her great paddles dashing the waves to foam, and her sharp prow cutting the ocean asunder, while her track glides away in a sea of light.

It is something like this that rules the ocean now; without it we are fifty years behind the times.

San Francisco must have steam to China, and it is time not only that our merchants, but our government took the question under serious and determined consideration.

Consider at this time the threatening attitude of our foreign relations, the immense extent of our Pacific coast, the absolute necessity, in case of war, for a defensive steam marine, and we should need no further argument to make us act promptly and efficiently.

It is to be hoped that Congress is now, or soon may be, pretty thoroughly weeded of political hucksters, and that instead of legislating for self, that great and [should be] noble body of men will be found legislating for their country.

What an insignificant sum one or two or three millions of dollars a year would be in order to give us the control of the Chinese commerce, while at the same time we would be building up a steam fleet upon the Pacific which would render us secure in case of war.

It is astonishing how easy it is to do a great thing if we only have a very little encouragement; this has been proved very recently, in the construction of the Pacific Telegraph, which everybody has been talking of for the last ten years, yet no one man would, or set of men could be found, either in or out of the United States, to undertake its construction without the help of government.

This miserable pittance of forty thousand dollars a year has accomplished one of the wonders of the age; a sum, I have no doubt, the government will be enabled to save in actual expenditure and economy more than a dozen times this present year.

Again, the government is giving a million a year to the overland mail. Now, as a matter of revenue, I have no doubt it is a bad speculation, or rather investment; but has not the establishment of the overland mail hastened and rendered more practicable the erection of the telegraph? and though the government makes very bad bargains in some cases, yet facilities are cheapened in others. Thus the million given to the overland mail induced telegraphists to undertake their great work for forty thousand dollars, and though the discrepancy, as far as resulting actual benefit is concerned, is so enormous, that one is constrained to fancy that Congress, in its idea of compensation or encouragement, is not always ruled very sagely, yet we rest content on general results. However, we have now the overland mail and the telegraph; these are of the past—now let us look to the future.

Yet we must not forget how easy and rapidly these really great and difficult works were accomplished with only a very little, a mere mite, of that lubricating and efficient government oil—money.

Now, since Congress has set the ball in motion, and rolled both post-coach and telegraph over the grand deserts and mountains of North America, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, let our wise men, political economists, statesmen, philosophers and philanthropists just keep the ball in motion, while they have their hands in, and send the fleet and stately steamer across the gentle Pacific, and, consequently, finish the *last link* in *compassing* the *round earth* with *steam and electricity.*

The space from San Francisco to Shanghai is the last gap that remains to be filled in this world-encircling girdle.

Congress should, within twenty days from the first Monday in December next, pass a bill offering at least one million of dollars to any individual or association who would carry the United States mails to China and Japan, not less than twice a month.

It is hardly necessary to present an estimate of the number of steamers, their dimensions, speed or cost which should undertake this service. The moment the question is presented to Congress, a dozen competitors for the honor and emoluments would be ready with every detail and specification.

Let it not be said that this is not the proper time to present the subject to Congress, because we are engaged in a war for our national existence, that we are taxing the whole energies and calling upon the whole resources of the nation in a time of great peril, and that the expenditures to sustain the government will reach five hundred millions a year, the bulk of which must be borrowed.

No! let us rather say that the United States still exists; we know our duty and our future; our national flag still floats on every sea, and shall continue to float; and, as an evidence of our faith and determination, we mean it shall float triumphantly on the Pacific as well as on the Atlantic.

Our steam line from San Francisco to Shanghai will strengthen and consolidate that power so necessary to a commercial nation, and evidence to the world that, as a great power, we surrender nothing to the circumstances of the hour, but go steadily, hopefully and bravely forth in the path of progress, duty and power.

If Congress will do this we will, amid one of the most gigantic wars that has ever reddened the page of history, prove to the world our vitality as well as our determination to exist.

While there are so many thousands actively engaged in the strife and hazards of war, there are yet many more thousands equally active and zealous in all the arts of peace, and this enterprise would be most readily and quickly undertaken, and carried out successfully.

Now is the time; our commerce wants new avenues—extension, expansion. Thousands of our merchants and ship-owners have been driven from old, time-honored, lucrative and beaten paths. Let the government, while they are sustaining it with their millions upon millions of money, open up this new field of commercial enterprise, and pour some of the wealth of India into their coffers.

Able navigators should be left to choose the route to reach Shanghai; whether they reach it by the northern or southern route, it matters not to the government.

If experimental voyages should prove that the outward route should be made direct to Shanghai, taking advantage of the northeast trade winds, let it be so, returning up through the sea of Japan, touching at such ports as necessary.

At Hakodadi the commerce and mails for the Amoor and other Russian-Asiatic possessions would be distributed, while our whaling fleet in the North Pacific would make this point a rendezvous for advices from home.

Our steamers, thus making a circuit from San Francisco to Shanghai, thence up the western coast of Japan, and out through the Straits of Sangar on their return, would consolidate and accommodate American commerce, and assure to it all the necessary facilities for rapid and regular communication, strengthen us in the east, and divide the commercial empire of India with Great Britain.

Table of distances from San Francisco to important ports on the Pacific.

To the Amoor,	4,200 miles.
Hakodadi,	3,500 "
Petropavlosky,	3,000 "
Sandwich Islands,	2,200 "
Melbourne,	7,000 "
Calcutta,	9,500 "
Canton,	6,550 "
Shanghai,	5,500 "

Sailing vessels have made the voyage from Shanghai to San Francisco in about thirty days; from the Amoor in thirty; from Petropavlosky in seventeen days, and from Hakodadi in twenty-two days. These are the short and favorable voyages; generally, a large per cent. in time must be added to these voyages.

The Pacific Ocean being so much more tranquil than the Atlantic, steamers would make much greater speed; and again, there would be no winter coasts to be approached, with northeasters, snow-storms or icebergs. Consequently, the voyages across the Pacific would be attended with much less risk, greater speed and more regularity than across the Atlantic.

Again, voyagers bound from China for Europe would find it decidedly safer and more pleasant to reach Europe, *via* San Francisco and New-York, rather than by Calcutta, Bombay and the Red Sea.

Over the Indian route the heat is intense, the seas liable to sudden

tempests, while the construction, size and accommodation of the English steamers compare very unfavorably with ours on the California side.

If our route from Shanghai to San Francisco should be to the north, *via* the Straits of Sangar, and consequently on a great circle, we would make quicker time and avoid all the scorching and broiling that passengers so much complain of on the Indian overland line *via* the Red Sea.

The time from Shanghai to London being about sixty days by the Peninsular and Oriental Overland Company's conveyance for mails and passengers, we claim that the *Occidental* California route would attract and attach to it a fair, if not a marked number of passengers, as well as the preponderance of mails.

Telegraphically our San Francisco route defies the competition of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, because, under the most favorable circumstances of that company's despatches, we can reach London to the east, *via* San Francisco and Cape Race, in about twenty-five days; whereas it takes about forty-five days from Hong Kong, and consequently about fifty days from Shanghai, for telegraphic despatches to reach London over the Indian overland route.

This time may be reduced, to be sure, if the efforts to *relay or reconstruct* the Mediterranean and Red Sea cables should be permanently successful. But speculation is unnecessary when we have an aerial line that defies the elements, is visible and palpable, and which can only, under the most unfavorable circumstances, be interrupted but a few days at any one time.

Give us, then, our swift, airy, well-ventilated and capacious American floating, sea-going, Pacific palaces, and, my word on it, we will not only carry our own mails and passengers, but will tap the Peninsular and Oriental line, and divert a large proportion of oriental voyagers and mails to our shores, where comfort, health and luxury will be increased a hundred fold.

Nor will we be confined to passengers alone. These steamers will carry the specie, the quicksilver, and the higher descriptions of merchandise to China, besides many articles of luxury, fruits, wines, flour, butter, preserved fruits, meats, etc., etc., etc.

In return we will receive not only what is required for the consumption of the Pacific coast of Chinese and Japanese produce and articles of luxury, but we may expect the finer teas, silks, etc., etc., to find their way to New-York and even Europe, *via* San Francisco and Panama.

In fact, this steam line once established, we would, like in the case of the Pacific telegraph, be absolutely surprised not only why we had not carried it out before, and the ease with which it was done, but we would be astounded at the new avenues of commerce it would open to us, and the facility and ease with which we acquired so glorious a result.

Therefore, under the various phases of the completion of the *last link* in the *world-encircling* steam and telegraph lines over and around the Pacific, in order to open up to us the vast commerce of Asia, may we not very justly begin to look forward to the day when the transfer of power must be from the far off seat of power now enthroned in London, to a more genial, approachable and adjacent seat on the shores of the Pacific itself, viz., San Francisco?

It is a thought that is not vague or vagrant; we have only to grapple with manly souls and willing works, and even before the work shall itself be accomplished, the empire of London over Chinese commerce will be found gradually migrating towards the golden and silver shores of the Pacific.

EAST INDIA AND CHINA MAILS.

THE following table illustrates the ordinary time consumed in the transmission of passengers and mails to or from London and the places named, by the overland route. By adding ten days to these, we may estimate the ordinary time to or from New-York. We add, also, the ordinary fare by sailing vessels, from London and New-York to some of the places named:

FROM LONDON OR LIVERPOOL	*Ordinary time by mail from London.*	BY SAILING VESSELS.	
		From London.	*From New-York.*
To JAPAN.—Yedo,	....	..	....
Kanagawa,	78 to 80 days.	..	....
Nagasaki,	65 to 67 "	£50	$250 to $300
CHINA.—Peking,	64 to 72 "	..	....
Tien-tsin,	63 to 68 "	..	....
Hankow,	62 to 72 "	..	....
Shanghai,	54 to 60 "	£50	$250 to $300
Foo-chow-Foo,	55 to 60 "	..	....
Amoy,	52 to 58 "	..	....
Swatow,	51 to 53 "	£50	$250 to $300
Hong Kong,	47 to 49 "	..	....
Canton,	49 to 51 "	..	....
Macao,	....	..	....
PHILLIPINES.—Manila,	53 to 57 "	£50	$250 to $300
COCHIN-CHINA.—Touron,	....	..	....
Saigon,	44 to 49 "	..	....
SIAM.—Bankok,	54 to 60 "	..	....
BORNEO.—Labuan,	45 to 60 "	..	....
Sarawak,	53 to 60 "	..	....
JAVA.—Batavia,	43 to 47 "	..	....
MALACCA STRAITS.—Singapore,	37 to 41 "	£40	$225 to $250
Penang,	35 to 39 "	..	....

FUNDAMENTAL LAWS OF MEXICO.

Expenses of the Government of Mexico.—A decree, fixing the disbursements of the government, has been published, dated the 16th August, 1861. The annual expenses of the different departments are thus fixed:

Foreign relations,	$210,340 00
Interior,	1,191,830 00
Justice,	537,050 00
Fomento,	69,179 00
Finance,	1,573,624 00
War,	4,745,395 04
Total expenses,	$8,327,418 04

To cover this disbursement the Minister of Finance reports the following resources:

Customs duties,	$5,500,000
Contributions,	400,000
Sealed paper,	250,000
Custom-house of the district,	1,200,000
Total receipts,	$7,350,000

From this statement it will be seen that the annual disbursements will exceed the annual receipts of the government by $977,418 04. To cover this deficit a contingent is imposed upon the revenues of States and territories, amounting to twenty per cent.

FUNDAMENTAL LAWS OF MEXICO.

We republish, from the "*Mexcan*," published at the city of Mexico, the following table, giving the many laws, plans, constitutions, &c., which have formed the pivots upon which the many governments of independent Mexico have turned:

Names of laws.	*When enacted.*	*Where proclaimed.*	*Authors of the laws.*
Plan of Iguala,	24th February, 1821,	Iguala, Mexico,	Augustin de Iturbide.
Acta de Independencia,	28th September, 1821,	Mexico,	The Junta Gubernativa.
Declaration of the Empire,	19th May, 1822,	"	The Army and Congress.
Bases Organicas de la Junta Instituyente,	2d November, 1822,	"	The Junta Instituyente.
Act of Santa Anna, proclaiming the Republic,	6th December, 1822,	City of Mexico,	Santa Anna and Guadalupe Victoria.
Plan of Casa Mata,	1st February, 1823,	Near Vera Cruz,	The Imperial Army, headed by Gen. Echavarri.
Acta Constitutiva de la Federacion,	31st January, 1824,	Mexico,	Constitutional Congress of 1824.
Constitucion Federal of the United Mexican States,	4th October, 1824,	"	Federal Congress.
Ley Constitucional,	15th December, 1835,	"	The Congress.
Leyes Constitucionales del Congreso,	29th December, 1836,	"	National Congress.
Bases de Tacubaya,	28th September, 1841,	Tacubaya,	Santa Anna.
Plan de Huexotzinco,	11th December, 1842,	Huexotzinco, Puebla,	Several citizens of Huexotzinco.
Bases de Organizacion Politica,	12th June, 1843,	Mexico,	The Junta de Notables.
Plan de San Luis,	14th December, 1845,	San Luis Potosi,	D. Mariano Paredes.
Plan de Guadalajara,	20th May, 1846,	Guadalajara,	The garrison of Guadalajara.
Plan de la Ciudadela,	4th August, 1846,	Citadel of Mexico,	Gen. Mariano Salas.
Acta de Reformas á la Constitucion Federal,	18th May, 1847,	Mexico,	Congress assembled by Gen. Salas.
Plan de Jalisco,	20th October, 1852,	Guadalajara,	The garrison of Guadalajara.
Convenios de Arroyozarco,	4th February, 1853,	Arroyozarco, Queretaro,	Gen. Uraga and Col. Robles.
Bases para la Administracion de la Republica,	22d April, 1853,	Mexico,	Santa Anna.
Plan de Ayutla,	1st March, 1854,	Ayutla, Guerrero,	Col. Florencio Villareal.
Plan de Ayutla Reformado in Acapulco,	11th March, 1854,	Acapulco, Guerrero,	Ignacio Comonfort.
Estatuto Organico,	15th May, 1856,	Mexico,	" "
Constitucion de la Republica Mejicana,	5th February, 1857,	"	Congress created by the Plan of Ayutla.
Plan de Tacubaya,	17th December, 1857,	Tacubaya,	Gen. Zuloaga.
Plan de Tacubaya á Reformado in la Ciudadela,	11th January, 1858,	Citadel of Mexico,	Gen. Parra, backed by the clergy.
Laws of Reform,	1859,	Vera Cruz,	Constitutional President Juarez and Cabinet.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

I. Trades and Employments in France. II. Marriages, Births and Deaths in France. III. West Indies and Mauritius. IV. Victoria. V. Effects of Climate on Northern and Southern Troops. VI. The French and the English.

TRADES AND EMPLOYMENTS IN FRANCE.

An interesting document has lately been published in Paris, giving the number of the individuals in France at the date of the last census (1856) who were engaged directly or indirectly in various professions and trades, from which they derived their support. The returns include not only adults, but also children, and are thus classed:

Agriculture,.....	19,034,071	Clergy of all persuasions,...	142,705
Manufactures,.....	10,690,961	Persons without any trade or profession,.....	3,241,457
Commerce,.....	1,652,331		
Professions,.....	1,462,144		

A comparison between the population returns of 1851 and 1856 shows a sensible diminution in the number of persons engaged in agricultural labor, and an increase in the class following manufacturing pursuits. Here are the figures:

	1851.		1856.
Agriculture,.....	21,992,874	....	19,034,071
Manufactures,.....	9,233,895	....	12,202,391
Professions,.....	3,483,538	....	3,262,282
Without profession or trade,.....	1,022,063	....	1,480,925
	35,732,370	....	36,009,669

During the preceding year (1854) the receipts from the octroi in Paris were fifty-four millions of francs, being an increase of twenty-one millions of francs in ten years; and the total receipts of the metropolis, in the same year, amounted to 110,306,124 francs, while the expenditures, during the same period, was 97,720,544 francs.

STATISTICS OF FRANCE.

In the French empire, the annual number of male births is a sixth greater than the births of females; but the annual deaths of males surpass slightly the deaths of the opposite sex, there being 65 deaths of females to 66 males. From 1817 to 1853 the population increased steadily every year; but in 1854 and 1855 it diminished considerably. The average annual increase, from 1817 to 1857, was 159,018 inhabitants; or the 310th part of the average population, calculated at 33,410,000, up to 1857. If the same ratio should continue in the future, the population will increase one-tenth in twenty years, two-tenths in thirty-eight years, three-tenths in fifty-five years, and will not double itself before the lapse of 146 years. There is one birth to 34,066 inhabitants, and 0.84 deaths —that is to say, 100 births to 84 deaths. There is one death and 1.20 births to 41,050 inhabitants, or 100 deaths to 120 births.

Marriages.—There is one marriage to 127 inhabitants, and 3.41 legitimate births, or 341 legitimate births to 100 marriages. To every 1,074 inhabitants there are, annually, 29 births, 25 deaths and 9 marriages.

Manufacturing Districts.—By a comparison between the population and the superfices of each department of France, it is found that the most productive department is the most densely populated, excepting, of course, the department of the Seine, in which Paris is located. Thus, the department of the Lower Alps, which has a territory larger than the department of the north, has a population eight or nine times inferior to the latter. The department of the Seine is the smallest and the most densely populated. Its territory is thirteen times smaller than the Lower Alps, and its population four times greater.

Paris.—The specific population of the department of the Seine (that is to say, the proportion of inhabitants to each square yard of territory) is fifty-three times that of all the rest of France. The department of Seine counts 3,632.25 inhabitants to the square kilometre, (five-eighths of a mile,) and the department of the Lower Alps counts only 21.52. Of 1,286 children supposed, for the sake of the calculation, to be born at the same moment, a sixth dies in the first year after birth; a fifth fails to reach the age of two years; a fourth, the age of four years; and a third does not attain the age of fourteen. One-half of the remainder reaches forty-two years; a third, sixty-two years; a fourth, sixty-nine years; a fifth, seventy-two years, and a sixth, seventy-five years. Or, in other terms, of 1,286 children, supposed to be born at the same moment, 215 die during the first year after birth, and 65 only during the second year. At the age of ten, the survivors number 879, or a loss of 407 in ten years. At twenty years of age there are 814 survivors; at thirty, there remain 734; at fifty, 581; at seventy, 310; at ninety, 11; and at ninety-five years, one is still living. We are inclined to deduce from these figures that the chances of longevity in France are vastly superior to those of our own country. The climate is no better, but the people are much more careful of their health than we are of ours.

WEST-INDIES AND MAURITIUS.

A return has been made of the number of immigrants and liberated Africans introduced into these colonies. Last year the West Indies received an addition of 12,541 to their population, 8,503 of them being from India, of whom 2,169 went to Trinidad and 5,076 to British Guiana. To this last colony, also, 1,242 immigrants were brought from China. From Mauritius the returns are but for the first three-quarters of the year; 9,955 immigrants had arrived from India. All that Jamaica had received in 1860 were 598 from India and 47 from St. Helena.

VICTORIA.

It appears from the report of the immigration agent for the year 1859 that the total immigration into Victoria in that year amounted to 27,432, viz.: 12,330 from the United Kingdom, 5,340 from New South Wales, 3,617 from Southern and Western Australia, 3,166 from Tasmania, 411 from New-Zealand and South Seas, and 2,463 from foreign ports. In the same year, 19,418 took their departures from this colony, viz.: 5,922 to

the United Kingdon, 4,205 to New South Wales, 1,465 to South and Western Australia, 2,588 to Tasmania, 952 to New-Zealand and South Seas, and 4,286 to foreign ports. The increase of population by unassisted emigration amounted to 8,014. If to this number be added 3,151 immigrants by government ships despatched by the emigration commissioners, the entire increase would be 11,165 souls. During 1859, 30 vessels arrived with 644 Chinese immigrants, and 37 left, having on board no fewer than 3,275 souls. The gross amount of immigration into Victoria during the first two months of 1860 is stated to have been 5,769 souls, and the departures 3,461, giving a balance in favor of the colony of 2,308 souls. According to a return furnished from the Registrar-General's office at Melbourne, it would appear that on the 30th of September, 1860, the population of Victoria was 544,677—341,628 being males and 203,049 females.

NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN TROOPS.

Comparing the northern soldier with the southern, we believe the former will withstand the effects of the climate for a short campaign of a year or more better than the latter, and though the popular belief is divergent to this view, the statistics of our war with Mexico fully sustain it, and the published opinion of no less an authority than Dr. NOTT, of Mobile, in the *Southern Journal of Medicine and Pharmacy* for January, 1847, confirms it.

On April 8th, 1848, the Secretary of War made a report to the United States Senate, of the losses of the volunteer forces employed in Mexico. From this it appears that seven northern States—Massachusetts, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois—furnished, in the course of that war, 22,573 men. Of this force, the total loss from disease was 2,931 men—less than one-eighth of the whole. Nine slave States—Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee and Kentucky—furnished 22,899 men. The loss from this force by disease, and death caused by disease, was 4,315, or more than one-fifth—a very considerable difference in favor of northern troops.

THE FRENCH AND THE ENGLISH.

The public documents of 1859 show that the mortality in that year, in Great Britain, was at the rate of 2.196 per cent.; in France, 2.670, but this latter is considerably above the average of that empire, owing to the prevalence, at that time, of dysentery, diptheria and some other epidemics. The marriage rate in Great Britain was 1.650 per cent.; in France, 1.638. The birth rate in Great Britain was 3.482; in France, 2.778. Thus the marriage rate and the birth rate being lower in France than in Great Britain, and the death rate higher, the natural increase of population is less in France than in Great Britain. The births in France, in 1859, were 1,011,787; there is no record of the births in Ireland, but it is estimated that the births in the United Kingdom amounted to nearly the same number; but the deaths in France were 972,556, while the deaths in the United Kingdom were estimated at not exceeding 651,171—fewer deaths by 300,000, with about an equal number of births.—*British Medical Journal.*

JOURNAL OF NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

I. Launch of a Cunard Steamer. II. The Cunard Steam Fleet. III. Ventilation of Ships. IV. New Light-Houses—1. Navesink Lights—2. Gulf of Finland—3. Mediterranean—4. Turkey—5. Sea of Marmora—6. England—7. Gulf of Bothnia. V. Deviation of the Compass.

LAUNCH OF A CUNARD STEAMER.

On the 8th October, Messrs. Napier & Sons launched from their building yard, at Govan, the finest screw steamer which the Clyde has yet produced. The vessel which, as a screw, has carried off the palm, is named the China, and is intended as a complement to those fine vessels which are already on the Cunard line. The launch was most successfully completed, notwithstanding the disagreeable character of the weather. The youthful daughter of Mr. Campbell, of Blythswood, performed the interesting ceremony of naming the vessel. The China is a ship of 2,600 tons burthen. She is to be fitted with oscillating engines of 550 nominal horse-power, and patent surface-condensers in addition to the ordinary condensers. The Cunard Company have always exhibited the greatest caution, combined with the highest enterprise, in constructing the vessels intended for their line; and in the present case we have an instance of a vessel, fitted up with all the most recent improvements, and yet, to provide for the smallest chance of an accident, having on board not only the condensers on the new system, which has generally been adopted to the discardment of the old plan, but those also founded on the former system. This is only an additional proof to the many which have already been given of the great care and attention which the Cunard Company have always paid to the building of their famous line of steamers. The following are the dimensions of the China: Length of keel and forerake, 322 feet; breadth, (moulded,) 40 feet; depth, (moulded,) 29 feet; and extreme length, 346 feet.—*Glasgow Herald, Oct.*, 1861.

THE CUNARD STEAM FLEET.

The Sidon, a fine screw steamer, of about 1,800 tons, (builders' measurement,) and 300 horse-power, arrived recently in the Mersey, from the Clyde, after a rapid passage. The Sidon was built by Messrs. William Denny & Brothers, of Dumbarton, and her engines, which are of the oscillating kind, were constructed by Messrs. Tulloch & Denny, of the same town. She belongs to the Mediterranean fleet of the Cunard Company, and will sail for the Italian ports in a few days.

VENTILATION OF SHIPS.

Messrs. Silver & More have patented a new method for ventilating the between decks of ships. Having made sundry experiments, they

discovered that all gases descend. To carry them upwards, therefore, a downward and upward draught was necessary. This they have managed by opening trap-valves in all the decks below the spar deck. These apertures are protected by the insertion of a round iron grating. The valves under the decks spread the air or gases, and help in the down-draught, and they are made self-acting, so as to close in the event of water filling the compartments of the hold, and thus stop its passage above the lower deck. To carry off the gases and all foul air from the hold, pipes are let down through all the decks to within a few feet below the lower deck. The upper parts of these pipes are conically shaped, to create a current of air. The gases are carried up, naturally, by this up-draught, and pass away above the bulwarks. By this simple contrivance the patentees maintain that they can keep the between decks free from impure air and foul smells, for, as the pure air passes down the hatchways it carries with it the gases to the hold, and thence by the up-pipes to the spar-deck. The smell from bilge-water and offensive cargo would be considerably lessened by this mode of ventilation. The principle, we understand, is about to be adopted in France, in theatres and hospitals, and is to be tried in ships.—*Mitchell's Steam Shipping Journal.*

NEW LIGHT-HOUSES.

Navesink Lights, marking the approaches to the harbor of New-York.—The Light-House Board at Washington gives notice that two new light-house towers are being erected at Navesink, N. J., a few feet in the rear of the two light-house towers from which the existing lights are now exhibited. On or about the 1st day of May, 1862, of which due notice will be given in advance, two first order fixed lights will be exhibited from the new towers, and the old towers will be removed. The illuminating apparatus will be catadioptric of the first order, according to the system of FRESNEL. The towers are built of reddish gray granite; are each 53 feet 6 inches in height from the base to the lantern deck, having a focal plane above the mean level of the sea of 258 feet. Both lights will have exactly the same elevation. The new towers stand 228 feet apart from centre to centre of the lanterns, and preserve the bearings of the old ones from each other.

The intelligent seaman will not fail to perceive that, in approaching the entrance to the bay of New-York from the southward, after passing the Capes of the Delaware, he may see (if within their range) the first order fixed light at Absecom, or the first order revolving or flashing light, (*visible once in every ten seconds,*) at Barnegat, on the New-Jersey coast, and then the two first order fixed lights at Navesink; or, if approaching from the eastward, after passing Montauk first order light, (*fixed, varied by flashes once in every two minutes,*) he may see the first order fixed light at Great West (Shinnecock) Bay, or the first order revolving light (*once every minute*) at Fire Island, from which last light he can shape his course to make the two fixed lights at Navesink.

The Navesink lights are 38½ nautical miles to the northward of the Barnegat Light, and 38 nautical miles to the westward of Fire Island Light. The Barnegat and Navesink lights will be seen at the same time in clear weather in sixteen fathoms water, and at thirteen nautical miles distance

from the New-Jersey beach. The Fire Island and Navesink lights will be seen at the same time in clear weather in sixteen fathoms water, and at seventeen nautical miles distance from the Long Island beach. The existing lights at Navesink have a mean range of revolving light, twenty-two nautical miles; fixed lights, twenty nautical miles. The two first order fixed lights to be exhibited from the new towers, on or about the 1st of May, 1862, will have a range (under ordinary states of the atmosphere, from the deck of a vessel fifteen feet above the water) of 25½ nautical miles, and both will be made at the same time, and both will be seen at the same time when within their range. A new notice will be issued during the ensuing winter, setting forth the precise night on which the old lights will be discontinued and the new fixed lights exhibited.

Island of Haughland, Gulf of Finland.—Change of Light.—The Hydrographical Department of the Minister of Marine of Russia has given notice that the upper light upon the Island of Haughland—that is, the upper one upon the northern hill of that island—in latitude 60° 05′ 44″ north, longitude 26° 58′ 24″ east of Greenwich, will be lighted, after the repairs shall have been completed, with a FRESNEL apparatus of the first order, showing a white light. This light is situated 383½ feet above mean sea level, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 25 to 28 nautical miles.

Mediterranean Sea.—Bosphorus.—The Turkish government has given notice, that on the 16th day of August, 1861, the following lights were exhibited from light-houses recently erected in the Bosphorus:

Fixed Green Lights.—Pilon de Sultan-Serail.—Two fixed green lights, placed vertically, have been established between the villages of Defterdar and Kourou Tcheshmeh, on the coast of Europe, in front of the Sultan's Palace. The lights are about sixty yards from the quay, at an elevation of thirty-nine feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Red Lights on Kandili Point.—Also, two fixed red lights, placed vertically, on Kandili Point, on the coast of Asia. The lights are exhibited above the first row of houses bordering the quay, at an elevation of 112 feet above the sea, and visible at a distance of four miles.

Fixed Green Lights at Roumili Hissar.—Also, two fixed green lights, placed vertically, on the point of Roumili Hissar, on the coast of Europe. The lights are exhibited under the wall of the fortress, at the distance of 110 yards from the guard-house, at the height of forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at a distance of four miles.

Fixed Red Lights at Khanlijeh Point.—Also, two fixed red lights, placed vertically, on Khanlijeh Point, on the coast of Asia. The lights are exhibited 110 yards from the shore, above the first row of houses which border the quay, at an elevation of ninety-two feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Green Lights at Yeni-Keui.—Also, three fixed green lights, in the form of a triangle, shown from a light-vessel moored on the edge of the bank off the village of Yeni-Keui, on the coast of Europe. The lights are elevated forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Green Lights at Therapia.—Also, two fixed green lights, placed vertically, close to the battery of Kefali Keui, at about one mile N. W.

by W. of Therapia, on the coast of Europe. The lights are forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Red Lights on Umur Banks.—Also, three fixed red lights, in the form of a triangle, exhibited from a light-vessel, moored on the western edge of the Umur Banks, on the coast of Asia. The lights are elevated forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at four miles.

Fixed Red Lights at Jeron Point.—Also, two fixed red lights, placed vertically, are exhibited from Jeron Point, the outermost point of the low fort of Kavak, on the coast of Asia, at the height of forty-six feet above the sea, and visible at a distance of four miles.

Mediterranean Sea.—The Turkish government has given notice, that on the 16th day of August, 1861, the following lights were exhibited from light-houses recently erected in the Archipelago and Dardanelles:

Archipelago.—Revolving Light on Sigri Island, Mityleni.—A *revolving* white light, eclipsed every *thirty seconds*, has been established on Sigri island, at the west end of the island of Mityleni, at a height of 180 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 24 miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the first order. The position of the light-house is given in lat. 31° 13′ N., long. 25° 51′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Light on Ponente Point, Tenedos.—Also, a *fixed* white light has been established on Ponente Point, the low western point of the island of Tenedos, at a height of 59 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at the distance of fourteen miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the third order. The light-house is in lat. 39° 50′ north, long 25° 58′ 45″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed and Flashing Light on Isle Gadaro.—Also, a *fixed* and *flashing* light, a *red* flash recurring every *two minutes*, is shown from a light-house on Isle Gadaro, one mile eastward of the northeast end of Tenedos. The light is 59 feet above the mean level of the sea, and visible at a distance of twelve miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fourth order. The position of the light-house is in lat. 39° 50′ north, long. 26° 6′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Dardanelles.—Green Lights at Seddul-Bahr.—Also, two *green* lights, placed vertically, are exhibited from the south point of the fortress at Seddul-Bahr, about one mile eastward of Cape Helles, on the coast of Europe. The lights are 52 feet above the mean level of the sea, and visible at a distance of four miles. The position of the light-house is 40° 2′ 18″ north, long. 26° 12′ 5″ east of Greenwich.

Revolving Light of Khephez or Barber's Point.—Also, a revolving *red* light, eclipsed every *thirty seconds*, is shown from a light-house near the battery in ruins, one mile southwest from Khephez or Barber's Point, on the coast of Asia. The light is 59 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen at a distance of twelve miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fourth order. The light-house is in lat. 40° 5′ 21″ north, long. 26° 22′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Red Lights on Cape Peskieri.—Also, two *fixed red* lights, placed vertically, are exhibited from a light-house at Cape Peskieri, N. N. W. of the village of Bourgas, on the coast of Asia, at an elevation of

of 56 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen at a distance of four miles. The position of the light-house is in lat. 40° 16′ 40″north, long. 26° 34′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Mediterranean Sea.—Sea of Marmora.—The Turkish government has given notice, that on the 16th day of August, 1861, the following lights were exhibited from light-houses recently erected in the Sea of Marmora:

Fixed and Flashing Light on Cape Khoraz.—A *fixed* and *flashing* white light, a flash recurring every *thirty seconds*, has been established on the summit of Cape Khoraz, about 1⅔ miles from the village of Khoraz, on the coast of Europe. The light is 180 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of 22 miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the second order. The position of the light-house is in lat. 40° 41′ 15″ north, long. 27° 17′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Light at Erekli.—Also, a *fixed* white light on the west point of the coast south of the roadstead of Erekli, on the coast of Europe. The light is 164 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of eleven miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fifth order. The position of the light-house is in lat. 40° 58′ 28″ north, long. 27° 58′ 15″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Light at Kutali.—Also, a *fixed* white light on the rock at the western entrance between Kutali and Rabby (Araplar) islands, at an elevation of 49 feet above the sea, and visible at a distance of ten miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fifth order. The position of the light-house is given in lat. 40° 30′ 34″ north, long. 27° 28′ 5″ east of Greenwich.

Fixed Red Lights on Palio Point.—Also, two *fixed red* lights, placed vertically, on the western point of Artaki peninsula, at the northern entrance of the channel of Rhoda, at an elevation of 138 feet above the sea, and visible at five miles. The position of the light-house is given in lat. 40° 29′ 23″ north, long. 27° 40′ 40″ east of Greenwich.

Yarmouth Sands.—Corton Gatway.—Official information has been received from the Trinity House, London, that a safe channel, exceeding six-tenths of a mile in breadth, has formed between the Corton and Holm sands, known as the Corton Gatway, and will, on or about the 1st November next, be buoyed off as a day channel, with circular *black* and *white* striped buoys, on the N. E. side, and with vertically *red* and *white* striped buoys on the S. W. side, of which further particulars will be given when the buoys are placed. Notice is also given, that on the 1st of January, 1862, a light-vessel, showing a quick revolving *red* light, will be placed in fifteen fathoms, just outside the present South Corton Buoy, as a fairway light to the said channel.

Stanford Channel.—Notice having been previously given that this channel can no longer be safely navigated by night, the Stanford light-vessel will be taken away on the 1st January, 1862.

Entrances to the Thames.—Shingles Channel.—Notice is also given, that a deep channel has formed between the Girdler and Shingles sands, and will, on or about the 1st November, be buoyed off with *red* buoys on the N. E. side, and vertically *black* and *white* striped buoys on the S. W. side, of which further particulars will be given when the buoys

are placed. It being desirable to alter the color of the four white buoys at the entrance of the Thames, for the purpose of making them more distinctive, the undermentioned buoys will be altered at the same time, as follows, viz.: the Nore buoy, to circular *black* and *white* striped; the Cant, to chequered *red* and *white;* West and Middle Spaniard, to *black.* The staff and ball being removed from the West Spaniard buoy.

Baltic.—Gulf of Bothnia.—Fixed and Flashing Light on Lungo Island.—Official information has been received that the Royal Administration of Maritime affairs at Stockholm has given notice, that on the 1st day of September, 1861, a light was exhibited from a light-house recently erected on the southern point of Lungo island, off Hernosand, on the coast of Sweden. The light is a *fixed* and *flashing* white light. A *flash* lasting *seven seconds* is preceded and followed by intervals of darkness, each being of *twenty seconds* duration; a fixed light then appears for *two minutes and thirteen seconds,* and is followed by the interval of darkness which precedes the flash. The light is elevated 78 feet above the mean level of the sea, and should be seen in clear weather at a distance of twelve miles. The illuminating apparatus is dioptric, or by lenses, of the fourth order. The tower is 25 feet high, circular, and colored yellow; its base being 53 feet above the sea. The keeper's dwelling, painted red, and visible some distance at sea, stands 250 feet northwest of the tower, which is in lat. 62° 38½′ north, and long. 18° 6′ east of Greenwich.

Beacon on Ryvingen Island.—Also, that a new beacon of stone, in the form of a pyramid, 30 feet high and painted yellow, was to be erected in the place of the old one on the island of Ryvingen, near Mandel, in July last.

FINDING COMPASS DEVIATION AT KRONSTAT.

The Ministry of Marine has given the following notice of an arrangement made in the commercial port of Kronstat, to enable mariners to determine the deviations of their compasses, as resulting from the effects of the iron of the ship or the cargo on board, whilst lying at anchor in the great roadstead of that port, viz.: The correct magnetic bearings of the foundry chimney from various parts of the western wall of the commercial port of Kronstat are indicated by a series of marks, ranging between the bearings of N. 89° E. and S. 79° E., painted on the western face of the wall. The degrees are marked in figures legible from the roadstead of Kronstat, the even figures being on a black ground, and the odd figures on a red ground, in the following order:

9 80 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 90 9

indicating as here stated under each figure—

S.79° E. S.80° E. S.81° E. S.82° E. S.83° E. S.84° E. S.85° E. S.86° E. S.87° E. S.88° E. S.89°E. E. N.89°E.

The half degree between each of the above is also denoted by a white circular mark between them. The difference between the bearing of the foundry chimney, as indicated by any one of these marks and that observed from the ship when it is seen in line with it, is, therefore, the deviation of the compass. (Mariners will remember that this arrangement is similar in principle to that adopted at Liverpool, where the bearings of Vauxhall chimney for the same purpose are legibly painted on the sea face of the dock walls of that port. The variation of the compass at Kronstat has been assumed in the above arrangement to be 4° W.)

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

I. Seizures at New-York. II. The Stade Dues. III. Treaty with Denmark. IV. French West Indies. V. Danish West Indies.

SEIZURES BY CUSTOM-HOUSE OFFICERS.

For the space of several months past, various vessels from Buenos Ayres, with cargoes of wool, hides and horns, consigned to merchants of this city, have been seized by the custom-house authorities, on a charge that the invoices of the cargoes were fraudulent and the cargoes, therefore, liable to confiscation.

This course has caused considerable annoyance to the merchants, who acted in good faith with the government, and had no intention, much less desire, to defraud the United States out of a farthing of their just dues. Some cargoes have been examined, re-appraised and released; in other cases the consignees have entered into bonds to abide the eventual adjustment of the difficulty, and thus released their cargoes; while other cases are in the courts, and the goods still in the possession of the custom-house authorities.

The whole difficulty seems to arise out of a misunderstanding between the custom-house appraisers and the consignees relative to the currency of Buenos Ayres, whence the goods are imported. By the old tariff, for instance, wool invoiced at less than twenty cents per pound *ad valorem* was admitted free of duty.

The revenue law of 1799 requires that in all cases where the currency of the country, whence goods are imported, is not fixed by the schedule of the United States, the consul at the port of exportation shall certify the value of the same, in Spanish or American dollars; which certificate shall be affixed to the invoice, and serve as a guide for the collector in estimating the value of the goods. Invoices from these countries are required to be made out in the currency of those countries, and the collector, in estimating the value, determines the same by the consular certificate.

The currency of Buenos Ayres is paper money which, forty or fifty years ago, represented a par value of one Spanish dollar; that is, one paper dollar was equivalent in value to one Spanish dollar. The political and other disturbances of the country, however, soon depreciated this value, and issues of paper money were made to such an extent from time to time, that at last the value of the paper money so depreciated, that now, with a circulation of about four or five hundred millions, each dollar is nominally worth only about four cents, or, in other words, it requires twenty-five of the paper dollars to equal in value one Spanish dollar.

This valuation, even, fluctuates to a considerable extent, and hence certificates of the consul are found representing the value of the currency at various amounts, from twenty-two to twenty-five to the dollar.

In some of the interior provinces the currency is reals of plate, rep-

resenting one-eighth of a dollar, but by the laws of the United States they are worth but one-tenth, requiring ten reals of plate to equal in value one dollar or La Plata dollar. Bargains for the products of the interior are based on this currency, but when payment is made, the value is estimated at ten to the dollar. Gold and silver coin, in fact, has no value as currency, being an article of commerce and fluctuating in value, as does almost any commodity with us.

Doubloons, even, fluctuate according to the state of the market, as they do here. Before the influx of gold from California and Australia doubloons had a standard value, which is now much depreciated even in this country.

In estimating the value of importations from Buenos Ayres the collector assumes a doubloon to represent in value sixteen Spanish dollars; and hence, for instance, seeing them quoted in that country at 335 dollars Buenos Ayres currency, he estimates the value of the Buenos Ayres dollar at a fraction less than twenty-one, while in fact their value is only twenty-five to the dollar. The collector also assumes to call eight reals equivalent to one Spanish dollar; thus proportionately affecting the value of the goods at the port of exportation.

It is held to be a well-settled principle of revenue law, based upon the act of 1799, that the collector has no authority to go behind the consular certificate, under any circumstances; he being the officer of the government as much as is the collector. The collector is governed by this certificate in assessing duties, and upon it he estimates whatever duty is due the government.

It is doubtful if the Treasury Department at Washington will sustain the construction that has been placed upon the revenue laws by which these seizures are justified; consequently the goods seized will have to be surrendered, either voluntarily by the collector or through due process of law.

THE STADE DUES.

The ships of the nine powers who concluded a treaty with Hanover for the abolition of the Stade dues are not only entirely free of the liability to pay these dues, but also from the obligation of giving a security for the amount, which was required while the negotiations were pending. The arrangements with France, Sweden, Denmark and Lubeck are nearly concluded. The States that have not yet made any agreement with Hanover as to the duties are the United States, the new kingdom of Italy and Oldenburg. The government of the North American Federation has, however, instructed its Minister at Berlin to enter into communication with Hanover on the conditions agreed to by the other powers. The political condition of the kingdom of Italy delays the negotiations with it, and Oldenburg refuses to accept the distribution of the indemnity stipulated by the other treaties. In a semi-official document published at Hamburg it is announced, that up to the present date the treaty concluded with Hanover for the abolition of the Stade dues has been ratified by the governments of Great Britain, Brazil, Belgium, Holland, Portugal, Hamburg, Prussia, Austria and Russia.

TREATY WITH DENMARK.

The President has published the text of two additional articles added in July last to the treaty between Denmark and the United States. The articles provide, first, that the consular agents of the respective governments shall have the right to sit as judges and arbitrators in such differences as may arise at sea or in port between the captain, officers and crew of vessels of their own nation; and, second, that the consular agent have power to require the assistance of the local authorities for the search, arrest and imprisonment of deserters from the ships of war and merchant vessels of their country.

FRENCH WEST INDIES.

The new commercial system granted by France to her colonies of Martinique, Guadaloupe and the Isle of Reunion, superseding the former prohibitive regulations, came into force in the beginning of September. By this change the above islands are opened to the commerce and navigation of the whole world. The importation of merchandise will take place on the same terms as into France, except where the colonial tariff is more liberal, in which case the latter rate is retained. Trade can be carried on under any flag, but, with certain exceptions, a differential duty is charged on foreign as compared with French ships. All export duties on colonial merchandise are abolished. English vessels will now be enabled to take cargoes of foreign goods to these islands, and return laden with produce, either to their port of shipment or to France. The production of sugar is expected to be largely benefited, and increased activity is also looked for in the coffee, dye-woods and spirit trades. The principal articles imported by the three islands are wood for building, manufactured iron, salted meat and fish, butter, oil, flour and coal, and at each colony there is a port offering every convenience to maritime commerce. The change from exclusive prohibition to a system more nearly approaching free trade appears to be the commencement of a new and important era for these dependencies.

PRIVATEERS IN THE DANISH WEST INDIES.

The following official notice, excluding privateers from the Danish West India ports, appears in the St. Thomas *Tidende*, of the 20th July:

"Owing to the present state of political affairs in America, it is hereby brought to public notice, that privateers of no nation whatever will be allowed to resort to the Danish West India harbors or waters, or to send their prizes either to St. Thomas or any other of the harbors in these islands, or dispose of them there, as little as it will be allowed that vessels be provided in the Danish West India Islands with requisites for privateering, whether consisting in materials of war and provisions, or letters of marque from any belligerent power.

"Government for the Danish West India Possessions, St. Croix, 12th July, 1861.

"W. Birch."

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

I. Early Manufactures in Rhode Island. II. Coal Mining in India. III. The Working of English Mines. IV. Manilla Rope. V. Japanese Paper. VI. Breech-Loading Pistol-Knife. VII. The National Beverage. VIII. "Entire" Porter. IX. Missouri Lead Mines. X. Shoddy. XI. Shoddy, Flocks and Noils. XII. Photographs in the House of Commons. XIII. Wages and Profits. XIV. Poisoned Dresses. XV. Re-making Leather. XVI. Lake Superior Iron.

EARLY MANUFACTURES IN RHODE ISLAND.

At a special meeting of the Rhode Island Historical Society, the Rev. Mr. Banvard, of North Providence, read a paper upon the early history of Pawtucket.

The name of "Pawtucket," Mr. Banvard said, was given to it by the natives, and signified "great falls of water." Pawtuxet, its diminutive, means "little falls of water."

In 1636, Roger Williams purchased of Canonicus and Miantinomo, after two years of negotiation, all the lands and meadows on the Moshassuck and Wanosquatucket Rivers. A transfer of a large portion of those lands was made to Joseph Jenks, October 10, 1671. Jenks was, according to tradition, the first settler of the town; and, being a manufacturer of anchors and other heavy iron articles, is said to have left Lynn because of the expense of obtaining wood and coal, which had become scarce there, and to have selected Pawtucket as a desirable location on account, not only of the abundance of fuel, but also of water power. This forge, situated on the western side of the Blackstone River, was burned by the Indians in 1675, in King Philip's war. Its site is now occupied by a large cotton mill. Oziel Wilkinson, a blacksmith, who came from Smithfield, afterwards commenced business near Jenks' establishment. This shop was known as the Upper Anchor shop; Jenks' as the Lower Anchor shop. Wilkinson's sons succeeded him, and greatly enlarged the business. Oil mills were early erected for it by one Kennedy, and afterwards by Wilkinson.

About sixty years ago there was an old snuff mill standing on the banks of the Blackstone, a short distance above Pawtucket, and, about the same time, a chocolate mill was in operation further up the stream, a part of the same building being occupied as a fulling mill and for the manufacture of wash-leather. Over $1,000 worth of this article was stolen from Colonel Hall, who was the manufacturer, and found a long time afterwards, so damaged as to be useless, in the woods, with other stolen goods. This mill subsequently became a snuff mill, and afterwards a cotton factory, and, with two or three other buildings, constituted the whole village of what is now Central Falls. Nearly all the land in that vicinity belonged, at that time, to the Jenks family.

In the great flood of 1807, that forced its way through the valley of the Blackstone, fourteen buildings were swept away from the village and

carried down the stream. Merchandise of all sorts floated down the current. A keg of butter, marked with the name of RICHARD WATERMAN, made a successful trip as far as Newport, where it was found some time after. From certain houses the deliverance of their inmates was effected with great difficulty and hazard. One factory was carried down the stream without going to pieces. Among the buildings destroyed was that in which SAMUEL SLATER tried his various experiments, and manufactured machinery for the first cotton mill in America.

Concerning the changes in that water-course known as "Sargent's Trench," and the discoveries made thereupon, the essayist made special and appropriate mention, and then proceeded to sketch an account of the life and labors of SAMUEL SLATER, a young man, 22 years of age, when he was taken to Pawtucket by the venerable MOSES BROWN, on the 18th of January, 1790. After great labor, amid frequent alternations of hope and disappointment, the repeated efforts of Mr. SLATER met with success. His carding, spinning and roving machines, to secure the operation of which his labor and experiment had been long directed, finally worked well, and the machinery moved to his satisfaction. MOSES BROWN, in a letter dated Providence, 19th of fourth month, 1791, says: "The weavers inform me the yarn works better than any linen they have had, and takes less trouble to warp and weave it." To SLATER is conceded the honor of introducing the English method of using machinery in the spinning of cotton.

The manufacturing of steel was introduced into Pawtucket somewhere about 1790.

President MONROE, while on a tour through New-England, visited SLATER's mill, at Pawtucket, and was shown the first frames for water-spinning, according to those patents which SLATER himself had erected from memory, without the least assistance from drawings or models. President JACKSON also visited Pawtucket, and honored Mr. SLATER with a call at his own residence, holding a pleasant interview with him, which Mr. BANVARD described.

Not long after the year 1814, when patterns of the power-loom were brought to Providence, Mr. DAVID WILKINSON introduced it and the dresser into Pawtucket, and manufactured them for sale. Previously to 1815 all weaving was done by hand. The writer referred at length to the manufacture of superior fire engines by Mr. WILLIAM JEFFERS, and to that of sash and blinds by DANIEL D. SWEET, originated in 1838 by DANIEL DUNHAM.

Sixty years ago there were but seventeen houses on the Massachusetts side of the river, and about twice that number on the Rhode Island side. About a hundred years ago there were two ship yards, one on each side of the river.

COAL MINING IN INDIA.

Over the vast peninsula of India, which has an area of 800,000 square miles, coal is found only in the valley of the Ganges and neighboring hills, in Rawah to the south of the Soane, in the Nerbudda valley, and in the Sylhet hills on the far northeast. There is no workable coal elsewhere in the northwestern provinces, none in Oude, the Punjaub, Scinde, Bombay or Madras. This fact is the less cheering that iron and lime

are generally associated with coal in the same formation, and that India, except in the east, is comparatively destitute of these great elements and necessities of modern civilization. It is no great consolation to say that where coal exists, it is abundant; that Bearbhoom, for instance, is one mass of mineral wealth. India is as large as Europe, and the coal of Raneegunge or lime of Sylhet is more useless to the cotton mills and building firms of Bombay or Madras than that of Newcastle is to Moscow. Coal is most bulky for carriage, and railway carriages will always be so expensive that it will probably be cheaper for Bombay to use good English than indifferent Bengal or even Nerbudda coal. The following abstract contains the result of Mr. OLDHAM's inquiries:

Districts.	1858.	1859.	1860.
Raneegunge coalfield,.....	5,917,000	8,949,600	8,559,097
Rajmahal hills,.....	219,000	843,000	1,222,860
Kurhurbari,.....	4,000	108,182	275,256
Palamow,.....	....	28,648	30,900
Sylhet hills,.....	22,319	32,498	....
Total in maunds,.....	6,162,319	9,961,928	10,088,113
or in tons,.....	226,140	365,575	370,206

These figures show the healthiness of the trade, which, notwithstanding the local fluctuations, has steadily progressed. In the Raneegunge coalfield, which is now tapped by the East Indian Railway, and which will shortly be pierced by two branches, there were last year 49 collieries, with 27 steam-engines at work. This is the result of little more than 20 years' operations. The number of collieries in the United Kingdom is 2,654, and the out-turn of coal is 72,000,000 tons annually, or 200 times that of India. Our readers will form a better estimate of the coal-producing power of India, if we place in order, with the assistance of Mr. HUNT's mining records, the out-turn of all the coal countries in the world in 1857. We regret Mr. OLDHAM has not given the proportion of the coal area to that of the whole country:

Countries.	*Proportion of whole area.*	*Production in tons.*
British Islands,.....	1—10	66,000,000
Belgium,.....	1—22	5,700,000
France,.....	1–100	4,500,000
United States,.....	2—9	4,500,000
Prussia,.....	1—90	3,500,000
British North America,.....	1—20	900,000
British India,.....	....	370,206
Bohemia,.....	1—20	300,000
Spain,.....	1—52	250,000

Of the nine countries, India is thus already seventh on the list. What a future for America is involved in the fact that nearly a fourth of her whole area, as far as investigated, is covered with coal. India raises a third more than Spain, and about the same amount as Warwickshire. The consumption of coal in India and by vessels leaving its ports we may estimate at 700,000 tons annually, the amount imported in 1857 from England being 329,157 tons. Reckoning the price of Indian coal in Calcutta at five annas a maund, or 17s. a ton, and English coal at the same rate, (though it is far higher,) we have more than £500,000 sterling spent on coal in India. As the trade and manufactures of India increase, and

as machinery comes to be more and more largely introduced, indigenous coal will become more important. The fact that the supply is in certain districts inexhaustible, and that the demand is annually increasing, is one full of hope for the coal companies and proprietors who already occupy, or, like the Bengal Coal Company, monopolize the field. It is possible the Nerbudda fields, worked by the company just established, may supply Bombay and the southern portion of the northwestern provinces on the completion of the railway. But Oude, the Punjaub and Madras must still look to their forests, which, on both sanitary and commercial grounds, it becomes daily of more importance to utilize and renew.—*Friend of India.*

THE WORKING OF THE ENGLISH MINES.

An English journal, after valuing the total product of the mines of Great Britain at £41,491,102 per annum, and computing that England's supply of coal will last at least seven hundred years longer, at present rates of consumption, gives the following account of the depth to which the bowels of the earth have been pierced in England:

"The depth to which we mine for coal is already great. The pit at Duckenfield, in Cheshire, is 2,004 feet below the surface to the point where it intersects the 'Black Mine Coal,' a seam which is four feet six inches thick, and of the best quality for domestic and manufacturing purposes; from this point a further depth of 500 feet has been attained by means of an engine plane in the bed of coal, so that a great portion of the coal is now raised from the enormous depth of 2,504 feet. At Pendleton, near Manchester, coal is daily worked from a depth of 2,135 feet; and the Cannel coal of Wigan is brought from 1,773 feet below the surface. Many of the Durham collieries are equally deep and far more extended in their subterranean labyrinths. Some of those, and others in Cumberland, are worked out far under the bed of the sea, and on both sides of the island we are rapidly extending our sub-oceanic burrowing.

"Dalcouth tin mine, in Cornwall, is now working at one thousand eight hundred feet from the surface, and is rapidly sinking deeper. The depth of Tresavean, a copper mine, is two thousand one hundred and eighty feet. Many other tin and copper mines are approaching these depths; and under the Atlantic waves, in Botallack, Levant and other mines, man is pursuing his labors daily at half a mile from the shore. To aid the miner in these severe tasks gigantic steam engines, with cylinders one hundred inches in diameter, are employed in pumping water from those vast depths. Winding-engines, which are masterpieces of mechanical skill, are ever at work raising the minerals from each dark abyss, and 'man engines,' of considerable ingenuity—so called because they bring the wearied miner to the light of day, saving him from the toil of climbing up perpendicular ladders—are introduced in many of our most perfectly conducted mines. Our coals cost us annually one thousand lives, and more than double that number of our metaliferous miners perish from accidents in the mines, or at unusually early age—thirty-two—from diseases contracted by the conditions of their toils. By the industry of our mining population there is annually added to our national wealth considerably more than thirty millions sterling. This,

when elaborated by the process of manufacture, is increased in value tenfold. While we are thus drawing upon that 'hoarded treasure, guarded by dragons white and red,' which the enchanter MERLIN is fabled to have concealed in the caves of the earth, we should not cease to remember how much of mental labor and muscular power is expended, and how large a per centage of human life is annually sacrificed in the contest with those hydra-headed evils which are truly personified by the dragons of the legend."

MANILLA ROPE.

A firm in Liverpool, manufacturers of hempen and wire rope, now advertise thus:

"The present unusually low price of manilla hemp induces us to bring to notice the economy of using it for rope. Being much lighter than Russian hemp, at the same price per cwt., it would be fully 20 per cent. cheaper, and when spun by machinery is the strongest and most durable rope in use. Tarred Manilla answers best for all ropes much exposed to wet, as hawsers, warps," &c.

Manilla hemp, according to the Boston *Commercial Bulletin*, (one of the best commercial papers of the day,) is derived from a species of banana tree, indigenous to the forests of Mindano, one of the largest islands of the Phillippine group. The tree is cultivated for its fiber, which is obtained by rotting the trunk of the tree until the woody matter falls away from the fiber, which, with little cleaning, becomes the Manilla hemp of commerce. This is collected by the natives into rolls, bundles and small bales, care being taken not to entangle the hemp, shipped in small coasting vessels to Manilla, and then screwed into the regular 280 lb. bales of commerce. The bulk of the product is then shipped to the United States, England and other commercial countries using comparatively little of this fiber in their cordage manufactories. Under favorable circumstances the Phillippines will continue a sufficient supply for the ordinary demands of commerce, at rates not much varying from the present, as Americans, being the largest buyers, keep down competition, while care is taken by those in the trade not to let the rates to the producer recede so far as to check production.

It is probable that if a new source of supply for this commodity is ever sought, it will be found indigenous to the Caroline and portions of the Solomon's Islands, and in the mountains of the Eastern Archipelago. Perhaps it could be cultivated profitably in Nicaragua and Central America.

JAPANESE PAPER.

We may take some instructions from the Japanese, who do not use rags for making paper, but the inner bark of trees. From a recent account in *Blackwood's Magazine*, it appears that this peculiar people are far in advance of the rest of the world in some specialties of paper making. The writer of the article to which we refer, in describing the peculiarities of the Japanese, says:

"It is wonderful to see the thousand useful as well as ornamental purposes for which paper is applied in the hands of these industrious and tasteful people. Our *papier mache* manufacturers should go to Yedo to learn what can be done with paper. We saw it made into material closely resembling Russian and Morocco leather; it was very difficult to detect the difference. With the aid of lacker, varnish and skilful painting, paper makes excellent trunks, saddles, telescope-cases, the frames of microscopes; and we even saw and used excellent water-proof coats made of paper, which did keep out the rain, and were as supple as the best Mackintosh, (India rubber.) The Japanese use neither silk nor cotton handkerchiefs, towels or dusters; paper in their hands serves as an excellent substitute. It is soft, thin, and of a pale yellow color, plentiful and cheap. The inner walls of many a Japanese apartment are formed of paper, being nothing more than painted screens. Their windows are covered with a fine translucent description of the same material. We saw what seemed to be balls of twine, which were nothing but long shreds of tough paper rolled up. If a shopkeeper had a parcel to tie up he would take a strip of paper, roll it up quickly between his hands and use it for twine. In short, without paper, all Japan would come to a dead lock. * * Japanese mothers-in-law invariably stipulate in the marriage settlement that the bride is to have a certain quantity of paper allowed her."

BREECH-LOADING PISTOL KNIFE.

An English cotemporary has inspected a most formidable and deadly weapon, invented and patented by Messrs. UNWIN & RODGERS, Rockingham Works, Sheffield, called the Breech-Loading Pistol Knife. It is a neat and portable instrument of warfare, with a bowie and other useful knives attached; also a box to contain the charges, which are in one piece, and the cap, powder and bullet are cast together. It is loaded at the breech, and can be charged and fired twelve times per minute; will kill at a distance of 160 or 170 yards; and is, without exception, the most complete and compact instrument of warfare we have ever seen. As a protection at home and abroad its use will doubtless become general, as it possesses all the conveniences and appliances for carrying on a deadly conflict with an enemy.

OUR NATIONAL BEVERAGE.

Modern Europe is divided into two groups: the Latin races, who drink wine; and the races, more or less Saxon, who drink beer. This difference is no stranger to the manners, hygienic condition, and even the moral faculties of the population. The characters of human societies were formed by alliances, but they are consolidated by the mode of life, and especially by the alimentary beverages. The impetuosity of the Latin races, their sparkling wit and warlike ardor, respond to those qualities which have been called the blood of the grape; those nations whom nature has condemned to a sterner beverage are distinguished for their part by their strength, patience, reflection, obstinate and encroaching toil. Only regarding present facts we might be tempted to believe

that beer originally came from the North; but that is not the country of the beverage. The first that men appear to have drunk was made in Egypt; and the Egyptians, who liked to refer to the gods useful discoveries and social victories, gave the honor of this invention to OSIRIS. Beer, then, has been from time immemorial the drink adopted in those countries where the vine refuses to grow, either through excess or deficiency of heat. The first colonies which left the East, and pierced the gloomy forests of Europe, made up for the absence of the fruit which NOAH pressed by the means old Egypt had discovered—a liquor made with barley and water. It was the favorite fluid of the Anglo-Saxons and Danes, whom we have seen descend in turn on Great Britain. Before their conversion to Christianity, they believed that one of the chief felicities the heroes admitted after death into ODIN'S Paradise enjoyed, was to drink long draughts of ale from tall cups. Archæologeans have made learned and laborious researches to recover the history of beer in Great Britain. It will be sufficient for us to say that, in Wales also, even small beer was formerly regarded as a luxury, and was only seen on the tables of the great. In England, about the middle of the sixteenth century, HARRISON assures us, that when tradesmen and artisans had the good fortune to stumble on a haunch of venison and a glass of strong ale, they believed themselves as magnificently treated as the Lord Mayor. At the present day, what a change! Ale and porter flow into the pewter pots of the humblest taverns; rich and poor—the poor more frequently than the rich refresh themselves with the national beverage—as the Israelites in the desert slaked their thirst at the water leaping from the rock, to quote a minister of the English church. This abundance, compared with the old penury, rejoices the social economist from a certain point of view, for he sees in it the natural movement of science, trade and agriculture, which in time places within reach to the most numerous classes articles which, at the outset, were regard as luxuries. Not only has beer become more available to the working classes, but the quality has improved, and at the present day English beer knows no rival on the continent.—*The English at Home, by* M. ESQUIROS.

TAVERN SIGN—ENTIRE!

Before the year 1730, the English publicans sold to the thirsty souls of their day three sorts of beer, which they drew from different casks into the same glass, and gave to this mixture the name of half-and-half. The owner of one of these publics, (history has handed down the name,) HORWOOD, wishing to spare himself the trouble of performing this task so constantly during the day, hit upon brewing the beer which would combine the qualities of all these beers. To this compound he gave the name of "entire," which has adhered to it till this day, at least on the signboards. It was afterwards christened "porter," because principally drunk by that class.—*The English at Home.*

MISSOURI LEAD MINES IN THE HANDS OF REBELS.

We are very sorry to learn that the richest lead mine in Missouri, and, indeed, probably on the globe, is now in the hands of the insurgents,

though they did not succeed in obtaining any of the metal. The mine to which we refer is situated near the village of Granby, Newton County, within twenty-five miles of the southwestern border of that State. It was opened about two years ago by a party of capitalists, having their headquarters at St. Louis, and is known by the name of the BLOW and KENNETT mine. Last year it yielded about seventy-five thousand pigs, or six millions of pounds. Unlike the mines in Eastern Missouri and Northwestern Illinois, this is situated in a level prairie of vast extent. The supply of ore has been pronounced inexhaustible by the State geologist, and the quality is considered the best on the globe, having scarcely any admixtures of foreign substances. The great difficulty has been transportation, there being no navigable river nearer than the Missouri, and no rail-road beyond Rolla, which is fully one hundred miles distant. The western terminus of the Pacific Rail-Road is a little further off; but this route has usually been taken on account of the superior character of the common roads in that part of Missouri. With the mines and furnaces at Granby in their possession, the rebels can supply themselves with lead to any required extent.

SHODDY.

Woollen fabrics furnished for soldiers' wear have been the means of giving the defenders of the country an idea of the thing represented by shoddy. In many instances, a whole corps have found their coats on their backs dropping to pieces after a few days wear, showing their worthlessness for ordinary use of the garments allowed to be imposed upon them by the carelessness or fraud of inspectors. These frail textures owe their rottenness to the liberal mixture in the fabric of an article called "shoddy," which is a discovery of a recent period, and may be ranked, we suppose, among the "latest modern improvements."

The raw material for shoddy is old rags. Woollen rags that were once consigned to the manure heap furnish this material. When the new demand for them first arose, the price was about $5 per ton; since then it has advanced. They are collected and assorted, and then baled for manufacture into carpets, shawls, linsey and black cloths. Selected rags, thus baled, when of the best description, are worth over $100 per ton. The assorters sell to the shoddy manufacturer. This agent, in the process of making old garments into new, takes these rags and passes them through a "rag machine," which is a cylinder, armed with teeth, that, revolving at high speed, pulls them to pieces, reducing them to wool, and freeing them from dust. It is now shoddy, and in this state is saturated with oil or milk, and frequently scoured in heaters, in combination with some chemicals. The process completed, the shoddy is ready for manufacture into cloth. For this purpose it is mixed with new wool in as large proportions as possible. White is used in blankets and light colored goods, and the dark descriptions for coarse cloths, carpets, &c. The "shoddy" is the product of soft woollens, but the hard or black cloths, when treated in a similar manner, produce "mungo," which is used extensively in superfine cloths, which have a finish that may deceive a good judge. It is used largely in felted fabrics.

The shoddy parts of a garment made of the mixed material give way very soon, rubbing out of the cloth. It accumulates between it and the

lining. Formerly it was largely imported from England. After a while, the demand for it here was found to be so good that machines were sent over for its manufacture here. In New-York there are six shoddy mills.

As we have intimated, the impositions of contractors in palming shoddy uniforms on the volunteers, left the soldiers, after a few days trial of the rotton fabrics, almost naked. It is probable that the shoddy fraud was carried to a more outrageous excess in these instances than in ordinary dealings. But it is believed that a large proportion of the cloths sent to market in ordinary times is, so to speak, adulterated by this base-born material, and that fortunes are made and pockets picked through its instrumentality to an extent of which the cheated community of shoddy-cloth wearers have no idea.

FLOCKS, SHODDY AND NOILS.

As there is a great discussion about the composition of woollen fabrics for the army, and as the terms commonly used are not familiar to the generality of people, and as many are apt to be misled through ignorance, we have thought it of sufficient interest to obtain all the facts connected therewith, and we have been kindly furnished with samples of the different materials known as "flocks, shoddy and noils," by a practical manufacturer of this city, with explanations accompanying:

SAMPLES.

No. 1.—*Noils.*—That is, short wool combed from long wool to fit the latter for worsted, for kerseys and blankets.

No. 2.—Washed and unwashed Russian and South American wool; the first for blankets, the second for kerseys.

No. 3.—*Shoddy.*—Blue for kerseys and stocking yarn; black for satinets and mixed goods.

No. 4.—*Flocks.*—For satinets and cotton warp goods and kerseys.

No. 5.—*Noils.*—Suited for kerseys and blankets, of finer class than No. 1.

No. 6.—*Shoddy.*—Made of old carpets—such as is used in English blankets—and, perhaps, some American. Price, 10 cents a pound; English blankets, 40 cents. This is mixed with long wool and spun into filling.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS "DONE" BY A FRENCHMAN.

An enterprising French photographer has established himself and his "machinery" on the river terrace in front of the House of Commons, with the view of inducing the members to have their portraits taken for a parliamentary album, to contain the effigies of the six hundred and fifty-four honorable gentlemen. Whenever the little Frenchman beholds a member, he rushes up to him, takes off his (the member's) hat, places him in a position in front of his machine, and beseeches him in the worst imaginable English to stand at ease "for just one small moment!" It is pleasant to witness the genial manner in which the legislative mind unbends itself, and submits to the importunities of the artist. There is, of course, nothing to pay, which, perhaps, accounts for the success which has hitherto attended the parliamentary album.—*The British Journal of Photography.*

THE RATIO OF WAGES AND PROFITS.

Wages constitute the chief outgoing in several of the staple manufactures of the country. In the manufacture of fine woollen cloth the wages paid by the manufacturer amount to about 60 per cent. upon the total expenditure incurred between the purchase of the wool and the time when the cloth is in a state fit for sale; in the manufacture of woven yarn the corresponding expenditure in wages is about 48 per cent. In the manufacture of earthenware the proportion of wages is about 40 per cent.; that is to say, in the conversion of the requisite quantity of clay into goods worth £100, £40 are paid to workmen in wages. In the manufacture of pig iron the expense of the labor employed amounts to no less than 81 per cent.; and in its subsequent conversion into bar iron to 85 per cent. The expense of working collieries resolves almost wholly into labor, in some instances amounting to 90 per cent. on the current expenditure. In different branches of the steel manufacture the outgoings for labor are very considerable. For instance, in the production of the subjoined articles:

	Material.		*Wages.*
Table knives and forks,	35 per cent.	....	65 per cent.
Razors,	10 "	....	90 "
Scissors, (coarse,)	15 "	....	85 "
Scissors, (fine,)	4 "	....	96 "

At the instant, and without more inquiry, we are not prepared to state the ratio between the cost of material and the labor in the production of the broad sheet now in course of perusal; but at a hap-hazard guess we should say that the disproportion is fully as great as that between razors meant to shave, or fine scissors, such as ladies use. Enough data, however, has been adduced to show how loosely wages enter into the prices of commodities. What proportion profits bear to wages is not easy to determine. That depends on the state of the market and the humor of buyers. But as prices are not affected by the relations between them, society has no interest in their allocution. The contest between wages and profits is simply a struggle whether a greater or less sum shall go into the pockets of the employer or the employed.—*Liverpool Albion.*

POISONED DRESSES.

A medical correspondent of a London cotemporary recently stated that thirteen ounces of arsenical poison had been found in one tarletan dress. Another correspondent of the same journal calls attention to the following extract from the report made by M. Van Broek to the Belgian government, upon the subject of poisonous colors: It is not merely the poor workwomen who have to suffer from the poisonous emanations of arsenical flowers. Those who work them up, merchants and milliners—those, above all, who wear them—often experience, without being able to account for what they feel, the pernicious effects of the poison which surrounds them. The head of one of the most important houses of business of this kind assured me, lately, that every time he presided over the arrangement of a trimming into which a luxuriant foliage enters, he experiences a more or less violent headache, vertigo, nausea and an obstinate dry cough. The workwomen whom he employs, being more exposed than himself, present these disagreeable symptoms in a still more

marked degree. Moreover, my informant assured me that it is always with extreme reluctance, and by express command, that he undertakes such a task. After such an avowal, it is not difficult to imagine what passes in the midst of those worldly vortices where, at the same time, passions and flowers are agitated and shed. Shaken, crushed and bruised, the poisonous foliage delivers to a burning atmosphere its brilliant and dangerous dust; the latter spreads everywhere and on everything; clothes, hair, the moist skin, the air we breathe, nothing escapes its assaults, which are certainly not unconnected with the frequent illnesses which follow gay and extensive reunions. Sometimes even the effects of the arsenite of copper are immediately perceptible; and more than one woman is indebted to it for the redness of the skin, and sufficiently serious cutaneous irritations.

RE-MAKING LEATHER.

Various attempts have been made to use scraps of waste leather in the manufacture of articles for which pure leather has been employed; but the new products have generally failed to be serviceable where they were exposed to much wear, because they lacked strength or tenacity. In some cases other substances have been used in connection with waste leather. A device of this sort has lately been patented in England by Mr. T. Gee, of Nottingham, who uses hemp or flax fiber. His product is designed to be used for belting, uppers of shoes, &c.

He first takes old boots and shoes, old harness, belts, &c., cuts them in small pieces, washes them thoroughly in water, and reduces them to a soft, pulpy condition by soaking. After this he rolls them out between rollers, dries and mixes them with minute quantities of hemp or flax fiber. They are now intimately united together with a strong solution of glue or gutta percha, then rolled out into bands for belts, or pressed into moulds for the uppers of shoes, or other articles designed to be manufactured from it.

LAKE SUPERIOR IRON.

In 1855 the shipments of iron from Lake Superior were 1,447 tons. The amount gradually increased until 1860, when 150,000 tons were shipped. This year the shipments will not exceed 40,000 tons. The total value of all the ore shipped, and that melted since the mines were worked, is about $1,326,000 at Marquette. The capital invested in the mines amounts to $2,286,000. The Lake Superior *News*, of November 2d, from which we gather the foregoing facts, says:

Of the companies now doing business here, we know of none but what, with judicious management, can realize a handsome profit upon whatever branch they are engaged in. This year, however, is a peculiarly hard one upon all doing business in the Upper Peninsula. The general stagnation caused by the war has affected us severely, and now, with a six months' winter before us, during which time there is no possibility of getting our products to market, the chance is, that all the manufacturing companies will be straitened for available means. Yet, as there is plenty of provisions in the country, if all will "bear and forbear," they can weather the point; and from all indications we have no doubt that the next year will be one of general prosperity for Lake Superior.

THE NEW-YORK CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

A NEW PLAN OF ARBITRATION.

THE Chamber of Commerce is one of our oldest institutions, and has come down to us from colonial times. It is composed of the most influential and successful merchants of the city of New-York, and its influence in commercial affairs is due not only to its years and experience, but its probity. Its presiding officers from 1768, the time of JOHN CRUGER, down to the present, have been men of mark in the mercantile world. WALTON, ALSOP, BROOME, SANDS, RAY, BAYARD, LENOX, CAROW, OGDEN, GOODHUE, KING, GRINNELL and PERIT have been at the head of the institution and maintained its character under all the changes and misfortunes of the times.

The following eminent merchants have been the successive presidents of the Chamber of Commerce from its formation:

Elected.	*Retired.*	*Elected.*	*Retired.*
1768, JOHN CRUGER,	1770	1819, WILLIAM BAYARD,	1827
1770, HUGH WALLACE,	1771	1827, ROBERT LENOX,	1840
1771, ELIAS DESBROSSES,	1774	1840, ISAAC CAROW,	1842
1774, WILLIAM WALTON,	1775	1842, JAS. DE PEYSTER OGDEN,	1845
1775, ISAAC LOW,	1784	1845, JAMES G. KING,	1847
1784, JOHN ALSOP,	1785	1847, MOSES H. GRINNELL,	1848
1785, JOHN BROOME,	1794	1848, JAMES G. KING,	1849
1794, COMFORT SANDS,	1798	1849, MOSES H. GRINNELL,	1852
1798, JOHN MURRAY,	1806	1852, ELIAS HICKS, (died,)	1853
1806, CORNELIUS RAY,	1819	1853, PELATIAH PERIT.	

It has done always essential good; it took decided ground even in its early day against the odious Stamp act, and its action has since led to a vast number of improvements and reforms, such, for example, as the first modification of the damage on foreign and domestic bills of exchange; the reform of the old inspection laws in relation to ashes and flour; the valuation of foreign gold coins; the cleansing the streets and regulation of the city markets; the establishing of our trade with China; the discouragement of smuggling; the first canalization in this State around the Falls of the Mohawk River, and the carrying place at Wood Creek; the system of pilotage; the resistance of the colonial commercial system of Great Britain in its attempt upon our own; the Erie Canal; the breakwater in the Delaware; the location of the present Custom-House; the employment of relief vessels upon our coast in winter; the system of wharfage and the regulation of the piers; the improvement of the light-house system; the introduction of the warehousing system; the Pilot Commissioners Board and the destruction of a previous monopoly of pilotage; the carrying of lights on board ships navigating our waters; a rail-road to the Pacific; the formation of a hydrographical bureau at Washington; the ventilation and provisioning of passenger vessels; the employment of a government steam cutter in our harbor; encouragement to the North Carolina scheme of improving Albemarle Sound; (now accomplished;)

the care of our sick seamen in foreign ports; the establishment of a branch mint in this city; the importation of gold from England in 1837, during financial crisis of that year, for the relief of the moneyed institutions the of New-York, leading to the resumption of specie payments; the abrogation of the Danish Sound dues; the improvement of discipline and increased efficiency in our merchant service, and a change in the quarantine system.

These beneficial efforts it proposes to continue. There was before the State legislature a bill introduced by Mr. MANIERRE, of this city, giving legal effect to the decisons of the Arbitration Committee of the Chamber, that is to say, the force and effect of arbitrations under the Revised Statutes, with the duties and disabilities therein specified, in all cases of dispute between members of the Chamber, when the same are voluntarily submitted by both parties. It is, in fact, the repetition of an act under which differences among the members of the Corn Exchange are at present adjusted. A decision on any case so submitted is to have the validity of a judgment at law and to be enforced as such.

In 1851 a plan with a similar object, but in a very different form, was discussed by the Chamber of Commerce, and a draft of a bill was prepared to be submitted to the legislature, to establish a Court of Commerce in the city of New-York. It proposed the appointment of a principal judge and four associate judges, with the ordinary powers of courts and the recovery of costs of suit. On due consideration, and after debate, the project was discreetly laid on the table. The present proposition is a very different one in substance and form. It is, that when the members of the Chamber voluntarily agree to refer a dispute, it shall be submitted to the Committee of Arbitration, and their decision shall become a judgment at law. Nothing can be simpler, more effectual or juster than this.

It may be said that questions of law may arise; but what is commercial law, after all, but the sayings, doings and customs of merchants? Whose testimony but theirs is of real value in contested commercial cases already? And if their opinions, at second hand, are entitled to the respect of judges and the confidence of juries, why not have the benefit of them at first hands, in their own Chamber, and at a nominal cost to the parties interested? It is not at all strange that this speedy termination of a dispute should be preferred to an endless litigation, where the costs increase as the square of the distance of the termination. And of all the men in the world who best understand their own business, the merchants are foremost. The lawyers, from time immemorial, have known this. They have heard of and studied the *Law-Merchant* of England as a well-known system, distinguished from the ordinary law; they have read the 27 "EDWARD III.," that all merchants coming to the staple shall be ordered according to the *Law-Merchant*, and not according to the common law of the land. Nor are they ignorant of the opinion of Lord COKE, that "the custom of merchants is part of the law of England, of which the courts are bound to take notice." In the famous case of VANHEATH *agst.* TURNER, (*Winch's Reports*, 24,) the Chief Justice ruled, if there was doubt in a case, "they might send for the merchants to know their custom." Lord HALE (in *Hardie's Reports*, 486) affirmed the opinion of COKE, and there are many other late authorities, both in the British and American courts, which recognise the principle, and point out when and

how it is to be recognised, so that we come to the unavoidable conclusion that trade and commerce are the fountain-head of their own customs, from which flow the great and noble streams of the *Lex Mercatoria.* If this be so, the Chamber of Commerce is taking the right direction, and only travelling back to the sources from whence commercial law has proceeded. The principle is, then, clear and transparent; but, as it has flowed down the vale of time, it has been often muddied and disturbed. Law-makers of other pursuits in life have erected costly, cumbrous tribunals to settle commercial disputes and interpret their peculiar contracts. Philology has gone on board the steamers and sailing packets, with a dictionary in one hand and a bill of costs in the other. Technicalities have triumphed over principles.

The Chamber of Commerce, consisting of at least eight hundred members, merely ask the legislature to permit them to settle their own disputes of business, when they have any, by simple arbitration, by reference to a committee chosen by themselves, who understand what is required of them and what they are about. They will decide promptly, without incessant postponement for absence of counsel, or adjourning for a bad air in the court-room, or the state of the calendar, or any other cause, which now keep thousands of suits in suspense and their fatigued witnesses "on the jump" from one term to another. None of these things will happen under the proposed arrangement. The honorable men who have differences of opinion as to their respective mutual rights will be but too glad to have them unexpensively adjusted by such associates. These decisions will become a guide "not only here but elsewhere," will end a very large amount of costly litigation, and solidify and sustain the commercial principles by which industry and honor may continue to thrive.

The following is the act passed April 15, 1861, in reference to additional powers to the Arbitration Committee of the Chamber of Commerce:

CHAPTER 251.

An Act to amend an Act entitled "An Act to remove doubts concerning the Corporation of the Chamber of Commerce, and to confirm the rights and privileges thereof," passed April thirteenth, seventeen hundred and eighty-four.

Passed April 15, 1861, *three-fifths being present.*

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

SECTION 1. The Chamber of Commerce of the State of New-York shall have power to elect, by ballot, in conformity with the by-laws adopted by the said Chamber, a committee, to be known and styled the "Arbitration Committee of the Chamber of Commerce," and shall have power also to appoint a Committee of Appeal; and the duly elected members of the said Chamber, and all persons claiming by, through or under them, may, under the limitations, and subject to the restrictions imposed by the provisions of the statutes of the State of New-York relative to arbitration, submit to the decision of the Committees of Arbitration and Appeal, as the same may be constituted by the said Chamber, any controversy existing between them which might be the subject of an action, and may agree that a final judgment, in a correct record, to be by them designated, shall be rendered on any award made pursuant to such submission.

Section 2. The Committees of Arbitration and Appeal, elected or appointed as aforesaid, shall possess the same powers and be subject to the same duties and disabilities as appertain to arbitrators by the laws of the State of New-York, and awards made by them must be made, and may be enforced, as therein and thereby directed; and all the provisions contained in title fourteen, part third, chapter eight of the Revised Statutes of the State of New-York, and all acts amendatory or in substitution thereof, shall apply to proceedings had before the said Committees of Arbitration and Appeal, as if specially incorporated herein; except that the judgment be rendered in the manner therein directed, on any award made by them as aforesaid, that is to say, by the Committee of Arbitration, no appeal from its action being taken by either party to the controversy, or by the confirmatory action of the Committee of Appeal, shall not be subject to be removed, reversed, modified or appealed from by the parties interested in such submission as aforesaid.

Section 3. This act shall take effect immediately.

Passed April 15th, 1861.

THE PHILADELPHIA BOARD OF TRADE.

The Defences of Philadelphia.

At a meeting of the Philadelphia Board of Trade, November 25th, the the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the river and bay defences of Philadelphia are entirely inadequate, and need to be immediately and largely increased; and that it is the duty of the United States government to superintend and effect such an increase, at such points as a competent corps of engineers may indicate, with the least possible delay.

Resolved, That the ardent, patriotic and efficient services of Pennsylvania, in the work of suppressing the Southern rebellion, give her the right to demand from the national government adequate protection for her seaport, Philadelphia.

Resolved, That it is encumbent upon our municipal authorities, upon the executive and legislature of Pennsylvania, and upon our representatives in Congress, to use all their influence in the approaching session, at Washington, towards securing the immediate extension and completion of our maritime defences, and that they should invite, for this purpose, the co-operation of the proper authorities of New-Jersey and Delaware.

Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be transmitted by the Secretary of the Board of Trade to our city councils, and to our members of Congress and the State legislature.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

I Kentucky Annual Tobacco Circular. II. Adulteration in Silk Fabrics. III. Adulteration of Tea. IV. Trade and Navigation of Great Britain, 1860. V. The Lumber Trade. VI. The Tallow Business. VII. Liberia Trade.

LOUISVILLE TOBACCO CIRCULAR.

The review of transactions in our Tobacco market during the last season discloses to us remarkable changes in prices, and unusual causes for these fluctuations. In November and December, 1860, prices declined, and the dark political prospects caused a neglect of the article; in January, 1861, more confidence was manifested, and prices advanced slightly. During February farmers rushed their tobacco in such quantities to market that again a slight decline was established. In March supplies fell off, and consisted of such poor qualities that we had to quote ½c. advance on good grades. When, in the month of April, by the bombardment of Fort Sumter, civil war came to an actual outbreak, all business, including the tobacco trade, came to a perfect stagnation; a decline of 1 @ 1½c. took place, and sales were dragging at that. During May, it being evident that Kentucky was not likely to join the Southern Confederacy, confidence was more or less restored, and tobacco received better attention. The blockade of Southern ports, by which shipments of tobacco were transferred to Eastern markets, and the belief that the new crop to be set out would be materially shortened by the war, created a lively speculative feeling, so that sales were effected at full prices; and in our premium tobacco auctions, May 16th and 17th, the contest among buyers was spirited. The embargo laid upon the export of tobacco by Tennessee, and the competition among foreign and domestic buyers, raised our market fully 1c. in June. At that time Kentucky and Missouri remained the only States from which to provide for the wants of Regie buyers, shippers, manufacturers and speculators, and although supplies were sent forward in large quantities, even from sections of Kentucky from whence shipments usually had gone South, an advance of another cent per pound was established by the end of July. In August prices were fully sustained, and the invasion of our State by the Confederates in September deprived us of supplies from the principal tobacco-growing region of Kentucky, thereby causing a very considerable rise in prices for all fat descriptions, which have ever since remained in active demand by our manufacturers, who are enabled to pay enormous rates for leaf, since Virginia is cut off from the trade in the manufactured article.

The attitudes of the large armies engaged in our civil war preclude from us all reliable information of the new crop, now made and harvested. We are unable to learn from Virginia, Tennessee and the half of Kentucky, how much has been raised, how it was harvested and to what degree the weed may have been injured by the devastations of war. We cannot venture an approximate calculation of the quantity made, but judge that Virginia and Tennessee have produced not more than half, if

that much; Missouri, half to five-eighths, and Kentucky perhaps nearly an average crop. The quality of the leaf in Kentucky, as far as we can hear, is fair.

There being at this moment no prospect for a speedy end of our unfortunate strife, and a great falling off in the quantity of the new crop just being made certain, we really do not see what should prevent high prices ruling for some time to come, and opine that some qualities will experience a further rise in the different markets here as well as abroad.

Our table below shows this year's sales to have been larger than for the last ten years, except season 1851–1852:

	Hhds.
Sales from November 1, 1851, to October 31, 1852,.....	23,200
" " 1852, " 1853,.....	16,600
" " 1853, " 1854,.....	10,154
" " 1854, " 1855,.....	11,594
" " 1855, " 1856,.....	14,975
" " 1856, " 1857,.....	9,012
" " 1857, " 1858,.....	18,974
" " 1858, " 1859,.....	18,452
" " 1859, " 1860,.....	17,505
" " 1860, " 1861,.....	20,823

Sales during October, 1852,.....	1,194 hhds.
" " 1853,.....	785 "
" " 1854,.....	747 "
" " 1855,.....	386 "
" " 1856,.....	555 "
" " 1857,.....	170 "
" " 1858,.....	390 "
" " 1859,.....	1,094 "
" " 1860,.....	1,300 "
" " 1861,.....	589 "

	Light.	*Fat.*
Lugs, ordinary sound,.....	$5 75 @ $7 00 ..	$7 00 @ $8 25
Good ordinary,.....	7 00 @ 7 50 ..	8 25 @ 8 75
Common leaf,.....	7 50 @ 8 75 ..	8 75 @ 10 00
Good leaf,.....	8 75 @ 10 25 ..	10 00 @ 12 00
Fine Leaf,.....	10 25 @ 14 00 ..	12 00 @ 15 00

	1860.	1859.	1858.	1857.
Lugs, ord. sound, p. 100 lbs.	$3 25 @ $4 25 ..	$3 25 @ $4 00 ..	$4 75 @ $5 00 ..	$5 60 @ $7 30
Good ordinary,.....	4 25 @ 5 25 ..	4 00 @ 4 75 ..	5 00 @ 6 00 ..	7 30 @ 8 30
Common leaf,.....	5 25 @ 7 00 ..	4 75 @ 6 50 ..	6 00 @ 7 00 ..	8 30 @ 9 10
Good leaf,.....	7 00 @ 9 00 ..	6 50 @ 8 25 ..	7 00 @ 8 75 ..	9 16 @ 10 00
Fine leaf,.....	9 00 @ 12 00 ..	8 25 @ 11 00 ..	8 75 @ 12 00 ..	10 00 @ 12 00
Manufacturing leaf,.....	6 00 @ 15 00 ..	8 00 @ 15 00 ..	8 00 @ 15 00 ..	10 00 @ 16 00

	1856.	1855.	1854.	1853.
Lugs, ord. sound, p. 100 lbs.	$8 10 @ $8 75 ..	$5 80 @ $6 25 ..	$4 65 @ $5 00 ..	$4 60 @ $5 00
Good ordinary,.....	8 75 @ 9 00 ..	6 25 @ 7 00 ..	5 00 @ 5 40 ..	5 00 @ 5 30
Common leaf,.....	9 90 @ 11 22 ..	7 00 @ 7 50 ..	5 40 @ 6 00 ..	5 30 @ 6 10
Good leaf,.....	11 25 @ 12 90 ..	7 50 @ 8 50 ..	6 00 @ 6 75 ..	6 10 @ 7 00
Fine leaf,.....	12 90 @ 14 50 ..	8 50 @ 10 00 ..	6 75 @ 8 25 ..	7 00 @ 9 00
Manufacturing leaf,.....	9 50 @ 16 00 ..	8 00 @ 12 00 ..	7 00 @ 13 00 ..	7 00 @ 14 00

ADULTERATION IN SILK FABRICS.

What is Jute? is a question often asked by the general reader. This article, well-known to those engaged in the East India trade, played an important part in the recent great fire of London. It has been demon-

strated that it is a rather unsafe article to stow away, on account of its easy ignition and tendency to spontaneous combustion. It is also unsafe in another particular, for it is the great adulteration of silk. Jute is the fiber of a species of hemp (botanically speaking the *corcchorus capsularas*) which is grown in the East Indies, chiefly in Bengal. The same class of men who put shoddy into cloth, logwood into a villainous compound, and then call it port wine, adulterate silk with jute. It has a lustrous, silky appearance, and the fraud is not easily detected. A recent English writer in the *Technologist* says that, thanks to jute, there is scarcely a piece of sound genuine silk woven in the country, and the consequence is, that the so-called silk fabrics, instead of lasting from generation to generation—as they did in the times of our grandmothers and great-grandmothers—barely last the brief period of the latest new fashion. The reason of this is evident, for in preparing this fiber for the market, it is necessary to cause it to almost putrify in order to develop the fine silky character, so much valued in the jute intended for export. In India the cloth made from the fiber is much stronger and more durable, because they do not take such care in steeping it for home consumption. In URE's "*Philosophy of Manufacture*," (newest edition,) a writer says of jute "that it is mixed with the cotton warps of cheap broadcloths, and also with silk, and, from its lustre, can scarcely be detected." Why cannot jute be turned to more honorable and useful purposes than adulteration? Dr. FORBES WATSON says, that its "production admits of unlimited extension," and who knows but the great paper-rag and the cotton question may be somewhat solved by jute?—*Journal of Commerce.*

THE ADULTERATION OF TEA.

In the London *Lancet*, of August 10th, we find the result of the microscopical and chemical analysis of forty-eight samples of tea:

"Of the twenty-four specimens of black tea analyzed, every one was found to be *genuine;* of a like number of green teas, *all were adulterated.* The adulterations are mainly a coloring matter with which the tea leaf is faced, painted or glazed. Ferro-cyanide of iron, or Prussian blue, is the article most commonly used for this purpose. Sometimes, however, indigo, kaolin or China clay, and turmeric powder were found in addition. That species of tea which is denominated gunpowder is adulterated in other ways, by admixture with leaves not those of tea, with paddy husk, and particularly with 'lie tea,' so called, a leaf which resembles the tea leaf closely, and is sent to this country from China in vast quantities to be employed in adulterations here. The coloring of the tea is almost entirely done in China, and probably because it improves its appearance, and perhaps renders its sale more sure and rapid.

"Such is the result of a thorough analyzation of this article by eminent scientific men in England, and it is certainly not very flattering to the taste of these who drink green tea for the love of it. There is no *such article as unadulterated green tea.* Let the lovers of the herb remember that fact, and as they sip the delicious beverage and fancy they find in it a solvent for their aches and pains, let them also remember that they are sipping with it a solution of Prussian blue and indigo, as well

as sundry other little peccadilloes that neither add to its exhilarating properties, nor yet are entirely harmless to the system. On the other hand, the black teas are not adulterated, and are the only ones used by the Chinese. Knowing the impurities that are in the best green teas, they send them to foreign ports to tickle the delicate palates of the English, the French and the Americans, who, in their view, fancy the bright, lively appearance imparted by the coloring compositions they use.

"The remedy for these wholesale adulterations is easy. It is entirely in the hands of the tea merchants. If they refuse to buy the poisoned leaf, the Chinamen will very quickly stop adulterating it."

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF GREAT BRITAIN IN 1860.

The annual statement of the trade and navigation of the United Kingdom with foreign countries and British possessions in the year 1860 has just been published in the form of a blue book, containing 468 pages. From the numerous statistical tables we gather the following information:

Imports and Exports.—The real value of the total imports and exports of merchandise during the last five years is as follows:—Imports, 1856, £172,544,154; 1857, £187,844,441; 1858, £164,583,382; 1859, £179,182,355; 1860, £210,530,873. Exports, 1856, £139,220,353; 1857, £146,174,301; 1858, £139,782,779; 1859, £155,692,975; 1860, £164,521,351.

Corn.—The quantity of wheat imported in 1860 was 5,880,958 quarters, being 1,879,036 quarters over the previous year. Of other kinds of corn and grain, 7,125,661 quarters were imported in 1860, and 5,317,761 quarters in 1859. 5,086,220 cwt. of wheat meal and flour was imported in 1860, and 71,343 cwt. of other kinds of meal and flour.

Cotton.—The quantity of raw cotton imported during 1856 and the four succeeding years was as follows:—1856, 9,141,842 cwt.; 1857, 8,654,633 cwt.; 1858, 9,235,198 cwt.; 1859, 10,946,331 cwt.; 1860, 12,419,096 cwt. During the same five years the quantity of cotton yarn imported was as follows:—1856, 1,116,226 lbs.; 1857, 956,652 lbs.; 1858, 799,827 lbs.; 1859, 962,097 lbs.; 1860, 1,002,872 lbs. In 1860, 148,296 pieces of cotton manufactures of India and China were imported, besides European cotton manufactures to the value of £685,059.

Silk.—The value of silk imported in 1860 was £10,241,748, being less than in the previous year, when the value was £10,377,042. Thrown silk exhibits a similar decrease; the value of the imports being £336,991 in 1860, and £526,773 in 1859. There is an increase, however, with regard to silk manufactures, the returns showing £3,343,761 in 1860, as compared with £2,763,379 in 1859.

Spirits.—The returns respecting the import of spirits exhibit the following results:—Value of brandy in 1859, £1,420,942; in 1860, £1,088,177. Geneva, 1859, £16,428; 1860, £16,428. Rum, 1859, £801,056; 1860, £757,981. Unenumerated spirits, not sweetened, 1859, £97,927; 1860; £90,073. Sweetened spirits of all kinds, 1859, £35,684; 1860, £53,555.

Tobacco.—The following is the value of the raw tobacco imported during the past five years:—1856, £1,980,672; 1857, £1,895,104;

1858, £2,230,323; 1859, £1,563,330; 1860, £1,494,517. The manufactured tobacco, segars and snuff imported during the same periods were of the following value:—1856, £243,490; 1857, £287,483; 1858, £300,516; 1859, £253,841; 1860, £283,201.

Shipping.—The number, tonnage and crews of registered vessels, distinguishing sailing and steam, were as follows:—36,164 sailing vessels, tonnage, 5,210,824 tons; steam vessels, 2,337, tonnage, 500,144 tons. Total number of vessels, 38,501; total tonnage, 5,710,968 tons; crews, 294,460.

THE LUMBER TRADE.

The lumber trade of this country, according to the Boston *Commercial Bulletin*, was for years confined to New-England, and particularly the present State of Maine. Within the past ten years the trade has greatly changed its direction, and within the past five years almost wholly. A well-written essay upon the causes and effects of this would be an interesting historical record. The home trade in lumber has pressed to the extremes—from the Penobscot to the great lakes. In 1851, a member of a firm in the lumber business, at Boston, conceived the idea of working Western and Canada lumber for the Boston market, a long experience having satisfied him that the forests of Maine would, in a short time, become essentially deficient in the supply of some of the most desirable qualities of lumber for building and shipping. To show what has been the result of this enterprise, we can state that the sales made by this firm, in the first year afterwards, (1852,) were not over three hundred and fifty thousand feet. Now they sell about *twenty-five millions* annually. The business has already outgrown the proportions of one concern, and there are others here who are engaged in the business as agents of Western and Canada houses.

This lumber now takes the precedence for shipping over all other kinds; its widths, its lengths and its adaptedness to carriage all excel the Eastern lumber. It is taken mostly from the forests of Michigan, Upper Canada and Western New-York, and is conveyed to the seaboard by way of the canals and the St. Lawrence, and by rail-road, *via* Ogdensburg and Burlington. The better qualities are sent in large quantities to the west coast of South America, California and Australia.

The traffic in Eastern lumber has decreased proportionately; where our old firms ten years since used to average a cargo per day from the Penobscot and Kennebec, they scarcely average a cargo per week.

It has been supposed by many that we were dependent on the South for hard pine, or rather that we could not find a substitute for hard pine. It is scarcely twenty years since that the first lot of common river sawed boards arrived in this city from Mobile, consigned to E. D. Peters & Co. The trade has grown since then. In 1845 the ship-builders of Boston sent out men all through the South to cut hard pine and oak for ship-building, and from this, and also from the fact that hard pine boards were generally accepted as the best for certain purposes, we have come to believe that we could not do without the Southern lumber. This is a mistake.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

I. Large Exports to Europe. II. Reduced Imports. III. Extraordinary Receipts of Grain at tide-water. IV. Appeal of the New-York Chamber of Commerce to the Canal Board, and their Response. V. General Imports and Exports. VI. Foreign Dry Goods. VII. Government Loan. VIII. Pacific Telegraph Completed.

The month of November has shown a marked change in the business features of New-York. A continued activity has prevailed in the export trade to foreign countries, showing, as general results, exclusive of specie:

	October, 1861.		*Ten months*, 1861.
Exports,	$ 13,157,000	....	$ 109,934,000
Imports,	10,201,000	....	141,754,000

The grain movement will form one of the extraordinary features of the year 1861, and contributes largely to the strength of the country in sustaining an expensive war. The aggregate receipts to 14th November at tide-water were as follow:

	Flour, barrels.	*Wheat, bushels.*	*Corn, bushels.*	*Barley, bushels.*
1860,	1,051,900	15,771,600	13,400,300	2,393,000
1861,	1,221,200	25,054,700	20,559,600	1,703,900

By reducing the wheat to flour, the quantity of the latter left at tide-water, this year, compared with the same period last year, shows a gain equal to 2,625,000 barrels of flour. The receipts at tide-water, since the opening of the canals, for three years, to the 14th November, have been as follow:

		1859.	**1860.**	**1861.**
Canals open,		*April* 15.	*April* 25.	*May* 1.
Flour,	barrels,	600,600	1,051,900	1,221,200
Wheat	bushels,	3,523,200	15,771,600	25,054,700
Corn	"	2,488,700	13,409,300	20,559,600
Barley,	"	1,909,200	2,393,000	1,703,900
Rye,	"	320,000	304,500	725,000
Oats,	"	4,697,500	5,948,600	4,806,200

In order to facilitate the grain movement of this State and of the West, the New-York Chamber of Commerce, on the 7th November forwarded a memorial to the Canal Commissioners at Albany, to maintain navigation to the latest moment this year. To this appeal the following response was made:

At a meeting of the Board of Canal Commissioners, held November 14, a resolution, of which the following is a copy, was adopted:

"*Resolved*, That the navigation of the canals of this State, for the present season, be continued to the latest possible period, with reasonable effort; and that to this end the several Canal Superintendents are required to see that the several repair contractors on their respective sections have prepared for use all necessary ice-breakers, and other tools and implements to aid navigation, as shall be directed by the commissioners in charge."

The foreign importations at the port of New-York, for the month of October, were about one-half the amount for the same time last year. The figures present singular features compared with October, 1857, when the amount entered for consumption was less, viz., $2,791,905, while for warehousing (under the vast pressure upon the money market) the amount was $7,356,424; free goods, $1,782,345; specie, $2,509,194.

Foreign Imports at New-York in October, 1858—1861.

Entered.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption,..	$9,234,470 ..	$9,345,609 ..	$10,974,428 ..	$3,638,580
For warehousing,.	2,157,678 ..	2,194,258 ..	2,817,461 ..	2,082,381
Free goods,.....	2,061,468 ..	1,447,433 ..	1,911,515 ..	2,163,452
Specie and bullion,	89,368 ..	630,646 ..	1,083,838 ..	639,328
Total entered,...	$13,542,984 ..	$13,617,946 ..	$16,787,242 ..	$8,523,741
Withdrawn,.....	2,462,425 ..	2,740,892 ..	3,018,393 ..	2,518,080

The Custom-House returns show a total import of merchandise at this port, since January 1st, of one hundred and eight millions, against about two hundred millions for the corresponding ten months of last year. Of the imports during the last ten months only thirty-nine millions were in dry goods, leaving about sixty-nine millions of general merchandise. The specie item, it will be seen, is very important. The specie imports are more than double for the same period in the last four years:

Foreign Imports at New-York for Ten Months, from January 1st.

Entered.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
For consumption, .	$85,816,904 ..	$153,743,279 ..	$140,760,836 ..	$45,296,493
For warehousing, .	22,389,828 ..	30,546,026 ..	35,213,386 ..	36,575,280
Free goods, ...	18,613,563 ..	24,608,111 ..	23,380,578 ..	25,815,026
Specie and bullion,	2,110,541 ..	2,464,700 ..	2,231,471 ..	35,826,058
Total entered, ..	$128,930,836 ..	$211,362,116 ..	$201,586,271 ..	$143,512,857
Withdrawn, ...	33,560,002 ..	23,046,201 ..	28,260,420 ..	34,067,746

The foreign exports from New-York, exclusive of specie, for the month of October, exceeded thirteen million dollars, and were, therefore, more than fifty per cent. beyond the total imports for the same period. The grain and tobacco markets remain very active, and we may safely anticipate continued large receipts and exports to foreign countries for the remainder of the season.

Exports from New-York to Foreign Ports for the Month of October.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,	$5,233,363 ..	$4,752,779 ..	$10,067,330 ..	$12,904,350
For. mdse., (free,)..	161,063 ..	252,878 ..	94,175 ..	60,868
For. mdse., (dut.,)..	359,185 ..	482,440 ..	394,753 ..	192,196
Specie and bullion,	3,028,405 ..	5,344,159 ..	2,106,395 ..	15,038
Total exports,..	$8,782,016 ..	$10,832,256 ..	$12,662,653 ..	$13,172,452
Total, ex. specie,	5,753,611 ..	5,488,097 ..	10,556,258 ..	13,157,414

The total exports of produce from the port since January 1st have been more than in any previous year. The specie export hasdeclined to a nominal sum. We annex the general results for the ten months, compared with three previous years. For the current year, thus far, the exports of domestic produce are more than double that of the same period in 1858 and 1859, the large excess of late being paid in specie.

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR TEN MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Domestic produce,	$46,767,981 ..	$48,223,748 ..	$73,594,650 ..	$103,464,788
For. mdse., (free,)..	1,286,624 ..	2,580,757 ..	2,077,302 ..	2,037,500
For. mdse., (dut.,)..	3,345,857 ..	3,930,108 ..	4,531,478 ..	4,332,275
Specie and bullion,	23,631,253 ..	63,270,614 ..	41,463,679 ..	3,294,852
Total exports,..	$75,031,715 ..	$118,005,227 ..	$121,667,109 ..	$113,129,415
Total, ex. specie,	51,400,462 ..	54,734,613 ..	80,203,430 ..	109,934,563

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW-YORK, JANUARY TO OCTOBER.

	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
First six months,..	$11,089,112 ..	$19,512,181 ..	$18,389,679 ..	$10,585,335
In July, ...	3,387,305 ..	4,851,246 ..	4,504,066 ..	2,069,591
In August, ...	3,545,119 ..	4,243,010 ..	4,496,243 ..	1,558,824
In September, ...	2,672,936 ..	2,908,509 ..	3,038,803 ..	1,642,382
In October, ...	2,054,834 ..	2,318,754 ..	2,632,078 ..	1,672,617
Total, 9 months,	$22,749,306 ..	$33,833,700 ..	$33,060,869 ..	$17,528,749

Messrs. TELLKAMPF & KITCHING, in their last wool circular, say: During the month of November the demand for wool was not as active as it was in the previous one. Low and medium domestic fleece have met with ready sale, however, at full rates, but of these qualities there is little to be had. Pulled wools have been sold up generally. An auction sale of 600,000 lbs. of fleece and pulled wool took place in Boston on the 19th ultimo, and while the prices of low and medium qualities were fully sustained, the fine wools, of which there was a large proportion, hardly brought the ruling prices at private sale.

The imports of dry goods in October were extremely limited, woollens being mainly the supply entered for consumption:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW-YORK FOR THE MONTH OF OCTOBER.

Entered for Consumption.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool, ...	$1,008,686 ..	$1,421,850 ..	$1,452,145 ..	$1,032,389
Cotton, ...	529,125 ..	774,620 ..	482,349 ..	125,168
Silk, ...	1,364,921 ..	1,155,513 ..	1,789,238 ..	315,563
Flax, ...	415,830 ..	625,838 ..	415,214 ..	207,344
Miscellaneous, ...	226,528 ..	241,175 ..	474,404 ..	41,209
Total, ...	$3,545,090 ..	$4,218,996 ..	$4,613,330 ..	$1,721,673

A large amount of goods were warehoused in July, August and September. These are gradually being withdrawn. The withdrawals, it will be seen, are treble those of October last year:

Withdrawn from Warehouse in October.

MANUFACTURES OF	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool, ...	$300,980 ..	$147,508 ..	$196,448 ..	$515,040
Cotton, ...	64,094 ..	57,924 ..	51,308 ..	130,439
Silk, ...	54,498 ..	28,843 ..	38,677 ..	200,169
Flax, ...	72,534 ..	38,240 ..	43,081 ..	89,037
Miscellaneous, ...	75,730 ..	29,516 ..	19,599 ..	21,514
Total, ...	$567,836 ..	$302,031 ..	$349,133 ..	$956,199
For consumption,..	3,545,090 ..	4,218,996 ..	4,613,350 ..	1,721,673
Total on market,	$4,112,926 ..	$4,521,027 ..	$4,962,483 ..	$2,677,872

The reduced supplies of goods on the market forbid the entry of any fresh quantities for warehousing. The following are the results for the month of October:

Entered for Warehousing, October, 1858—1861.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$94,022 ..	$154,132 ..	$330,903 ..	$58,071
Cotton,	78,761 ..	119,899 ..	199,871 ..	75,734
Silk,	44,216 ..	53,051 ..	64,275 ..	74,601
Flax,	80,506 ..	110,966 ..	66,070 ..	37,323
Miscellaneous,	51,266 ..	55,749 ..	53,438 ..	4,139
Total,	$348,771 ..	$493,797 ..	$714,557 ..	$249,868
For consumption,	3,545,090 ..	4,218,996 ..	4,613,350 ..	1,721,673
Entered at port,	$3,893,861 ..	$4,712,793 ..	$5,327,907 ..	$1,971,541

Upon a review of the dry goods trade for the year, it appears that the entries for consumption are less than one-fourth those of the same period of ten months in 1859, and but little in excess of those of 1860; the following are the results:

Imports of Foreign Dry Goods at the Port of New-York for Ten Months.

Entered for Consumption.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$14,899,522 ..	$29,797,207 ..	$27,693,715 ..	$8,268,143
Cotton,	8,087,121 ..	19,640,906 ..	12,984,731 ..	2,969,667
Silk,	15,824,483 ..	28,631,919 ..	30,756,897 ..	7,685,873
Flax,	3,775,793 ..	8,715,678 ..	5,785,345 ..	1,724,893
Miscellaneous,	2,924,698 ..	4,936,479 ..	5,412,817 ..	1,779,797
Total,	$45,511,617 ..	$91,722,189 ..	$82,633,505 ..	$22,428,373

On the other hand, the large amounts withdrawn from warehousing make the total on the market about forty-four per cent. of the same period last year:

Withdrawn from Warehouse, ten months.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$4,304,226 ..	$2,578,390 ..	$3,086,061 ..	$5,905,498
Cotton,	3,344,757 ..	1,404,902 ..	2,310,803 ..	3,879,357
Silk,	3,119,963 ..	796,003 ..	1,469,286 ..	4,581,305
Flax,	1,940,560 ..	880,313 ..	751,946 ..	1,665,965
Miscellaneous,	1,212,109 ..	354,466 ..	519,123 ..	715,281
Total,	$13,921,615 ..	$6,014,074 ..	$8,137,219 ..	$16,747,406
For consumption,	45,511,617 ..	91,752,189 ..	82,633,505 ..	22,428,373
Total on market,	$59,433,232 ..	$97,736,263 ..	$90,770,724 ..	$39,175,779

Entered for Warehousing, ten months.

Manufactures of	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Wool,	$2,003,664 ..	$3,040,185 ..	$3,270,768 ..	$5,635,899
Cotton,	1,726,791 ..	1,383,908 ..	2,359,275 ..	3,806,670
Silk,	1,076,773 ..	787,544 ..	1,374,788 ..	4,986,950
Flax,	808,779 ..	800,296 ..	494,900 ..	1,396,674
Miscellaneous,	535,150 ..	436,628 ..	554,208 ..	870,978
Total,	$6,151,157 ..	$6,448,561 ..	$8,053,939 ..	$16,697,171
For consumption,	45,511,617 ..	91,722,189 ..	82,633,505 ..	22,428,373
Entered at port,	$51,662,774 ..	$98,170,750 ..	$90,687,555 ..	$39,125,544

The chief financial item of the month of November has been the successful negotiation of the third instalment of the government loan to the extent of fifty millions of dollars, making in all one hundred and fifty millions of dollars, through the joint action of the banks of New-York, Boston and Philadelphia. The third instalment will be in the shape of six per cent. government bonds, repayable in twenty years, at a price equivalent to a seven per cent. stock; the banks having the option of taking the remaining fifty millions not yet negotiated.

Since our last number went to press, the completion of the telegraphic line from New-York to San Francisco, *via* St. Louis, has been announced. The following despatch, addressed to the Mayor of this city, came over the wires recently direct from San Francisco:

"SAN FRANCISCO, *October* 25.

"*To the Mayor of New-York:*

"San Francisco to New-York sends greetings, and congratulates her on the completion of the enterprise which connects the Pacific with the Atlantic. May the prosperity of both cities be increased thereby, and the projectors of this important work meet with honor and reward.

"H. F. TESCHEMACHER, *Mayor of San Francisco.*"

Mayor WOOD sent the following reply:

"*To the Mayor of San Francisco:*

"New-York returns her greetings to San Francisco. Let the Union thus so happily consummated between them ever remain unimpaired.

"The Union forever—whether between the East and the West, or the North and the South—let it be continued and preserved.

"FERNANDO WOOD, *Mayor.*"

It is stated that the next westward extension of the line will be by the way of Behrings Straits to the mouth of the Amoor River, to which point the Russian government is already constructing a line commencing at Moscow.

B. P. JOHNSON, Esq., of Albany, is chairman of the Executive Committee of the United States Commissioners appointed by the President of the United States to supervise the American part of the great exhibition in London in 1862. It is highly desirable that our country should be adequately represented, under the rule:

"Her Majesty's Commissioners will communicate *only through* the commission which the government of each foreign country may appoint; *and no article will be admitted from any foreign country without the sanction of such commission.*"

The articles exhibited will be divided into five classes:

Class 1. Mineral, chemical and pharmaceutical substances and products, food, wines, animal and vegetable substances used in manufactures. 2. Railways, carriages, machines, engineering, naval architecture, philosophical, musical and surgical instruments. 3. Cotton, flax, hemp, wool, silk, fabrics, skins and leather, clothing, paper, stationery, educational appliances, furniture, hardware, iron, steel, cutlery, metals, glass and pottery. 4. Modern art, architecture, sculpture, painting, etching and engraving, &c.

Prizes in the form of medals will be given in sections 1, 2 and 3, but none in No. 4.

Executive Committee, office in the Department of the Interior, Washington, (No. 10 Patent Office Building :)

B. P. JOHNSON, *Chairman*, Prof. JOS. HENRY,
J. R. PARTRIDGE, *Secretary*, W. W. SEATON,
J. C. G. KENNEDY.

By recent arrangements the postage chargeable upon letters for Penang, Singapore, Hong Kong, and all other parts of China, Japan, Java, the Phillippine Islands, Labuan, Borneo, Siam, Sumatra and the Moluccas, posted in the United States for transmission *via* the United Kingdom, will hereafter be 45 cents the single rate of half an ounce or under, when directed *via* Southampton, and 51 cents the quarter ounce, or 57 cents the half-ounce letter when directed *via* Marseilles, pre-payment compulsory.

In relation to the Canadian rail-roads, the Cincinnati *Gazette* remarks:

"We understand that the formation of a grand railway combination between Canadian rail-roads is in progress, which is to comprise the Grand Trunk, Great Western and Buffalo and Lake Huron Railways. The plan, as far as matured, seems to be to include into the scheme that portion of the Grand Trunk west of Toronto only, and has for its principal object the discontinuance of a hurtful competition for freight. The triple combination will be under the control of Mr. J. C. BRYDGES, and it is probable that his visit to England at this time is not unconnected with the matter. The natural effect will be to increase the price of freight, and to this extent it will be antagonistic to the interests of the grain producers. Yet it must be remembered that the railways, and especially the Grand Trunk, have frequently carried through freight at a positive loss to the company, and that as it is not impossible that such a state of things should last for any lengthened period, the formation of the union is not a matter for surprise."

An informal meeting of dry goods merchants having claims against Southerners, was held at the Astor House in November, when it was stated that the object of the meeting was for the consideration of some plan by which they might induce the President and Congress to provide for the interests of Northern merchants whose debts have been confiscated by the rebel government, and stated at length the losses which have been incurred by the merchants of the North, the manner in which their debts due had been confiscated, and the necessity for some decided action to be taken by the federal government to secure indemnity. A resolution was adopted, appointing a committee of five to draft a memorial to the President of the United States, asking him to request of Congress to provide some way in which to collect Southern debts. The committee consisted of Messrs. JAFFRAY, CLAFLIN, CLEVELAND, SMYTHE and WOODWARD, who are to procure the signatures of merchants to the memorial.

A memorial to the President of the United States, on the same subject, was adopted by the Chamber of Commerce at their monthly meeting, November 7th.

A meeting of merchants was held at New-York, early in November, to discuss the policy of passing a general bankrupt law by the Thirty-Seventh Congress. The sense of the meeting, as well as of our merchants generally, is in favor of the passage of such a law.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE

OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

LONDON, *November* 8, 1861.

THE money market of London presents a singular contrast with that of Paris. While in that city the difficulty of negotiating time bills is increasing, the rates at this commercial centre are more favorable than a month ago. Prime bills, at short dates, have been taken this week as low as $2\frac{1}{2}$ @ $2\frac{5}{8}$ per cent. We now find the rates among the brokers to be:

At thirty days,	$2\frac{1}{2}$	@	$2\frac{5}{8}$	per cent.
At sixty days,	$2\frac{5}{8}$	@	$2\frac{7}{8}$	"
At three months,	$2\frac{3}{4}$	@	3	"
At four "	3	@	$3\frac{1}{4}$	"
At six "	$3\frac{1}{2}$	@	5	"

In the Continental markets the range is a wide one, viz.:

	Bk. Rates, per cent.		*Op. Mkt. per cent.*		*Bk. Rates, per cent.*		*Op. Mkt. per cent.*
Paris,	6	..	$5\frac{1}{2}$	Turin,	$6\frac{1}{2}$	..	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Vienna,	6	..	5	Brussels,	4	..	$3\frac{1}{2}$
Berlin,	4	..	$3\frac{1}{4}$	Hamburg,	–	..	$3\frac{1}{4}$
Frankfort,	4	..	$3\frac{1}{2}$	St. Petersburg,	7	..	3
Amsterdam,	3	..	3				

It is rumored from Paris that the negotiation of the Bank of France with London capitalists has had only a temporary effect as to relief, and that the bank has opened a correspondence with the Bank of Prussia for a sum equivalent to £2,250,000. At Paris also prevails a rumor that M. FOULD is likely to become Minister of Finance, and that his first move will be to bring forward a public loan to the extent of 500 million francs, or (in round numbers) twenty millions sterling. France may require even more than this.

The inquiry is made why higher prices do not prevail now, with such ample supplies of capital, than early in the year, when the market rate of discount was almost equivalent to a panic. The contrast in the rates of money does not mark the rates for public securities, viz.:

	February, 1861. *Bk. Rate*, 8 *p. ct.*		*November*, 1861. *Bk. Rate*, 3 *p. ct.*
3 per cent. Consols, cash,	$92\frac{1}{8}$ @ $92\frac{1}{4}$	..	$92\frac{1}{4}$ @ $92\frac{3}{8}$
" " account,	$91\frac{5}{8}$ @ $91\frac{7}{8}$	..	$93\frac{5}{8}$ @ $93\frac{3}{4}$
New 3 per cents,	$91\frac{5}{8}$ @ $91\frac{7}{8}$	..	$91\frac{7}{8}$ @ 92
3 per cents, reduced,	$91\frac{5}{8}$ @ $91\frac{7}{8}$	..	$91\frac{7}{8}$ @ 92

The numerous fluctuations of the Bank of England in their rates of discount have been prejudicial to the commercial community. The reduction to $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 per cent. in 1859, when the bullion reserve was

nineteen millions sterling, or five millions in excess of the present amount, was one of several causes which led to the reaction of 1860. In April, 1860, the rate again reached 5 per cent., and in February, 1861, eight per cent. The bank, from its ample resources, should hold in check the constant tendency to overtrading, and be at all times above the mere inducements of profit, and forego temporary advantages in order to maintain a consistent movement in commerce.

The excitement in the Liverpool cotton market is still on the increase, and prices are advancing daily. The total sales of last week amount to 146,000 bales, including 51,000 to spinners. Annexed are the exports of cotton from Bombay during August, as well as for the eight months ending August 31, the latter compared with the three previous years:

	Gt. Brit. bales.	*Cowes, &c. for orders, bales.*	*For Europe, bales.*	*China, &c., bales.*	*Total bales.*
Total for August,.....	39,738½ ..	.... ..	2,200 ..	....	41,938½
Previously exp'd this yr,.	717,132½ ..	18,560½ ..	6,226½ ..	54,656½ ..	796,576
Total for eight mos.,	756,871 ..	18,560½ ..	8,426½ ..	54,656½ ..	838,514½
Exp'd same time, 1860,..	329,931 ..	2,701 ..	12,413½ ..	164,367½ ..	509,413
do. do. 1859,..	390,907 ..	22,720 ..	21,569 ..	97,907 ..	533,103
do. do. 1858,..	223,702 ..	13,993 ..	19,542 ..	76,060 ..	333,297

From bankers we learn that of the bills maturing on Monday, the 4th, a rather larger number were returned than usual, but they were subsequently met, and no permanent case of embarrassment occurred.

By letters we learn the stoppage of the old-established Riga banking house of W. L. Scheluchin & Son, with moderate liabilities. The estate is expected to pay nearly in full, or at least a high dividend.

A report prevails of a suspension, with heavy liabilities, in the metal trade at Paris, where of late considerable speculation in copper, &c., has been going on.

The advices from Buenos Ayres mention the failure of the native house of Delphino & Co., with liabilities of about £160,000. A small portion of the loss will probably fall upon English establishments. The estate, it is feared, will turn out unfavorably. In consequence of this suspension, Messrs. Deihl, Fernan & Co. have also stopped payment.

An influential local committee has been formed at Cambridge, England, for the purpose of successfully carrying out the approaching meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science at that town next year. The gathering will be held later in the season than usual, and will not take place till the first week in October.

Mr. C. P. Melly, a Liverpool merchant, better known as "Fountain Melly," was presented, on Wednesday, with a silver épergne or candelabrum, valued at £1,000, as a token of the estimation in which he is held by his fellow-townsmen, rich and poor, on account of his public spirit and liberality in the erection of numerous drinking-fountains throughout the town. The plate bore an inscription which alluded to the gifts of a free play-ground and wayside benches, which Mr. Milly has also made to the town.

Contrasted with the close of October, 1860, the position of the London and Paris money markets is reversed. Then there was in London an active demand for money, and the Bank of England raised their rate of discount from 4 to 4½ per cent., while in Paris the current rate of discount was 3 per cent. At that time the Mires loan in behalf of Turkey was pending.

The following is a comprehensive table, affording a comparative view of the Bank of England returns, the bank rate of discount, the price of Consols, the price of wheat, and the leading exchanges, during a period of four years, corresponding with the first week in November as well as ten years back, viz., in 1851 :

	1851.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.
Bank of England—					
Circulation,	£21,350,000	£21,826,000	£22,692,000	£22,027,000	£21,575,000
Public deposits,	6,086,000	6,673,000	6,097,000	4,968,000	4,240,000
Other deposits,	9,549,000	12,290,000	14,311,000	13,114,000	13,515,000
Government securities,	13,241,000	10,808,000	10,875,000	9,490,000	11,712,000
Other securities,	12,215,000	14,697,000	18,649,000	19,968,000	16,460,000
Reserve of notes and coin,	9,138,000	11,988,000	9,500,000	7,166,000	8,087,000
Coin and bullion,	15,259,000	18,502,000	16,830,000	13,897,000	14,210,000
Bank rate of discount,	3 per ct.	3 per ct.	2½ per ct.	4½ per ct.	3 per ct.
Price of Consols,	98⅞	98¼	96¾	93¾	92¾
Average price of wheat,	36s. 1d.	42s. 8d.	42s. 9d.	59s. 9d.	59s. 5d.
Exchange on Paris, (short,)	25 17½	25 5	25 7½	25 15	25 20
Amsterdam, (short,)	11 16½	11 15	11 13	11 14½	11 18
Hamburg, (3 mos.),	13 10¼	13 7	13 5	13 5¼	13 8¾

Yet, with a specie reserve four millions below that of October, 1858, and with existing circumstances which may produce a revulsion in commercial and financial affairs of England and the continent, the bank has this week reduced its rate of discount one-half of one per cent., or from 3½, which was the established rate on 19th September, to 3 per cent. France is at this moment a large borrower, and the stability of her financial institutions may, before the end of the year, depend upon the ability of the Bank of England to maintain it.

Earl Russell's reply to a letter addressed to him officially by Mr. Henry W. Hayman, of Liverpool, relative to the American blockade of Southern ports, unqualifiedly states that if any British ship, being a neutral, knowingly attempts to break an effective blockade, she is liable to capture and condemnation. If such ship defends herself by force against a national vessel enforcing such blockade, such defence is a breach of the law of nations, and will expose the ship and cargo to condemnation as prize.

The British Board of Trade returns for the month and nine months ending September 30th, 1861, have been issued. We subjoin a statement of the total declared value of the British and Irish produce and manufactures during the month and for nine months in the last three years:

Year.	*For the Month.*	*For nine Months.*
1859,	£ 11,631,426	£ 98,037,311
1860,	13,646,454	101,724,346
1861,	11,220,206	93,795,332

The exports of the month were less by £2,426,248, or 18 per cent., than in the same month of last year, and less by £411,220, or 3½ per cent., than in September, 1859. The figures for the nine months show a decrease of £7,029,014, or 7½ per cent., compared with 1860, and a decrease of £4,241,979, or 4 per cent., compared with 1859.

Of the increasing trade of the Gold Coast, the *West African Herald* says: "The palm oil season has been glorious. In some towns in the eastern districts there is actually more oil than traders can take, and yet enormous prices are given for it. The Dromo sailed for London from

Accra on the 20th of July, with a cargo of 45,000 galls. of palm oil and a ton and a half of gum. On the 21st BRYN-Y-MOR, belonging to the same firm as the DROMO, (F. & A. SWANZY,) left Accra with another cargo of 45,000 gallons of palm oil. On the 22d the KEDAR sailed from Accra for Salem, Massachusetts, United States, with 85,000 gallons of oil. Thus, within three days, three vessels left from one port with 175,000 gallons of oil, all the produce of the Gold Coast. We do not hear of much corn or ground nuts shipped or contracted for. Very little encouragement has been given to the development of the corn and ground nuts trade of late."

Of the general results of the cotton trade for the nine months of the year, Messrs. STOTTERFORT, SON & Co. report in their circular that "the imports from the United States show a deficiency of 500,000 bales against last year, but from the East Indies there is an increase of 163,000 bales, reducing the deficiency (with some of the minor descriptions) on the whole to 353,000 bales. In the total supply that deficiency is still further reduced to 333,000 bales in American, or to 142,000 bales of all descriptions, in consequence of a larger stock having been held at the beginning of the year than the previous one. The deliveries show an excess of 146,000 bales, of which 23,000 bales Surat were burned in London. The stocks are reduced by 334,000 bales in American, or by 280,000 bales in all descriptions. They are, however, still largely in excess of former years, and, considering that the spinners everywhere are stocked to an unusual extent, there would be no cause for any anxiety if we could hope for an early renewal of the imports from the United States. We would estimate such excess held by the spinners above their usual quantity at fully 150,000 bales, and that would increase the available stock to 1,150,000 bales."

Intelligence has been received of the completion of the Malta and Alexandria cable. The whole length of this line is 1,300 miles, having intermediate stations at Tripoli and Benghazi. Arrangements are now nearly completed for working this line, and it is expected it will be open to the public by the end of October, when communication with India and China will be expedited thirteen days.

It is announced that the proprietors of the steamship GREAT EASTERN will be called upon for a further contribution, in the sum of twenty-five thousand pounds, to meet the repairs and extraordinary expenses of the ship, and that she will again, and before long, take her departure for New-York or some other port in America.

The public mind is much occupied with the joint expedition on the part of Spain, France and England against Mexico, to compel restitution for insults given and damages sustained.

The building in which the great International Exhibition of 1862 is to be held is progressing with rapidity. As the details become more public from the progress of the work, it is regarded more and more as a great highly popular measure. The committee are already marking out the various allotments of space. It is stated that the Emperor and Empress of the French will not only visit the Exhibition, but also take a tour to several of the principal towns and cities in the country, soon after the opening of the new building.

Advices from Chili give information that a law has passed the Chambers to double the sinking fund for the 4½ per cent. loan, contracted in 1858 through Messrs. BARING BROTHERS.

RAIL-ROAD AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

I. East India Railway. II. An Important Rail-Road Decision. III. The New Field Telegraph. IV. New Telegraph Lines.

EAST INDIA RAILWAY.

The Brahminee bridge is one of the largest structures on the newly-opened portion of the railway between Cynthia and Rajmehal. It consists of nine iron girders, of sixty feet span, and seven brick arches, of thirty feet span each. The total length from abutment to abutment is 950 feet.

The height from the bottom of the foundation to rail level is about forty feet, and the height of rail level above the bed of the river is about thirty feet. This bridge was originally intended to consist of twenty-four semi-circular brick arches, the river piers to be founded on undersunk wells. The foundations of both abutments and piers were got in in accordance with this design; but the difficulty of procuring bricks within a reasonable time (owing to a scarcity of fuel, which had to be carted from Raneegunge, a distance of seventy miles) induced a modification of the original design. This was, therefore, altered to a substitution of iron girders for brick arches. The undersunk well foundations were also dispensed with, as it was found, during prosecution of the works, that, by the employment of Appold's centrifugal pumps, worked by portable engines, the water could be kept under so as to admit of the sand being excavated, and the piers founded upon the clay. This turned out to be a more expeditious and satisfactory method than the slow and tedious process of well-sinking, in our opinion a rather questionable idea for general adoption in the construction of foundations in this country. The whole of the river piers were got in to above flood level in one season by the employment of four Appold's pumps, worked by four small portable agricultural engines, whereas it is doubtful whether otherwise the wells would have been completed in two seasons. The bridge is the highest on the line between Calcutta and Rajmehal. Its great height gives it a light and airy appearance, and altogether the structure forms one of the most attractive engineering features on the newly opened line. The work was carried on under the superintendence of Mr. Perry, district engineer, ably assisted by Mr. Powell, resident engineer, and who, we have been informed, has since joined the government service, and has been selected to construct the large bridge on the Grand Trunk Road over the Barrucker River. We have no doubt Mr. Powell's energetic and vigorous supervision will soon become apparent on his new undertaking, and that this great work, which has long been almost standing still from some causes or other, will be rapidly completed, with credit to himself and to the complete satisfaction of the government of India.—*Calcutta Engineer.*

AN IMPORTANT RAIL-ROAD DECISION.

The Court of Appeals of New-York, the highest tribunal in that State, has just rendered a decision that a rail-road company running an engine through a village where wooden buildings are so near the track as to be exposed to fire from the sparks, is bound to a higher degree of care than when running in the open country.

When the exposure of the buildings is increased by reason of a wind blowing towards them from the engine, which is standing at rest upon the track, the corporation is responsible for the utmost vigilance and care.

Under such circumstances, and after the law had been stated in effect as above, an instruction to the jury that the plaintiff could not recover if the engine was in good order, of proper construction and used with ordinary care, was properly refused.

The owner of an unfinished building thus exposed is bound to the use of such care as a man of ordinary prudence would employ under the circumstances; but does not forfeit his right to redress for the wrongful negligence of another, because he might have escaped injury by a higher vigilance on his own part.

Whether the leaving a door partly open, through which sparks from the engine flew—door being a part of the house then in course of construction and under the hands of the builders—was culpable negligence on the part of the owner or his servants, is a question which may properly be referred to the jury as one of fact.

THE NEW FIELD TELEGRAPH.

Engineer RODGERS, of New-York, has put in operation his newly-invented telegraphic cordage or insulated line, for field operations, and it proved eminently successful, giving entire satisfaction in the manner in which it operated. It is run off reels upon the ground with great rapidity, (as required for instant use,) across streams, through woods, or over any localities. Lines were yesterday, in extraordinary short time, thus laid between the headquarters of General MCDOWELL and two or three of his most advanced camps, and were worked in immediate connection with the telegraph station in the War Department. It is worthy of note that the heaviest artillery may run over this RODGERS' cordage without damaging its effectiveness in the least. It differs in many respects from the field telegraph used by LOUIS NAPOLEON in the Italian war, and embraces many advantages of convenient and certain operation under any possible circumstances over that (LOUIS NAPOLEON's) which contributed so signally to the success of the French arms.—*Washington Star.*

NEW TELEGRAPH LINES.

The telegraph cable between London and the Ajaccio, on the island of Corsica, has been successfully laid over a length of 205 miles, and an average of 1,500 fathoms in depth.

The wires of the new telegraph line from Boston to Washington are laid already to Providence. The line is constructed by the Independent Telegraph Company, consists of three wires, and is what is called a metallic circuit. The wires may be fastened to trees or any convenient object, or pass through water without impairing their efficiency, and they cannot be tapped to take away what is passing.

THE BOOK TRADE.

I. *A History of American Manufactures from* 1608 *to* 1860, *exhibiting the Origin and Growth of the Principal Mechanic Arts and Manufactures, from the Earliest Colonial Period to the Adoption of the Constitution, and comprising Annals of the Industry of the United States in Machinery, Manufactures and Useful Arts, with a notice of the Important Inventions, Tariffs, and the results of each Decennial Census.* By J. LEANDER BISHOP, M. D. *To which are added notes on the principal manufacturing centres and remarkable manufactories of the present time.* Vol. 1, octavo, pp. 642. EDWARD YOUNG & Co., Philadelphia.

This is a work that has long been wanted. It is the record of American industry carried down to the beginning of the present century, showing how the foundations were laid, and who laid them, of a yearly business now amounting to over eleven hundred millions of dollars, and employing a capital of over five hundred millions. This book shows how States become rich, and alludes to enterprises, mines, &c., that have been abandoned, but which, with modern appliances, might be made to yield fortunes.

Mr. BISHOP'S work includes a sketch of the industrial resources and pursuits of every State in the Union. The ship-building interest of Maine, Massachusetts, New-York, Maryland, &c., from the year 1650 to this period, finds an ample record. The grist and saw mills of New-York, the coal mines of Pennsylvania, the cotton mills of Rhode Island, &c., find their reliable history here. The work is also full of accurate historical and statistical details as to the important subjects of bark mills, barley and malt, beer, ale and porter, bounties and premiums, brass, iron, copper, lead and other metals, linens, woollens, cottons, flax and hemp, fire-arms, furs, grain, furnaces, gas, granite, gunpowder, glass, hides and skins, hops, hosiery, leather, liquors, lumber, machines, mines, mills, minerals, paper, prices of labor, pianofortes, rail-roads and rolling mills, salt, shoes, silks and steel, &c.

Vast labor and research have been necessary in the compilation of this volume, and, as a national work, of inestimable value to all interested in the triumphs of American genius and the material progress of our country, should find a place in every library, public or private.

The work is peculiarly rich in its historical and statistical details as to the City and the State of New-York; their early ship-building, textile arts, newspapers, mills, mines, leather and metallic manufactures, &c. New-York took the earliest measures to arrest the excessive importations of British goods. As early as the year 1764, a society was established in New-York "for the promotion of arts, agriculture and economy." At that early day they had committees on the arts, on agriculture, on schemes of economy, and offered premiums for various articles of manufactures. Premiums were awarded for the best specimens of hemp and flax, linen cloth, wove stockings, sole leather, shoes, gloves. Medals were announced for the first flax mill, stocking looms, &c. The first vessel built in New-York was in the year 1614, in which vessel the captain two years after discovered the Schuylkill River. Our merchants and manufacturers should read and consult this valuable work in order to find out the origin of the great articles of commerce, and especially the results of labor in the Empire State.

II. *Comparative Table, No.* 1, *of the Exports, Imports and Revenues of all the Countries of the Globe, with a sketch of their respective Productions, Agricultural, Mineral and of Manufactures; comprising, also, a Summary Account of their Commerce, Coins and Moneys; of their Rulers and Predominant Religion.* Carefully compiled by Dr. K. PETER REEHORST, Professor and Translator, author of the "*Mariners' Friend,*" in ten modern languages. 3 Cowper's Court, Cornhill, London.

III. *Comparative Table, No.* 2, *of the Returns of Population, Territorial Extents or Area, the Armies and Navies of all the Countries of the Globe, with their different National Colors, Flags, Standards and Cockades, as shown in the last twelve months.* Carefully compiled by Dr. K. PETER REEHORST.

IV. *Statistical Abstract for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in each of the fifteen years, ending* 31*st December,* 1846 *to* 1860.

The tabular information in this parliamentary document relates to revenue and expenditures, imports and exports, bullion, shipping, coinage, Savings Banks, Bank of England, population and grain.

*** The preceding four works have been deposited in the library of the Chamber of Commerce, New-York, where they may be examined by members.

V. *Seasons with the Sea-Horses; or, Sporting Adventures in the Northern Seas.* By James Lamont, Esq., F. G. S. 8vo., pp. 282, with a map and eight engravings. Harper & Brothers, New-York.

This work opens with a trip to Spitzbergen, followed by descriptions of the walrus, the seal, the hippopotamus, &c., and hunts for bears, foxes, deer and whales. The volume contains spirited drawings of the author's yacht, the walrus, seal-shooting, bears and cubs, reindeer, &c.

VI. *Eighty Years Progress of the United States. Showing the various channels of Industry and Education through which the People of the United States have arisen from a British Colony to their present National Importance, giving, in a historical form, the vast improvements made in Agriculture, Commerce and Manufactures, with a large amount of Statistical Information. By eminent literary men, who have made the subject their study.* Illustrated by 220 engravings of the first order. L. S. Stebbins, Worcester, Mass., 51 John St., New-York.

The first eighty years of the national existence were illustrated by no brilliant military exploits, such as for the most part make up the history of most countries of the Old World, but the American people did not the less on that account assume a marked character, and a first rank among the nations of the earth. Their success in ship-building and commerce at once placed them on a level with the greatest maritime nations. The inventive genius and untiring industry of the people soon revolutionized the manufacturing industry of the world, by the ready application of new mechanical powers to industrial arts; and if the extent and cheapness of land for a time supplied the scarcity of labor in agricultural departments, it did not prevent the multiplication of inventions, which have not only added immensely to home production, but have greatly aided that of European countries. The development of these industries forms the true history of American greatness, and the work of Mr. Stebbins has given a world of information upon each branch of the subject, in a most authentic and attractive form. The chapters on ship-building, commerce and internal transportation present to the reader a mass of valuable information as astonishing for the magnitude of the results produced as interesting in the narrative. We know of no other work which, in the compass of two handsome volumes, contains such varied and comprehensive instruction of a perfectly reliable character. They form almost a complete library in themselves.

VII. *Reports of Cases Argued and Determined in the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts.* By Horace Gray, Jr. Vol. 13. Boston: Little, Brown & Company.

We are much pleased to receive another volume of Gray's Massachusetts Reports. This volume is not only invaluable in Massachusetts, but in every other State, as decisions made in her courts are cited everywhere as the highest authority. In our opinion, also, these decisions should not be thought of service to, or studied by lawyers alone. It has been too much our custom to call State reports law books, and to consider them, therefore, as of little general use. Yet they are filled with clear and authoritative expositions of every-day transactions, the study of which cannot but benefit every one. We see, for instance, in this volume, many important commercial points discussed, and many contracts explained, any of which might arise in the every-day experience of any merchant.

Yet we would not convey the idea that every man should be his own lawyer any more than that every man should be his own doctor. Those who have made the study of law their profession are, of course, best able to explain its knotty points. But a certain knowledge of law is as necessary to every merchant, who would safely conduct his own business, as a knowledge of the simplest laws of health is to one who would enjoy this greatest blessing of life. This necessary knowledge, we insist, therefore, can best, and perhaps we should say only, be obtained, by studying the reports of decisions of the highest of our several State courts, for there the meaning of statutes, contracts and every mercantile transaction is explained and clearly stated.

VIII. *The Statutes at Large, and Treaties of the United States of America, passed at the first Session of the Thirty-Seventh Congress, 1861, and carefully collated with the originals at Washington.* Edited by GEORGE P. SANGER, Counsellor at Law. Boston: LITTLE, BROWN & COMPANY.

To the lawyer, editor, and all who have occasion to refer to the acts of Congress, this work is of great importance, it being arranged in a very convenient form for reference, with a copious index, too often omitted from similar works.

IX. *Framley Parsonage; a novel by* ANTHONY TROLLOPE, *author of "Dr.* THOME," *"The Bertrams," &c.* HARPER & BROTHERS, Publishers, New-York.

There seems to be a wide diversity of opinion regarding Mr. TROLLOPE's last novel, many of its readers being loud in their praises, while others declare themselves unable to accomplish the perusal of it. Without taking the part of either Framleyites or anti-Framleyites, we can assert that the book is quite out of the ordinary run of novels, and has a decided character of its own. The narrative is chiefly concerning the feuds and friendships of politicians, and the distresses consequent upon money-borrowing and money-lending. In this respect we think it capable of exerting a salutary influence; not upon the borrowing public, for an inveterate borrower is incorrigible, but a few of the poor, dear, indiscreet lenders may still be reclaimable, and to them we heartily commend it.

X. SILAS MARNER, *The Weaver of Raveloe.* By GEORGE ELIOT, author of "ADAM BEDE," "Mill on the Floss," &c. New-York: HARPER & BROTHERS, Publishers.

SILAS MARNER cannot approach "ADAM BEDE" or the "Mill on the Floss," in point of merit, yet there is an originality and life about the writings of Miss EVANS, (or of Mr. ELIOT, as she seems to prefer being called,) which must make any book interesting. Secret Sin and Self-Expiation are the abiding topics with this author. We find them everywhere, in various stages of development, and in SILAS MARNER they flourish in full blossom. The most charming thing in the whole story is the transfer of the wretched miser's affection from his heap of gold to the orphan baby, who creeps to his door through the winter storm. The difference between the love of money, so hardening in its effects, and the love for the helpless sweet-eyed baby, so humanizing and so tender in all its influences, is beautifully told and strongly contrasted.

XI. *The Recreations of a Country Parson.* Second series. Boston: TICKNOR & FIELDS.

Every one ought to read the "Recreations." Since ADDISON delighted his silver-buckled cotemporaries, and LAMB charmed his more modern age with the essays of ELIA, there has been no such essayist as the Country Parson. His writings are so wise that they teach us, so playful that they amuse us, and so hearty and simple in their love towards God and our neighbor, that they make the warm heart warmer, and transform the cynic into a philanthropist. He has given us a book for every nation, for every community, for every fireside, for every individual, and none should fail to read it.

We have received from the American Tract Society, 28 Cornhill, Boston, the following:

1. *Missionary Life in Persia; being glimpses at a quarter of a century of labors among the Nestorian Christians.* By Rev. JUSTIN PERKINS, D. D. With illustrations. 8vo., pp. 250.

This little volume contains a very interesting account of the missionary labors of Mr. PERKINS and others in Persia, during the past thirty years, since the origin of the mission; the state of the field, the opposition of Mohammedans, and the joyful reception given to the missionaries by the Nestorians. The work has already been blessed, and offers a useful field for earnest laborers.

2. *Memoirs of* THOMAS FOWELL BUXTON; *embracing a Historical Sketch of Emancipation in the West Indies, and of the Niger Expedition for the Suppression of the Slave Trade.* By MARY A. COLLIER.

This is an admirable little volume, and gives ample light on the early measures to suppress the slave trade.

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