Very Truly Yours
P. Peirce

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AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

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PELATIAH PERIT,

LATELY PRESIDENT OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, AND OF THE SEAMEN'S SAVING BANK, NEW YORK.

BY REV. LEONARD BACON, D. D., OF NEW HAVEN.*

A MAN eminent in the profession which had been his employment more than fifty years, venerable among the few survivors of a former generation, and widely honored for his wisdom and his beneficence, has passed away. To him we may apply the words in which the Idumean Patriarch speaks of himself and of the honor and affection which waited upon him in the days of his prosperity: "When the ear heard me, then it blessed me, and when the eye saw me it gave witness unto me."—Job xxix. 11. Who that has seen the dignified figure and the benevolent and cheerful countenance of PELATIAH PERIT since he began to reside among us—who that has known anything of his character and life—who that knows the esteem and veneration which attended him in that great community of merchants of which he was so long an acknowledged head—can fail to see some degree of resemblance between the princely Patriarch in the land of Uz three thousand years ago, and the princely merchant whose burial here has just added another to the honored graves in our New Haven burying ground?

I cannot hope to satisfy the feeling which has induced me to attempt, not uninvited, this memorial. All that I can do, is to give an imperfect outline of Mr. PERIT'S life, as illustrating his character, and as yielding some lessons worthy of our thoughtful attention.

PELATIAH PERIT, the son of JOHN PERIT, a merchant, (whose family name indicates his descent from that Huguenot imigration into New

* Mr. PERIT removed to New Haven in the fall of the year 1859 since which time he has attended Dr. BACON'S Church. We feel very sensibly that no pen could so fittingly portray the excellencies of this eminently Christian merchant as that o his able and appreciative pastor.—Ed. HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

England, which has contributed its full share of illustrious names to our history,) was born at Norwich, June 23, 1785. His mother was a daughter of PELATIAH WEBSTER, and to her second son she gave her father's Christian name, her husband's name having been already given in connection with her own family name to the elder son JOHN WEBSTER PERIT. PELATIAH WEBSTER was not undistinguished as a merchant, a man of letters, and a patriot. Born at Lebanon in 1725, and educated at Yale College, where he graduated in 1746, he was a classmate, an intimate friend, and a life-long correspondent of the learned President STILES. At about the age of thirty years he engaged in mercantile business, "more from necessity than from inclination," the clerical profession having been his earlier choice. He established himself in Philadelphia, and soon began to prosper. Before the commencement of the revolutionary war, he had acquired a considerable estate, but had never lost his love for study or of literary labor. As might be inferred from his intimacy with President STILES, he was an earnest lover of his country, and was active in the assertion of American rights against the aggressions of the British Government. While the British forces occupied Philadelphia, he was arrested for his loyalty to his country, and was closely imprisoned in the city jail more than four months, and plundered of a large portion of his property. Early in the progress of the national struggle for independence he directed his studies to the currency, the finances, and the resources of the country. As early as October, 1776, he published a pamphlet on the great question in every war, "How to sustain the public credit." Three years later he commenced the publication of a series of "Political Essays on commercial and financial questions," which were collected and republished in 1791. The seat of the national government being at Philadelphia for the first few years after the adoption of the Federal Constitution, Mr. WEBSTER was often consulted by members of Congress who desired to avail themselves of his intelligence and experience in matters of public economy. Senators and representatives, especially from his native State, often spent their evenings at his house in free and earnest conversation on such subjects. These things are mentioned because of their connection with the childhood of Mr. PERIT. His mother's home, after the early death of her husbsnd, was in her father's house, and there the mind of her son, almost from infancy, began to be interested in questions relating to the commerce and resources of the country; just as any intelligent and gifted child is always interested to some degree in whatsoever is a constant theme of discussion at home among those whom he most respects. Those evenings of free talk between his grandfather and men eminent and honored in public life were always among the cherished recollections of his childhood; and they had their effect upon his intellectual tastes and habits, and afterwards upon his choice of a profession.

His grandfather died in the year 1795, and not long afterwards his mother, with her two boys, removed her residence to this town for the purpose of educating them at the college which had been her father's *alma mater*. After completing their preparatory studies at the Hopkin's Grammar School, they became students in Yale College. The elder of the two brothers, JOHN WEBSTER PERIT, graduated in 1801, and afterwards became a distinguished China merchant in Philadelphia, where he died about twenty years ago. PELATIAH PERIT graduated in the class of 1802, a class which was in many respects distinguished. Entering upon

the four years course just as President DWIGHT was completing those changes by which the college system was adapted to the new order of things in the country, when his great power in the college pulpit as well as in the teacher's chair was at its height, and when the celebrity of his name was beginning to fill the whole country, it was the first class which, because of its numbers, was placed in two divisions under the care of tw tutors. Of those two tutors, one was HENRY DAVIS, who was afterward President of Middlebury College, then elected President of Yale College, to fill the place of President DWIGHT, then President of Hamilton College. The other was that eminent man, still lingering among us in his venerable age, President DAY. From these two men, aided only by a few lectures from a professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, the two divisions of the class received all their instruction through the first three years of their course. Then, through the remaining year, they were under the immediate and almost exclusive instruction of the President. No former class since the founding of the institution, had ever been so favored in the character of its teachers. At the same time the class was distinguished throughout its course by orderliness, sobriety and good behaviour. No member of it ever incurred any of the higher college censures, such as expulsion, rustication and public admonition. They had, all of them, or nearly all, come to college with the intelligent and manly purpose of preparing themselves, by a liberal education, for honorable usefulness in society. Thus their influence upon each other—and let it be remembered that the mutual influence of class-mates is a most important element in the process of a college education—was salutary instead of being mischievous, and was a help instead of being a hindrance to the influence of their teachers.

Another distinction of that class was at the time unprecedented, and, in some respects, will ever remain unparalleled. That I may explain this let me say that at the beginning of President DWIGHT'S administration, (in 1795,) irreligious opinions such as then were widely current in the country, had obtained great ascendency among the college students. The time was a critical one in the history of Christianity here and throughout the world, and the religious condition of the college was very much what we might presume it would be at such a time, when skeptical habits of thinking, on all the themes both of the Christian revelation and of natural religion, were far more prevalent among educated and half-educated men than now. Those extraordinary revivings of religious thought and feeling by which the Spirit of the Lord lifted up a standard against the enemy, and turned back the incoming flood of infidelity, had not then begun in the churches. Consequently the young men who came to college from parishes and families in which the influence of the Puritan discipline still lingered, and who were of blameless morals, according to the standard at those times, came generally without any deep religious convictions and principles, and too generally went as they came. When that class of 1802 entered college in 1798, only one of the sixty or more made any profession of having experienced the power of godliness, and that one died before the third year of their course was ended. During three and a half of those four years, very few of the students were members of the college church. At the administration of the Lord's supper in September, 1801, (the Sabbath before commencement,) not one undergraduate was present as a communicant. But in March, 1802, there began the first great re-

viving of religion that had taken place within the college walls in more than half a century. On the Sabbath preceeding the commencement in that year, twenty-four of the class then graduating, sat together, and many of the three younger classes with them, at the table of the Lord. That class of 1802 was the first of all the classes whose education within those venerable walls has been attended with so great a blessing.

One of those whom that reviving of religion introduced to membership in the college church was PELATIAH PERIT. He had entered college an amiable and dutiful boy, ingenuous, tractable, genial, and of peaceful manners, but with no fixed and earnest purpose to live for God and for eternity; just one of those beloved and hopeful boys who are so often ruined by the temptations of a college life because of their amiable and attractive qualities. He graduated at the early age of seventeen, not only unharmed by the temptations through which he had passed, but inspired with the principles that form the highest and noblest type of manhood. He had considered and settled the question whether to live for himself or to live for God, and thenceforth his long life was a testimony to the earnestness of his desire.

We see something of his character in the fact that immediately after leaving college at that early age, he established in Norwich, his native place, a school for young gentlemen and ladies which gave him a temporary employment, and in which he was entirely successful. At that time he was expecting to spend his life in the ministry of the gospel. But a partial failure of his health, and especially of his voice, required a reconsideration of his purpose. Compelled to relinquish the profession to which he was led by religious sympathies and aspirations, he chose the mercantile profession as better for him than any other secular employment.

It was not difficult for him to find an eligible situation in the city where he had passed they ears of his childhood, and where the stock of which he came was favorably known. He was in his nineteenth year when he began as a clerk in one of the large importing houses at Philadelphia, which had not then ceased to be the foremost of our American cities. Nor was he long in demonstrating that all his talents and attainments might be made serviceable to him in his chosen employment. After remaining about five years in connection with the house which he had entered as a clerk, and for which he had made several voyages to the West Indies and to South America, he removed to New York in 1809, just when all the commercial interests of our country were imperilled, and were coming to the brink of annihilation, by that series of measures which terminated in the war with great Britain. How he forced through those years of disaster and uncertainty I am not informed. Let it suffice to say that when peace had been restored, and the business of the country was reviving, and its foreign commerce was beginning again to traverse freely every ocean, he became a partner in the house of GOODHUE & Co., now so widely known, and that, through all the changes which time and death made in the partnership, he remained a member of that firm more than forty years. All commercial men know the character and standing of that house, and how much of it was the character and standing of PELATIAH PERIT.

His place among the merchants of our great commercial city, was recognized by his election, eleven years ago, to the Presidency of the New York Chamber of Commerce. The rules of that body provide that no

president shall be re-elected for more than three years in succession without a unanimous vote. Yet for ten successive years he held that place of honor, being nine times re-elected by the unanimous vote of his associates. I need not say that while the place honored him, he made the place more honorable for all his successors.

To a stranger who happens to look upon the great whirlpool of business and excitement in New York, it seems as if there could be no such thing in that infinite and ceaseless agitation, as the personal influence of any individual man—unless he is a politician or the conductor of a newspaper. Yet there are, in that vast chaos, some individual men whose personal influence, without the aid of political partizanship and without any blowing of newspaper trumpets, is a power. Mr. Perit was one of those few men. Honored and trusted in the highest walks of commerce, he was honored and trusted by the community at large—so far as there is any such community there. Many of us remember the occasion a few years ago—when the peace of that city was imperilled by the abuses of faction, and there was a dead look in the Board of Police Commissioners, and Pelatiah Perit was chosen by common consent to fill the vacancy in the Board, and so to arbitrate, as it were between the factions, and what a relief it was to all honest men when his name was announced as the solution of the difficulty. Yet he was not one of those poor souls who have no opinion on disputed questions of great public interest, national and local, or who, having an opinion, are afraid to say what they think. The confidence of his fellow-citizens in him—so signally testified on that occasion—was simply their confidence in an honest man of clear perceptions, of safe judgment, and of a truly noble spirit. Many of us remember with what dignity he accepted (at a serious personal sacrifice,) the trust to which he was called in that emergency, and with what dignity he laid it down when the crisis had passed.

The most conspicuous thing in the public character and services of Mr. Perit was his constant and active interest in undertakings of Christian philanthropy. He was not one of those passive philanthropists—sometimes men of great excellence and worthy to be greatly honored—who give money when called to give, but who never give their time and their personal activity to works of Christian love and zeal. From the outset of the Foreign Missionary work, as conducted by the American Board of Commissioners, he co-operated in that work with an enlightened and unfailing zeal. His connection as a merchant with the remotest lands of heathenism stimulated and sustained his interest in the blessed work of sending to those lands the renewing power of Christianity. The children of his adoption, chosen from among the relatives of his own family, were the orphan or motherless children of foreign missionaries. He was a frequent and active attendant upon the great annual meetings of the Foreign Missionary Board, for he seemed to regard his membership in that corporation as a trust not to be discharged without personal attention to its duties, and he was always ready to devise and to execute liberal things for the conversion of the world to Christ. But his interest in foreign missions, like that of every Christian soul, instead of exhausting his beneficence, was only the stimulus of his activity in doing good to all men as he had opportunity. The home missionary work, in all its departments, had an equal place in his affections. He took an early and unwearied interest in the efforts for the welfare of seamen, for to that once neglected

class he felt himself, as a merchant, bound in a special relation. He was for many years President of the Seamen's Savings Bank in New York, retaining that trust when he had laid down almost every other. He was President of the American Seamen's Friend Society, and was always active in its concerns. He valued his place as President of the Chamber of Commerce, chiefly because it made him a trustee, *ex-officio*, of that great charity on Staten Island, the Sailor's Snug Harbor. There was no sorrow within his reach, nor any suffering or degradation, which did not share his active sympathy.

Many years ago, the air of the crowded city being injurious to his health, he removed his residence to Bloomingdale, which was then a beautiful suburb, but which the growth of the great city is now rapidly absorbing. At that distance from his place of business, he was compelled to begin the day early—breakfasting often by candle-light—driving miles in his own carriage before he could reach the region traversed by omnibuses —returning after his long days work to enjoy his evening in his family. But he did not live apart or for himself. His statelier dwelling, such as became his position, was not surrounded by the mansions of the rich such as now crowd the Fifth avenue, but chiefly by dwellings of persons whose place in society was in some sort inferior to his own. He was a good neighbor there. His house was open to his neighbors for a weekly prayer meeting, and it was his constant endeavor to make those meetings for devotion the accession and the basis of a kindly social intercourse with the families of the neighborhood. While retaining his connection with the church of his own preference in the city, he sacrificed much of what may be called the luxury of religious self-indulgence for the sake of helping to sustain a church of a different name and order in that suburb. He superintended with much personal labor, a large Sunday school which was eminently useful. His house was near the large Orphan Asylum of New York, and he never forgot that those orphans were his neighbors. He watched over their welfare with incessant kindness. Every Sabbath evening, and at other times, year after year, he took part in their moral and religious instruction. Many a joyous holiday did those little ones owe to his care and bounty.

To show what was the nature of his influence as a Christian merchant, and how much of it was the effect of his rare judgment and skill in dealing with men, I may refer to a change which was effected by him, perhaps thirty years ago, in the regulations of the packet-ships sailing from the port of New York. Formerly the packets for Liverpool and other trans-atlantic ports were advertised to sail regularly on certain days of the month, and whenever the appointed days for sailing fell on Sunday, the Christian Sabbath was disregarded. To the house of GOODHUE & Co. this was an inconvenience. It interfered with the Sabbath of the partners, and with the Sabbath to which their clerks and other employees were entitled. It interfered also with the religious feelings of all passengers who honored the Christian Sabbath, and were unwilling to violate their consciences by commencing a voyage on that day. At the same time it interfered with the Sunday rest—religious or irreligious—of every merchant, and of the clerks of every merchant, who had occasion to send by every packet, the latest advices to his correspondents beyond the sea. But the practice was a settled one, and how could it be changed? Those were the days when tide and time waited for no man; and was not the

sailing of a packet ship on her appointed day, even though that day happened to fall on Sunday, a work of necessity and mercy? How then should the ship-owners and merchants, many of whom had no religious regard for the sanctity of the Christian Sabbath, be brought to agree upon a change? Some men undertaking such a reform, would have begun with a public agitation on purely moral and religious grounds, and with denunciation of all persons implicated in upholding the existing arrangement, and the result would have been a failure. The personal influence of Mr. PERIT with men who, whatever may have been their own position in relation to evangelical Christianity, could not but honor his Christian character, was such that he found no difficulty in effecting a new arrangement. He succeeded in convincing all parties that the change of "packet day," from a certain day of the month to a certain day of the week was no infringement of any man's religious liberty, and was required not only in the interest of religion and Christian morals, but also in the interest of merchants and their clerks, and in the general interest of commerce.

The position of Mr. PERIT in relation to public interests, political and religious, was always highly conservative. Rash and one-sided schemes of reformation were ever offensive to his judgment. Perhaps he was more charmed with the idea of defendingand of perpetuating and perfecting the good which has descended to us from foregoing ages, than with the idea of finding out what there is in existing institutions that needs to be reformed. Yet his sagacity, his good sense, his intelligent patriotism, and his love of justice guarded him against the error of those self-styled conservative men, who sacrifice the reality to the name, and become destructives for the sake of a false and foolish consistency. Not long before the last Presidential election, there was a time when the immediate danger to the country seemed to be that the votes in the Electoral Colleges might be so divided among four candidates as to throw the election into the House of Representatives, which would prolong the agitation from November to February, and would give to desperate men an opportunity for desperate measures. Mr. PERIT had never been an active politician. But deeply impressed with what seemed to be the most imminent peril of the country, he did not hesitate to commit himself publicly and unequivocally on the question of the hour, and as a conservative man to urge on conservative men the duty of terminating the agitation by giving their votes and their influence for the only candidate in whose behalf there was a possibility of obtaining a majority in the electoral colleges. So afterwards when the long-meditated treason had become overt rebellion, and when the question was whether the national government without any considerable military force, with its navy carefully disposed in the remotest seas, with its treasury purposely empty, and its credit at a discount, could make any resistance, he was among the leaders in that movement of merchants and capitalists which brought forth millions of treasure to restore and confirm the credit of the government. His conservative sympathies and principles never led him into the error of assuming, or of conceding, that parties and party-platforms are to be cared for first, and the country afterwards; that the Constitution should be modified or given up, at the demand of rebellion, for the sake of an ignoble peace, which would be no peace; that a local and barbarous institution, the creature of State laws, ignored by the Constitution, and abhorred by the moral sense of the civilized world, is to be scrupulously maintained by the military power of

the nation through all the exigencies of civil war; or that the Government of the United States is not legitimately invested with full belligerent powers against those who, by their own act and profession, and by all the definitions of the law of nations and of the laws of war, are enemies of the United States. As a conservative man, ready for every sacrifice to save our common country, and to uphold those interests of humanity and of the kingdom of God on the earth, which are identified with our national life and welfare—he has given his hearty adherence to all the measures of the Government against the common enemy. His natural cheerfulness, exalted by a religious confidence in God, has made him hopeful for his country in the darkest hours. Assured that the progress of events is working out the purposes of God's righteousness and love, he has never been moved by any temptation "to despair of the republic;" and his expectation of results that shall amply compensate the coming ages for the sacrifices and the sorrows of our national agony, has never faltered.

About five years ago, in consideration of his advancing age, he determined, notwithstanding the unimpaired vigor of his bodily and mental powers, to withdraw himself gradually from the engagements and responsibilities with which he had been so long familiar, and to find a quiet retreat for the evening of his life. The associations of childhood and of college days, the ties that bound him to some dear and honored friends, his cultivated love of letters, and his hope of being able to combine the privileges of congenial society with the privileges of retirement from the great emporium, were among the attractions which brought him to this place. While withdrawing from an active participation in commercial pursuits, he did not propose to pass the remainder of his life in idleness, nor yet to neglect the duties which he owed to his profession. To a man like him retirement is not indolence. He proposed, indeed, to himself a leisurely closing up of his affairs in this world, and a devout and tranquil preparation for "the coming night when no man can work," or rather for a blessed waking from the last sleep; but to him some manly occupation —such as might task without overtasking his mind, and such as might yield him the consciousness of a continued service to his profession and his country—was a necessity. Having formed his plan, he immediately entered upon "the collection of materials for a History of the Commerce, Finance, and progressive Wealth of the United States, since the close of the Revolutionary War, with Sketches of the eminent Merchants who by their enterprise and talents have contributed largely to the national prosperity." In this undertaking he had, as I have already intimated, a higher end than merely to amuse his old age with a semblance of employment. He believed, with modest self-appreciation, that his fifty years of observation, and of active acquaintance with commerce, would enable him to execute his proposed work in a way which would make it useful to the country. The New York Chamber of Commerce by a vote requested him to go forward with his undertaking. Thus encouraged, he was giving the well-earned leisure of his old age to that work, an appropriate sequel to the "Political Essays" of his grandfather. With Pelatiah Webster's volume continually at hand, he had studied out all the topics of his intended history, had written extensively on most of them, and was beginning to reduce his collected materials to a form suitable for publication, when he finally rested from his labors. It is hoped that others will complete and publish what he projected and commenced.

His dying was in beautiful harmony with his living. Repeated and painful attacks of a settled disease had made him quite aware that his death could not be far off, and might be sudden. Yet his convalescence from the last violent attack had been such that he was expecting to resume, before long, his interrupted employment. When friends and physicians found themselves compelled to give up that expectation, as one fatal symptom after another began to appear, his calm but ever hopeful nature was unconscious of the change that was in progress. But when, at last, the voice that had long been dearest to him told him plainly that his latest hour was just at hand, he received the announcement with perfect composure, and with an unfaltering confidence in Christ. He was ready, and all his thoughts were full of thankfulness. He had no arrangements to make in regard to his worldly affairs. But, with characteristic scrupulousness, he recollected an oral promise which he had made of a thousand dollars for an important public institution in New Haven. The amount would have been paid a few days before, but because of his illness it had not been called for. He remembered that his oral promise could not authorize his executors to make the payment. He called for his check-book, and when he had filled out the check, and subscribed it, his work was done. Calmly and cheerfully, he waited a few hours more; and then he sank to rest, gently as a wearied child.

ACTION OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE ON THE DEATH OF PELATIAH PERIT.

A special meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of New York was held March 11, 1864, on the occasion of the death of its late President PELATIAH PERIT. The meeting was called to order by Mr. A. A. Low, who made a very excellent and appropriate address which we are sorry we have not room to publish. The following resolutions presented by Mr. JOHN C. GREEN, were adopted by the Chamber:

Resolved, That in the death of the late member and President of this Board, the Chamber desire to express their recognition of the agency of Divine Providence, and briefly record their sense of the virtues and high qualities of their departed associate.

Resolved, That the Chamber bow with reverence and cheerful submission to the sovereign decree which, while removing from this sphere of service an honored and esteemed colleague, has permitted him a life of seventy-eight years of signal activity and usefulness.

Resolved, That by early and wise training, by a liberal education, and by careful subsequent cultivation of his mental and moral powers and practice in the affairs of life, Mr. PERIT was eminently fitted for the successful discharge of the duties which he assumed. As a merchant and a member of society, and of this Chamber, he was ever intelligent, courteous, and of spotless integrity. As a presiding officer, impartial, prompt and skillful. He was especially distinguished for benevolence and a broad catholic charity, which knew no distinction of race or condition.

Resolved, That the Chamber deem this a fitting occasion to express their belief, that the crowning grace of Mr. PERIT's character was his deep, intelligent, consistent and abiding religious faith. From this source he drew, as from a perennial fountain, motives of action, rules of life, incentives to diligence and perseverance in duty, and

inspirations of cheerfulness and hopefulness, which, behind the darkest cloud, ever discerned a ray of light, which beckoned onward, and brought a life of high usefulness to a happy close.

Resolved, That the Chamber direct these resolutions to be entered on their minutes, and a copy sent to the bereaved family of the deceased.

After the presentation of these resolutions, the Honorable GEORGE OPDYKE briefly addressed the Chamber, paying, in a very graceful manner, a high tribute to the excellent judgment and pure unselfish character of MR. PERIT. He was followed by the Honorable CHARLES KING, President of Columbia College. The closing sentences of his remarks form a fitting end to this biography.

"Mr. PERIT was never a partizan; he, on the other hand, never failed in the discharge of his political obligations. He always counted, as a substantive quantity, whenever and wherever he interposed, and was firm and fearless in carrying out his views.

Of the graces of his Christian character, the resolutions and the feeling and discriminating remarks of the gentleman who introduced them, make fitting commemoration.

Of the loyalty and integrity of his character as a merchant—of the beautiful tenor of his whole life—we have all been witnesses, and all feel that we shall not soon look upon his like again.

In his personal intercourse he was frank, lovely, courteous, considerate, wise.

'None knew him but to love him,
None named him but to praise.'"

FINANCES OF THE STATES.

We have made up from official data the following statements, giving the receipts and disbursements for the year 1863, and the debt at the end of that year, of each State, excepting, of course, those now in rebellion:—

PENNSYLVANIA.

The revenue and expenditure of the State of Pennsylvania, for the year 1863, were as follows:—

Revenue.		Expenses.	
Ordinary Receipts..	$3,959,438 61	Expenses.....	$3,139,121 08
Miscellaneous	330,013 04	Military.....	208,074 44
		Other.....	967,768 53
Total	$4,289,451 65		$4,314,964 05
On hand Nov., 1862	2,172,844 10	Nov., 1863.....	2,147,331 70

The excess of expenditure for the year was made up from the balance on hand.

The State debt was as follows:

PENNSYLVANIA PUBLIC DEBT.

The indebtedness of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania on the first day of December, 1863.

Funded debt, viz.:

6 per cent loans, ordinary..... $400,630 00

5 do do	35,709,986 45		
4½ do do	268,200 00		
			$36,378,816 45
Unfunded debt, viz.:			
Relief notes in circulation.....	97,251 00		
Interest certificates outstanding	15,356 63		
Do unclaimed.	4,448 38		
Domestic creditors' certificates.	724 32		
			117,780 33
			$36,496,596 78
Military loan, per act of May 15, 1861.....			3,000,000 00
Public debt, December 1, 1863.....			$39,496,596 78
Public debt December 1, 1862			$40,448,213 82
Deduct amount redeemed at the State Treasury during the fiscal year ending with November 30, 1863, viz.:			
5 per cent stocks	$888,499 78		
4½ do do	63,000 00		
Relief notes.....	109 00		
Domestic creditors' certificates	8 26		
			951,617 04
Public debt, December 1, 1863.....			$39,496,596 78

The redemption of this debt, $951,617 04, by the commissioner of the military fund was in currency, and gave rise to great complaints, and that justly, particularly on the part of the foreign holders who had loaned specie and got back not more than two-thirds of what was their due. The commissioner had, however, no option under the law. The funds provided were in paper, and they had no authority to pay specie, and the loans were discharged in legal tender.

The result for the state is a great diminution in debt. The interest on the debt of Pennsylvania is paid in specie. But the funds are derived from the banks, which are required by law to pay into the Treasury their rateable proportion of such premium on gold as is required to meet the interest. By the act of January 30, 1863, the banks were required to exchange a sufficient amount of coin for currency, receiving in return Treasury certificates pledging the State faith to return coin before March, 1864, with 2½ per cent interest. $1,968,904 coin was so obtained, and there is $41,040 interest due the banks. The State had to pay $1,013,986 premium on the coin to return it. The banks demurred at this system of calling upon them to furnish coin, particularly at a time when they were called upon to struggle against a new system of banking which was not subject to State taxes. In the years 1837–39, the State of Pennsylvania was forced to suspend her interest or pay in paper, thus drawing loud and deep groans from the Dean of St. Paul's. When the difficulty passed, the State, by the act of June 12, 1840, appropriated a sufficient sum to reimburse her loanholders for the difference in value between specie and the currency in which they had been previously paid,

and then solemnly declared, "that hereafter the interest falling due on Pennsylvania stocks shall always be paid in specie or its equivalent." This is the law to-day, and for its observance, and the maintenance of the present good name of the Commonwealth, no effort or sacrifice ought to be spared. The taxable property of Pennsylvania is as follows:

Real and personal estate		$595,591,994.
Tax assessment	$1,545,643 94	
½ mill tax	294,859 72	
		$1,840,503 66
Population		2,921,046
" taxable		642,468

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

The general receipts and expenditure of the State of New Hampshire, for 1863, were as follows:

Revenue.		Expenses.	
Taxes	$137,085 61	Ordinary	$210,539 32
Loans	239,300 00	Aid volunt'r families, &c.,	183,810 56
Total	$376,385 61		$394,349 88

The following is a statement of the military operations of New Hampshire:

Regiments.	Quartermaster.	Recruiting.	Bounty.	Total.
1	$4 86	.....	.....	$4 86
2	51 75	152 00	$5,160 00	5,756 81
3	8 00	179 00	6,660 00	6,892 02
4	....	62 00	2,470 00	2,583 38
5	17 62	176 00	6,410 00	6,621 12
6	19 09	208 60	360 00	832 72
7	....	64 00	3,960 00	4,024 00
8	75 23	28 00	780 00	1,011 01
9	27 25	1,660 00	47,250 00	78,138 08
10	....	1,794 00	41,400 00	51,637 10
11	1 00	1,852 00	48,050 00	56,352 91
12	....	1,932 00	48,600 00	59,041 44
13	....	1,932 00	46,400 00	61,968 60
14	....	1,890 00	41,650 00	57,356 17
15	57 25	.....	.....	6,309 91
16	57 27	.....	.....	7,660 70
17	....	.....	.....	6,525 18
Battery	....	12 00	360 00	385 50
Sharpshooters	....	28 00	1,020 00	1,048 00
Cavalry	5 25	14 00	1,980 00	2,369 17
Forts	270 94	.....	.....	1,192 80
War claims	....	.....	.....	8,683 74

Total military expenses	$426,395 18
Direct tax, &c.	271,117 67
Total expenditure	$697,512 85
Cash on hand June 1, 1863	31,461 51
Grand total	$728,974 36

Receipts:		
Sale State bonds.....	$482,308 50	
U. S. direct tax.....	218,406 67	
In Treasury, June 1, 1862....	28,259 19	
		728,974 36

The total debt of New Hampshire, at the end of the fiscal year of 1862, was $735,100.

During 1863 additional loans have been negotiated to the amount of $239,300 for the temporary use of the State, and $482,308 50 for military expenses.

NEW YORK.

The receipts and disbursements of the New York general fund, for the year 1863, were as follows:

Receipts.		Payments.	
Loans State defence.	$2,000,000 00	Bounties.....	$4,650,277 54
Auction and salt duty	187,951 06	War expenses.....	640,114 58
State tax.....	4,700,952 77	Debt.....	1,605,138 33
Canal revenue.....	200,000 00	Canal loan.....	355,040 28
Miscellaneous	22,875 00	Sinking fund	1,065,148 17
Prisons' earnings...	267,125 30	Other Expenses	1,589,880 57
Sale of arms to U.S.	230,599 99		
Native guard fines..	70,101 37		
Non-resident taxes..	57,277 65		
Banks.....	33,020 33		
Other items.....	50,105 59		
Total	$7,820,009 06	Total	$9,804,599 47
On hand 1862.....	821,612 11	Deficit	1,192,787 77

The debt of the State is as follows:

Canal debt.....	$23,268,310 25
General fund debt.....	6,505,654 37

The State valuations are as follows:

Acres of land	28,297,142	
" " assessed	27,693,721	
Real estate value		$1,119,708,722
Personal "		340,838,266
Total valuations.....		$1,462,778,067
Equalised "		1,454,454,817
Town taxes.....	$3,421,806 01	
County taxes	12,352,720 57	
School "	1,090,841 11	
State "	6,181,432 97	
Total taxes (15 mills per one dollar)		$23,046,800 60

MICHIGAN.

The receipts and expenses of the State of Michigan, for the year 1863, were as follows:

Receipts.		Expenses.	
Ordinary.....	$1,401,366	Ordinary.....	$1,047,245 52
$2,000,000 loan	2,009,210	Five million loan...	1,901,185 00
War bonds.....	71,100	Other bonds	179,125 00
Total.....	$3,481,676		$3,127,555 52

The amount expended by the State for war purposes was $232,903 94. The State debt is as follows:

State indebtedness.

The funded and fundable debt is as follows:

Renewal loan bonds, due January, 1878,.....	$216,000 00
Two million loan bonds, due January, 1868,.....	250,000 00
" " " " 1873,.....	500,000 00
" " " " 1878,.....	500,000 00
" " " " 1883,.....	750,000 00
War loan bonds, payable January, 1864,.....	16,400 00
" " due January, 1886,.....	550,900 00
Total.....	$2,783,300 00
Canal bonds guaranteed by State.....	100,000 00
Matured adjusted bonds, interest stopped, payable on demand	10,000 00
Matured full paid 5,000,000 loan bonds, interest stopped, payable on demand,.....	12,000 00
Temporary loan bonds, interest stopped, payable on demand, ...	5,000 00
War loan bonds, interest stopped, payable on demand,.	2,000 00
Outstanding part paid (unrecognized) bonds, $140,000 adjustable at	80,999 80
Total.....	$2,993,299 80

IOWA.

The receipts and expenditure for the State of Iowa, for the years 1862 and 1863, were:

Receipts,.....	$866,816 62
Expenses, ...	854,101 65
Excess receipts, ...	$12,714 97

The expenses of the State for war and defence were $710,986 22. The State debt is as follows:

The State has borrowed of the Permanent School Fund the following sums, to wit:

On bonds payable May 1, 1854, (Chap. 58, Acts 1849)..	$16,442 05
" " Sept. 15, '59, (Chap. 70, Acts 1849)..	6,000 00
" " Jan. 1, 1856, (Chap. 51, Acts 1851)..	2,353 70
" " July 15, 1861, (Res. 9, Ex. Sess. '56)..	40,000 00
And amount borrowed Jan. 1, '57, (Chap. 3, Acts '56-7).	57,500 00
Total amount of School Fund borrowed,.....	$122,295 75

Iowa seven per cent bonds payable in New York, Jan. 1, 1868, issued under Chap, 7, Acts 1858,.....		200,000 00
Making		$322,295 75
To which add amount of bonds sold under Chap. 16, Acts Extra Session 1861, for War and Defence Fund,.....		300,000 00
Making total bonded debt, ...		$622,295 75
The taxable property of the State is as follows:		
Acres land, ...	28,336,345	
Value of land,.....		$111,653,109
Town property		22,992,759
Personal "		32,463,106
Total		$167,108,974
2 mill tax.....		334,218

WISCONSIN.

The finances of the State of Wisconsin embraces a great number of funds, fifteen in all, under which as many branches of the national service are conducted. The aggregate receipts of the funds was $2,636,888 90, and the expenses $2,581,180 07. Of these the general fund and the war fund possess the most interest. The former was as follows for the year:

Receipts.		Payments.	
Taxes	$786,128 37	Interest.....	$104,512,97
Loan	50,000 00	Paid war fund	272,156,16
Miscellaneous	34,247 62	State expenses	434,274,42
Total.....	$860,375 99	Total.....	$810,349 55
On hand.....	166,523 04	On hand	205,958 61

By the law of 1863, the Governor was authorized to contract a loan for war purposes of not more than $350,000. Of this amount $220,000 was invested in the School Fund, which had received the money from lands. There remains $130,000 available for war purposes. The war fund showed receipts from all sources including State war tax, $272,156, $807,929 of which $604,999 was applied to Volunteer aid. The debt of the State is now $1,720,000, after deducting $50,000 redeemed in the past year. This debt is payable a portion every year up to 1894. Of the stock $1,340,900 is deposited for security of the Wisconsin bank circulation.

CONNECTICUT.

The taxable property of the State of Connecticut is as follows:

Counties.	Grand List.	Tax at 2 mills.	Military Commutation Tax at $1.
Hartford ..:.....	$54,880,520	$109,761 04	$4,142 00
New Haven.....	54,890,074	103,241 73	3,098.75
New London.....	32,430,455	64,860 91	2,581 00
Fairfield.....	42,402,840	84,805 68	3,246 00
Windham	14,225,520	28,451 04	1,408 00
Litchfield.....	24,804,060	48,135 65	2,599 00
Middlesex	14,762,995	29,525 99	1,488 00
Tolland	8,669,346	17,338 70	1,375 00
	$247,065,810	$485,120 74	$19,937 75

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THE MONTAÑA OF THE ANDES.

BY DR. J. HUNTINGTON LYMAN, NORTHAMPTON, MASS., LATE SECRETARY OF THE U. S. COMMISSION TO PERU.

On the eastern slope of the Andes there is a region of which little has yet been written. Few travelers have visited it for the purpose of discovery and making known its wealth and commercial advantages.

The Government of Peru, since it has assumed a paternal and national character, as compared with its former selfish individualism, has within a short period instituted various exploring expeditions for ascertaining the nature of the climate, resources and best mode of development of the region referred to. It has sent out scientific and practical men in different directions, who are still engaged in the work. It also has in its employ intelligent engineers from the United States and Europe surveying routes for a railway across the Andes.

The men now at the head of public affairs have the wisdom to understand that the guano deposits from which the revenue of Peru is chiefly derived cannot last twenty-five years longer at the current rate of exportation, and are consequently aware of the necessity of providing for some more permanent source of income for the support of the national government. They are intelligent, patriotic men, and are sincerely desirous of benefitting their country. The reports they have received from the various exploring expeditions sent out by them, and from the prefects and other officers of the Government in the departments and villages of the *interior*, have conclusively shown that the future wealth and revenue of Peru will be found mostly there. They are at work in a practical way, developing that country by offering inducements to emigrants, granting to them special privileges, by opening wagon roads, as well as in the survey of routes preparatory to the building of railways, and also by persevering efforts to procure the opening of the Amazon by Brazil to the commerce of the world.

In this paper we propose briefly to notice the present resources of Peru, as developed on the coast, and also the character of that extensive region on the eastern slope of the Andes known as the *Montana*;* in order to direct public attention, not only to the great excess of its territory on that side of the mountains, but also to the unexampled profusion of the mineral and vegetable wealth of that section, its excellent climate, its perennial summer, and its navigable rivers opening the country in every direction, and affording easy transportation to the United States by the Amazon and the Atlantic.

The Republic of Peru is divided by the Cordilleras of the Andes into two portions. The *western* section is a narrow strip of land about twelve hundred miles long, and from ten to forty miles wide, from the sea to the base of the Andes, which rise abruptly into the region of perpetual snow.

On this portion there is but little sign of vegetation, except where the land is irrigated by the few small streams formed from the melting snows in the high valleys of the mountains. In some few localities the soil re-

* Pronounced *Montanyah*.

quires only moisture to yield large returns. By means of canals the Incas secured abundant harvests; but without irrigation there is scarcely any evidence of vegetable life.

There are, however, extensive and valuable saline deposits, principally nitrate and borate of soda, and also the muriate. In fact the surface soil on many portions of the coast is so impregnated with nitrous and other salts, as to forbid all attempts at cultivation.

Some of the saline deposits are so peculiar in their character as to offer an interesting subject for scientific investigation.

Common table salt is very abundant. It is somewhat impure, but is freely used by the natives for culinary purposes. In one place this formation is very curious. It is on a shallow lake, of about one foot in depth, of intensely salt water, the surface of which is covered with an incrustation some ten inches thick, appearing like a pond frozen over. The salt is sawed out in blocks nearly a foot square, and removed, leaving the open water upon which another similar incrustation soon forms. These blocks are found for sale in the grocery shops of Lima and other towns.

But of all the saline formations of Peru, none equal in extent or probable value those of the province of Tarapaca, consisting of the nitrate and borate of soda. Not even the guano deposits can compare in value with these last; for the guano will soon be exhausted, but these promise a perpetual revenue to the government, limited only because the demand will not probably equal the supply.

These deposits of soda, principally nitrate, extend over an area of one hundred and fifty square miles, in the desert of Tarapaca, and are found several feet in thickness—so thick and solid that they are sometimes broken up by blasting.

Both the nitrate and borate of soda are becoming valuable articles of commerce, but in view of their abundance, it is fortunate for the best interests of Peru that they are not so immediately valuable in agriculture as the guano. If they were as available as the last, they might prove to be anything but a blessing to the nation, for such immense wealth ready for use, with scarcely any labor necessary for its production, as is the case with the guano, would, as all experience shows, tend to a speedy enervation of both government and people. The guano, however, is fast disappearing, and does not enter into any calculation of future permanent revenue.

The principal source of durable wealth of a nation must be found in agriculture. In Peru this cannot be carried on profitably, in its western division for reasons above given. As the mineral resources of Peru are found in the Andes and Eastern divisions, we will not speak of them here.

We have referred to the speedy removal of the guano deposits. There are only about ten or twelve millions of tons of *pure* guano remaining on the Peruvian islands; which is being exported now at the rate of nearly four hundred thousand tons per annum, with a rapidly increasing demand; and as, thus far, none equally good has been found elsewhere to any amount, it is evident that it will probably soon disappear.

The birds which are mainly the producers of this article, are no longer left undisturbed by man, and there can be no hope of any additional accumulations, in quantity sufficiently abundant to stimulate the enterprise of men in search of it.

The principal deposits are on the Chinchas and Lobos islands. There is one small island called "Macabi" in latitude 7° 50′ south, which presents the appearance of a haycock. It is a table of granite, about one thousand feet in diameter, and elevated fifty feet above the sea. Upon this table rests a conical mound of pure, hard, almost crystalline guano, with its apex one hundred and fifty feet above the rock. An American Engineer, in the service of the Peruvian Government, lately sunk a shaft into the top of this mound to measure the deposit. At the depth of *one hundred feet* the auger was very much clogged by the *hair of seals.* After boring one hundred and thirty feet the instrument broke. Marine animals, like the seals, instinctively climb upon the rocks to die, and all these guano islands show that the remains of such animals enter largely into the composition of the deposit. On this island of Macabi it is estimated that there are at least seven hundred and fifty thousand tons of pure guano.

The preservation of the saline and guano deposits of the coast land and islands of Peru through many ages to the present time is owing to the fact that it *never rains* there. No drenching, wearing rain ever falls, nothing at the most beyond occasional and very slight showers; nor are the dews sufficiently penetrating to encourage vegetable growth.

The oldest buildings in Lima—the Cathedral, for instance, which is nearly three hundred years old—constructed as they are of sun-burnt bricks—common dry mud—show conclusively that there is not sufficient moisture in the atmosphere to wash or wear away the material of which the buildings are made.

It is very singular that it never rains on the coast of Peru, when the coast of Chili having in part the same lineal direction, and sea winds from nearly the same quarter, is comparatively fertile, as is also the coast of Ecuador on the north. In each of these three countries the Andes are about equally distant from the sea.

Why should the coast of Peru, having the same physical features with the other two Republics, and a shore line generally more favorable for receiving the moist southerly winds of the Pacific, be a barren, rainless land, while they are well watered and fertile?

The prevailing winds from the Pacific blow along the coast of South America in a northerly direction, with sufficient easterly trend to bring over the land the moisture evaporated from the sea, which is precipitated in heavy fertilizing showers upon the coast land of Chili and Ecuador, but refuses any of its blessings to the *intermediate* coast land of Peru.

An intelligent Peruvian officer, Senor Raimondy, now engaged in exploring the Montana, alluding to the above singular fact in one of his reports to the Government, says: "No one has referred to the influence which the nature of the soil on the coast of Peru may have in causing the absence of rain in that region. The coast of Peru appears to have been recently lifted from the ocean, covered with a thick coat of sand in its whole length and breadth, extending even far up on the sides of the hills, which skirt the western base of the Andes, where are found shells like those now gathered on the neighboring shore. This sandy coast, being under the direct solar rays, attracts a large amount of caloric—so much so as to cause an upward current of hot air, which, coming in contact with the moist winds blowing over the land from the sea, prevents their condensation, and disperses them into the more elevated regions of the atmosphere, where the

moisture is precipitated in snow and hail upon the lofty summits of the Cordilleras."

Humboldt alludes to this upward current, but neither he nor Raimondy accounts for the bulk of the moisture brought in from the sea; a portion of which does fall in snow; but if all were deposited upon the sides of the Cordilleras, the immense volume would give origin to larger and more numerous rivers than actually exist.

Assuming the above explanation to be correct, we may perhaps account for the disappearance of the chief portion of the moisture, on the supposition that, as the clouds reach the crests of the Cordilleras, they come in contact with upper currents which have a westerly direction, and are thus carried back upon the Pacific; for the south-east and north-east trade winds of the Atlantic, which so bountifully supply the greater part of South America east of the Andes, impinge with considerable force upon the eastern slope of the Cordilleras, and are in part deflected upwards, and, thus clearing the summits of the mountains, proceed westward to the Pacific, carrying the ascending coast winds of Peru with them.

Whatever the true theory may be, the fact that the sea-coast of Peru is a barren, rainless land will probably always hold good; while, in striking contrast, the coast north and south of it is clothed with a luxuriant vegetation. As Peru is deprived of rain on its western division, Providence has endowed that portion of the country with the valuable saline deposits, rare in kind and abundant in quantity, to which we have already referred.

Let us now look at the eastern division—"The Montana" so-called—where everything is the reverse of what we have thus far seen. This division has the form of a triangle, with its base resting for six hundred miles, upon the Amazon river, and its apex extending to Bolivia, six hundred miles south. Its eastern boundary is the river Yavari, a fine, large, navigable stream, flowing north, and emptying into the Amazon near the town of Tabatinga, on the north-west corner of Brazil, where the Amazon is nearly two miles wide, and a hundred feet deep. The Cordilleras of the Andes constitute the western boundary.

This section of the country is opened through its centre from South to North by the Ucayali river, which is one of the principal sources of the Amazon, uniting with it twenty-three hundred miles from the Atlantic, and navigable for vessels of two hundred tons, for more than three hundred miles from its mouth, near the flourishing town of Nauta, which contains upwards of three thousand inhabitants. It is a wide, deep, gently flowing stream, with branches on each side practicable for smaller vessels, thus rendering every part of the country accessible to commercial enterprise. For steamers of light draft, it is reported to be navigable to within a short distance from Cuzco, or a thousand miles from its mouth. By one of its branches access can be had, it is said, to a point not far from the large town of Ayacucho. Two hundred miles up the river is the town of Sarayacu, in which is a population of a thousand souls. Both this town and Nauta—where the Amazon is three miles wide—are promising centres for future commerce.

The Pachitea, a branch of the Ucayali, was explored last summer—the dry season—and found to be navigable for vessels drawing four feet of water to Mairo, which is near the fine city of Huanuco, in the very heart of the land, in the same valley with the ancient mining town of Pasco, and

not far from one of the proposed termini of the railway now being surveyed from Lima. All those points can be easily connected by railroad with that terminus, as the grade will be very light.

This eastern division of Peru contains more than three quarters of the area of the entire republic. There is but little, if any, unavailable land, except high up on the mountains, which on the other hand are so rich in mineral wealth as abundantly to compensate for their lack of fertility. While the whole of this immense country is replete with agricultural and mineral resources, the preference is perhaps to be given to that portion lying between the Ucayali on the east and the Cordilleras on the west, extending from the Amazon to Bolivia. This strip of territory is *especially* known as the Montana of Peru. The entire Montana of the *Andes*, including that of Bolivia, is about a thousand miles in length, with a population of more than a million of inhabitants. This word "Montana" is familiar to Spanish Americans, and associated in their minds with the idea of all that is desirable in the vegetable kingdom. It does not signify *mountainous*. It is derived from the Spanish word *monte*, meaning *bush*, a clump of trees or bushes; and as applied throughout the western coast of South America, it denotes a country of forests and bushes, of rolling lands and plains, including particularly the fertile slopes of the Andean ranges. The Cordilleras, from Ecuador in the North to the Southern border of Bolivia, decline gently and irregularly to the eastward. The width of this slope, from the upper part of the range where fertility begins, to its easterly edge where the rolling lands disappear in the vast plains beyond the Ucayali, is about a hundred miles.

The *Bolivian* Montana is, in all probability, easily accessible by the Purus river, which, so far as explored, is found to be broad, deep, and free from rapids. There is little reason to doubt that such are its characteristics throughout its whole length, as it traverses the great plains west of the Brazilian mountains. If the navigability of this river is established, it will open the rich Montana of Northern Bolivia, as well as the opulent department of Cuzco, in Peru, to steamers from the Atlantic. By the Purus the route to the ocean would be almost in a straight line from south-eastern Peru, a much shorter distance than by the Ucayali. This splendid Montana of Bolinia is, without doubt, also accessible by large steamboats through the *Madeira* river, which unites with the Amazon one thousand miles from Para, and not far below the thriving town of Barra, which contains about five thousand souls. The Madeia is a noble stream, entirely unobstructed for five hundred miles. In latitute ten degrees south, spurs from the Brazilian mountains interrupt its flow. Were a canal made around the falls, there would be opened an additional five hundred miles of good navigation; in fact, vessels from the Atlantic could penetrate to the very heart of Bolivia.

As the Montana of the Andes, both in Peru and Bolivia, is undoubtedly penetrated by rivers that are now navigable, or, if obstructed, can be opened without serious difficulty; and as both possess the same physical features, material wealth, pleasant, healthy climate, rich soil and perennial luxuriance; it may be well to speak of their commercial prospects and resources, as common to both.

The traveler already quoted, Senor Raimondy, who has made extensive explorations in the Montana under the authority of the Peruvian Government, speaking of the country, says: "No words can give an idea of the immense

variety of natural productions, and of the incessant activity of nature in unfolding her creations. In truth, throughout this region are united all the conditions most favorable for vegetable life; such as an atmosphere constantly charged with moisture, a temperature sufficiently elevated, and a rich virgin soil. In every direction there is presented to the eye an exuberance of life so great, that every material object seems to be animated."

Nearly all the tropical productions of the globe are found there. Chief among them are cotton, coffee, sugar-cane, rice, tobacco, cacao, indigo; with corn, barley and wheat on the uplands. The forests abound in the various dye-woods of commerce, in ebony and many other kinds of wood valuable for cabinet-work, the veneers from which present very beautiful combinations and contrasts of colors. Trees and shrubs, possessing medicinal and other desirable virtues, some of which are well known and appreciated by the civilized world,such as india-rubber, Peruvian bark, various balsams, as copaiva and tolu; gum copal, sarsaparilla, vanilla, and many more are there thrown together in the wildest profusion. Great quantities of honey and of clear white wax are found, and have already become important articles of traffic with Brazil. It seems as if nature had determined that all her agents should contribute to the varied wants of man, for among the fish of the rivers there is one kind called the Paichi, often ten feet in length, and weighing three hundred pounds, which is so important an article of trade with Brazil, that, in the proper season for taking it, the entire population inhabiting the banks of the Ucayali and the Huallaga enter upon the work of catching and salting it for the Brazilian market. Throughout the Cordilleras and their spurs are rich mines of gold, silver, iron, copper, tin, lead; also extensive fields of bituminous and anthracite coal, gypsum; fire-clay also for furnaces.

Cotton grows wild, and is both white and yellow, the latter variety resembling the Chinese cotton known as "Nankeen." The staple is finer than our ordinary production, and second only to the "Sea-Island." When cultivated the yield is very bountiful. There is also a species know as "hill-cotton," the product of a large *tree*, that bears it in great abundance. This is likewise of two colors, one yellowish, the other as white as snow. It has the softness and gloss of silk. Another production, called by the natives "vegetable wool," is yielded in large quantities by a variety of cactus. It is somewhat like the yellow cotton, but slightly crispy. Several heavy bales of this article were recently noticed by the writer on board of the steamer from Lima to Panama, on their way to England, to be experimented on by the cloth manufacturers.

The coffee-tree is indigenous in the Montana. When cultivated, it bears in three years, and each plant is calculated to produce a crop of at least a bushel of berries. Its quality and aroma are equal to those of the finest Mocha. Those who have drank coffee in Lima will testify to its delicious flavor.

The sugar-cane is evidently at home in that region. In our Southern States it must be replanted every two or three years; but there, when the cane is once set, it lasts for a generation. Within about six months from the planting, the canes are ready to be cut. They are large and more juicy than ours, and each plant yields from sixteen to twenty fully matured stalks.

Corn and rice mature in four months, and on the ingathering of the crop the ground is at once ready for another planting. "In fact the fertility of

the soil is so great," says a Peruvian officer long resident in Huanuco, "that it is only necessary to burn off the weeds and brush in any place, and then to scratch in the seed, to receive in due time a most abundant harvest."

The quality of tobacco is said to be equal to the best of Cuba, and is held in high estimation on the coast; but, like all other productions of the Montana, the article is expensive there, owing to the difficulty of the transportation across the Cordilleras, which railways will remove.

For the common people of tropical America, farina and bananas are the main reliance for food, and are as important to them as rice to the natives of India. The banana is every where abundant, and of many delicious varieties. "Clusters of monstrous size" are sometimes gathered, in one instance "weighing *a hundred and fifty-nine pounds*"! The "farinha" of Brazil is prepared from the root of the *Jatropha manihot;* while the farina of the Montana is manufactured from another species of the *manihot*, known in Spanish America as the *yuca*, which when boiled is very pleasant and nutritious. It is to the natives as valuable as the potato is to the Irishman, and far more sure of growth and abundant yield. They esteem this root very highly, also, for the fermented beverage they make from it which they call *masato.*

The inhabitants of the Montana are principally descendants of the tribes subject to the Incas. They are somewhat civilized, and nominally Christian, and are to be found chiefly in the smaller villages. They are an indolent people, of few and simple wants. The inhabitants of the cities and large towns are generally the progeny of Spanish and Indian parents. A few whites are scattered among them, who have no Indian blood. These latter *mixed* races are at present the only enterprising portion of the population. They need the opening of the country to stimulate them to useful industry. On the eastern side of Ucayali are some small tribes of wild Indians, not exceeding five thousand in number, who must disappear before the advance of civilization. It is said that there are many negroes among them, fugitives probably from Brazil.

The climate of this region is generally pleasant and healthy. Although it lies within the tropics, and is covered with luxuriant vegetation, and has a moist atmosphere—conditions usually regarded inconsistent with salubrity—yet it is not considered unhealthy, these facts notwithstanding. In this respect it differs from many localities along the banks of the large rivers in the interior of South America, as, for example, the Orinoco and the Rio Negro. In the lowland of the extensive Pampas, the great rivers overflow their banks in the rainy season, and the stagnant water left by the freshets is a fruitful source of febrile disorders among the residents; although travelers passing through are not ordinarily affected. In the Montana the surface is more rolling than level, the drainage is good, the rivers have a current of about three miles to the hour, and except near their junction with the Amazon, there is but little overflow. Another reason for the general salubity of this region is to be found in the strong winds which ordinarily prevail in the middle of the day. The uniform testimony of those long resident there is that the climate, though warm and moist, is healthy and agreeable, and that no serious endemical diseases prevail.

A brief description of the environs of the city of Huanuco may convey some idea of the general aspect of the country we have been considering. The city itself is in latitude ten degrees south, and contains a population

of about eight thousand. It stands on the bank of the Huallaga, one of the principal sources of the Amazon. In front of the city is a beautiful wide valley, every where dotted with flourishing plantations of sugar-cane, cotton, coffee and tobacco. On the neighboring upland are fields of wheat, barley and maize; or, where these are not cultivated, are found large herds of cattle fattening on the rich pastures of those slopes. Grapes, oranges, citrons, nectarines, "avocado" pears, pomegranates, the refreshing "granadilla," which is the fruit of the passion-flower, and many other fruits are there; among which is the delicious chirimoya, which not unfrequently weighs fifteen or twenty pounds, while in other countries its weight rarely exceeds four pounds. This beautiful spot was one of the few places selected by the Incas for their own pleasure, and in it are found many ancient ruins. In the *Quichua*, or Inca language, it was called "*Huanucumi Pilcopac*," *i. e.*, "*I die* for Huanuco." There is a species of hawk in that locality, which is called *Pilco*. Its plumage is jet black, with a scarlet crown of feathers on its head. It feeds upon reptiles, some of which are poisonous; and, when bitten, is said to fly to a certain bush called *Huaco*, the leaves of which it eats, and remains unharmed. Its note has the sound of the word "*pilco-huaco*," from which both the bird and the plant derive their name. A decoction of the leaves of the plant is esteemed very highly by the inhabitants of the Mantana as a cure for acute rheumatism, and an antidote for venemous bites. The bird was the emblem of the Inca sovereignty, and is found on old Peruvian paintings.

The Incas fully appreciated the beauty and value of the Montana, and caused roads to be made through it in different directions. There is an old road leading from the village of Ambo to the city of Huanuco, a distance of fifteen miles. It is a broad, level highway, bordered by a dense thicket of fine large trees, intermingled with the richest profusion of tropical shrubbery. Beautiful vines twine among the branches, or hang from tree to tree in graceful festoons or wreaths, shading the weary traveler from the mid-day sun, while his senses are regaled with luscious fruits, the sweet fragrance of flowers, and the enlivening songs of birds. Gorgeous butterflies flit about, rivalling the dazzling plumage of the humming-birds. To the Incas it was indeed a fairy land, and no wonder they longed to return to it, when absent on their expenitions to the dreary sea-coast, or upon the cold *Punos*, or table-lands of the Cordilleras.

Throughout the length of the Montana, on its western border, are found many large thriving towns, from which good roads are built, or can be made with no insurmountable grades, to points for steamboat landings on the Ucayali, Purus and Madeira, and their navigable branches, to which points communication will yet be opened, with ramifications in every direction for gathering up the precious and useful products of the land, to be exchanged for the various articles of American manufacture so highly prized there. Our Yankee commercial enterprise is ever ready to engage in any paying adventure, and the moment that restrictions upon foreign commerce are removed by Brazil, and the accessibility of those regions by means of navigable rivers is demonstrated, our merchants will exchange commodities with the inhabitants to an extent that will prove highly satisfactory to both parties, and the wealth of the Montana will be poured out in ever-increasing abundance for the benefit of those who seek it.

Who shall estimate the importance to the world of the future cotton-fields of the Montana of the Andes, yielding as they will large and unfailing supplies of that indispensable commodity? The commerce of the world is yet in its infancy.

The question will now naturally arise, "How shall our country avail itself of this boundless wealth? Here is a country endowed by its Creator with inexhaustible resources for the benefit of mankind. He has furrowed it in every direction with large rivers to render it convenient of approach. There is no want of energy among our countrymen, and they need only the stimulus of prospective remuneration to induce them to enter on this profitable field. Every one remembers through what fearful perils and sufferings the earlier emigrants to California passed to reach that land of gold. Nothing but the discovery of the precious metal drew them thither. But the Providence, which designed to employ that new State for important ends, bearing on the welfare of Eastern Asia and the islands of the Pacific, concealed the mineral wealth of the land, until in the fullness of time its sovereignty had passed to the most enterprising of nations. Then the secret treasures were revealed, and immediately, in defiance of all dangers and hardships, the region was settled. So will it be with the Montana of the Andes. Not that the sovereignty of the land shall ever be wrested from its rightful owners; but as soon as Brazil shall consent, a *friendly* international commerce will spring up, to the advantage of all who engage it. The only difficulty in the way of entering at once on this new avenue of trade is the restriction which Brazil has placed on the navigation of the Amazon and its tributaries, which is at present forbidden to foreign vessels. It is believed that this obstacle can be easily removed by negotiation with the Brazilian Government; for the reigning Emperor is known to be a man of large national views, earnestly desirous to promote the rapid development of the resources of his Empire, in which work he will receive the ready and sympathizing co-operation of the new liberal Parliament, assembled in January of the present year. The Brazilians themselves are a very enterprising people, and are better disposed than ever before to enlarge their business intercourse with the United States—a feeling strongly confirmed by the recent exasperating conduct of England.

Such an opening of the numerous and noble rivers of South America, hitherto almost useless to the world, would practically bring to our doors the vast wealth of that continent. It would tend also to the rapid elevation of its great States, Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador and Brazil. Should our countrymen become the pioneers in this enterprise, this would give us that advantage over Europe in international influence and importance to which we regard ourselves entitled, and of which, when once fully established, we shall probably never be deprived. It may come to pass that the much-vexed Monroe Doctrine may yet receive its practical solution in *the Montana of the Andes.*

THE COTTON MANUFACTURE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

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[Prepared from a Paper read before the Statistical Society of London.]

No district of the United Kingdom exhibits more conspicuously the great phenomena of British industry, or the great secret of British wealth, than that which has become, alas, so prominent for its sufferings and privations. The theme suggested by this great hive of industry, may indeed engage our deepest thought and reflection. There coal and iron supersede turf and corn, which render the aspect of the country as dingy as the entrance of Hades. Illumined factories with more windows than Italian palaces, and smoking chimneys taller than Egyptian obelisks constitute the glories of the district. Everywhere you find monuments of indomitable energy. All you see indicates the march of modern progress. Enter for a moment one of those numerous factories; behold the ranks of thousand operatives all steadily working; behold how every minute of time, every yard of space, every practised eye, every dexterous finger, every inventive mind, is at high-pressure service. There are no lumber attics nor lumber cellars; everything is cut out for its work and the work for it, And what could be more wonderful than those factories for the manufacture of machines. Listen to the deafening din. What power has mind over matter! What metamorphosis can human industry perform; and how much has this mighty agent changed the entire character of Lancashire. See how thickly it is filled with cities and towns. In Northumberland there are 208,000 square miles for each town. In Lancashire only 26,000. And how close the inhabitants. In Westmorland there are 19 square miles for each inhabitant. In Lancashire 0.97 only. One hundred years ago Manchester had only 1,600 inhabitants; now with Salford she has more than 450,000 people.* Three hundred years ago Liverpool was only a fishing hamlet with 138 inhabitants; now she has also 450,000. The entire county of Lancashire, in 1692, was returned for the land tax at a value of £97,000; in 1860 she was assessed to the property tax at a value

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* The increase of population in the county of Lancaster was strikingly demonstrated in the last census for 1861. Except in the two mining counties of Durham and Monmouthshire, where the increase has been even greater, the rate of increase in Lancashire during the last sixty years has been larger than in any other county in England.

Years.	Population.	Percentage increase between the Censuses.
1801	673,486	—
1811	829,499	22
1821	1,052,948	27
1831	1,330,854	27
1841	1,667,054	24
1851	2,031,236	22
1861	2,429,440	20
Total increase in 60 years,	....	261

of £11,500,000. Whence this magic increase? Principally from the cotton trade and manufacture.

It is in Manchester, too, that the steam Hercules whose power dwarfs the fabled feats of the Grecian prodigy, first exhibited his youthful strength, grew up in vigor and skill, and still manifests his gigantic maturity. This system of industry is comparatively of modern creation—history throws but little light upon its nature, for it has scarcely begun to recognize its existence; and the philosophy of the schools supplies scarcely any help for estimating its results, because an innovating power of such immense force could never have been anticipated. The steam-engine had no precedent, the tall and ever-smoking chimneys had no parallel in times past, the spinning jenny is without ancestry, and the mule and power-loom entered in no recognised heritage. There they are even in their present temporary prostration—an overflowing stream of opulence and power, a wonder to ourselves, and to the world.

Cotton * is not a new article. All warm climates, within a limited zone, especially those in the vicinity of the sea, produce cotton. From time immemorial cotton has been grown in Hindoostan, China, Persia, Egypt, Candia, and Sicily, and when South America was discovered, the natives were found growing cotton. Yet, as it has been well said, cotton could only become an

Counties.	Rate of Increase in 60 Years.	Counties.	Rate of Increase in 60 Years.	Counties.	Rate of Increase in 60 Years.
Stafford	208	Worcester	110	Huntingdon	71
Surrey	210	Nottingham	109	Somerset	63
Middlesex	170	Northumberland	104	Berkshire	60
Warwick	172	Lincoln	98	Norfolk	59
Cheshire	163	Gloucester	94	Suffolk	57
West Riding, Yorkshire,	164	Cornwall	92	Oxford	52
		Cumberland	99	Buckingham	55
City of York	140	Leicester	83	North Riding, York	54
Kent	138	Essex	78		
Sussex	128	Hertford	78	Westmorland	49
Southampton	120	Cumberland	75	Salop	42
East Riding, York	116	Devonshire	72	Hereford	40
Bedford	113	Northampton	73	Rutland	34
Derby	110	Dorset	65	Wilts	36

* The vegetable which we now call cotton passed under different names in different times and countries. The term Carbasus, Carbasum, or Καρπασον, was used by ancient authors to signify cotton. It is so used in the Scripture. The word carpas in Esther i., 6, though translated in the common version for "green," means really cotton. In the Vulgate translation, we have "et carbasini ac hyacinthini." In Revelations xviii, 12, the word Βυσσος, mentioned as one of the wares of Babylon, may mean cotton. But after the fourth century, cotton was known by various names which had not been before in use. Probably gossypium was one of these; another name was Lana Xylena, meaning literally tree wool, the plants which produced it being called wool trees. Another set of names probably arose from a misapplication of the name of the silk-worm. These were bambacinus, made of cotton; bambacenium, cotton cloth; bambacarius, a dealer in cotton cloth; and in Italian, bambagino, and bambasino. For further researches on the introduction of cotton, see "Textrinum Antiquorum, an Account of the Art of Weaving among the Ancients," by James Yates, F. R. S.

article of trade to those nations which were able, by their industries, to manufacture it into beautiful and durable material, at moderate prices. The manufacture of vegetable substances, combining flexibility and strength, must be of very early date, and to the inhabitants of the temperate and tropic zones especially, the great weight and toughness of skins, must have made patent the advantage of any material which could be made of the necessary strength, and at the same time light and flexible. In ancient times India furnished Europe with her muslins, so called from Mosul, in Mesopotamia. The Assyrian merchants brought such cotton manufactures into Europe, together with their silks from China, their carpets from Persia, and their spices from the East. Herodotus, writing in the year 445 before the Christian era, said of the Indi, "the wild trees bear fleeces for their fruit, surpassing those of the sheep in beauty and excellence, and the natives clothe themselves in cloths made therefrom." From India the manufacture reached Persia, thence it was imported into Egypt, and the eight century saw its introduction into Europe.

In England for a long time the consumption of cotton was confined to small quantities, principally for candlewicks, and nearly the whole of the cotton fabrics consumed was imported from the Continent. Though as far back as 1328 the Flemings settling in Manchester laid the basis of the British wool manufacture, in the manufacture of what were called Manchester cottons, it was not till the middle of the seventeenth century that cotton-woollens, fustians, dimities, and other articles were exported to the Continent. But as late as the accession of George III., no fabric consisting entirely of cotton was made, and it was only by the operation of those wonderful inventions which suddenly performed so great a revolution, that cotton acquired the present prominent position as an article of trade in this country. What these inventions were every one well knows: yet there is great interest in recalling those feats of genius which now and then ennoble our common humanity.

Spinning by the spindle and distaff is a very old industry, and in times not far distant, was considered one of the accomplishments of a good wife. "She layeth her hands to the spindle, and her hands hold the distaff," is the saying of the Book of Proverbs. Minerva, as the instructress of man in the useful arts, is fabled as the author of a distaff and spindle; hence, as Apollodorus informs us the Palladium held in its right hand a spear, and a distaff and spindle in the left. It was the custom among the Romans to carry before the bride a distaff charged with flax, and a spindle likewise furnished. In Greece, when the bride was introduced to her new home, she brought with her a distaff and spindle, and hung her husband's door with woollen yarn; and in England spinning on the distaff continued long to be the honored occupation of women.* In process of time the distaff was laid aside for the spinning wheel invented by Jurgen, a citizen of Brunswick, in 1530, though some say that it was known long before him. But though by the spinning wheel there were formed the thick loose cord called a roving, and the fine thread or yarn, this invention was not attended

* See an able paper on the Distaff and the Spindle, or the Insignia of the Female Sex in Former Times, by John Yonge Akerman, F. S. A., "Archeologia, or Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity," published by the Society of Antiquaries, vol. xxxvii, p. 83.

with great results, because the spinner could only produce one thread at a time, and a man employed eight hours a day could only spin three-quarters of a pound of yarn. The first substantial improvement was therefore a machine for spinning by rollers, which forms the basis of all the spinning machinery in our factories at the present time, invented by Wyatt, but for which a patent was taken by Lewis Paul, a foreigner; but even that led to no immediate results, as it was scarcely understood at the time. Then came the invention of the fly shuttle and the picking peg, which enabled one man, unaided, to weave double the quantity he had theretofore done; and in 1753 Mr. Lawrence Earnshaw invented a spinning machine and cotton reel, but which he himself destroyed, on the plea that it would be the ruin of the working-classes. Although these and other minor improvements were for the time barren of results, and were far from proving lucrative to the inventors themselves, they prepared the mind of the people for further changes, and suggested those ideas which eventually ended in totally superseding manual labor in the cotton industry.

Ten years after this a reed maker of Leigh, a certain Thomas Wright, found out the principle of the spinning jenny, or a machine by which the spinner was enabled to produce several threads in one operation, and in the following year, in 1764, James Hargreaves gave reality to such a machine, and patented it. For this, however, he was attacked by a mob of the working people, who broke into his house and destroyed the jenny. Great as was the improvement introduced by the spinning jenny, it still left the process of spinning in a very unsatisfactory state, the cotton not being sufficiently even, firm, or strong for use, as the warp or longitudinal thread of a web. To supply this want, linen yarn was used for the warp, but the mixture of two different materials made the article too costly, and, moreover, unfit for calico printing. Such was the condition of the cotton manufacture in England when Arkwright invented the water frame, How far he may have profited of the earlier invention of Lewis Paul, of elongating cotton by rollers in the spinning operation, we know not; but what if he did? The law of continuity, or rather of gradual progress, says Lord Brougham, governs all human approaches towards perfection. The limited nature of man's faculties precludes the possibility of his ever reaching at once the utmost excellence of which they are capable. Survey the whole circle of the sciences, and trace the history of our progress in each, you will find this to be the universal rule. Think not that Black and Priestly, Bacon and Adam, Smith, Cuvier, and Watt were respectively the unaided discoverers of the theory of latent heat, and of aeriform fluids, of the inductive system, of economic science, of fossil osteology, and of the power of steam. Even Newton, though far in advance of all others in mathematical and in experimental science, was preceded by Cavalleri, Roberval, Fermat, and Schooten, who came as near as possible to the discovery of the differential calculus. Very romantic is the story of Sir Richard Arkwright. Fancy a barber, famous only for his processes for dyeing hair, becoming the founder of the great cotton manufacture. Even after the fruitful idea entered his mind, he could not appear at an election in Preston for want of a suit of clothing. Arkwright's water frame, while drawing out the carding or rolling, gave to it the twist and pressure necesary to produce the hardness and firmness which fitted it so admirably to the purposes of the warp; and it was at the same time capable of producing, in equal vast quantities, yarns

of finer quality. The effect of these inventions was, as already noticed, a total revolution in the character and operation of the spinners. Thenceforth spinning ceased to be a domestic manufacture, and became the product of mechanical ingenuity, and with it rose also the wonderful factory system, which, with its attendant advantages, economy of power, division of labor, and concentration of skill and superintendence, contributed so much to the extension of the cotton manufacture and the accumulation of wealth. Other inventions followed each other afterwards with great rapidity. To Crompton of Bolton, we owe the mule jenny, which, by uniting the rollers of the water frame with the advancing and receding carriage of the jenny, effected the attenuation and spinning of cotton to a degree of fineness that neither of the other two machines could approach. To Cartwright we owe the power-loom, a machine for weaving by automatic power; and to Peel we owe the introduction of calico printing. But we should ill appreciate the value of these and other kindred inventions, if we did not take them in connection with Watt's great discoveries of the use and application of steam power, and with the improvements made in inland navigation by the opening of the Bridgewater canal.

And to what use would have been this great development of the cotton manufacture, had not a corresponding increase taken place in the production of cotton wool? Hitherto the importation of cotton to this country had been very limited. In 1764 we imported scarcely 4,000,000 lbs., and even in 1785, after Arkwright's patent had expired, we imported only 18,000,000 lbs. of cotton. By this time, however, the seed had been transported to the United States, and very soon after a complete change took place in the capability of that country ior producing cotton, by the invention of Mr. Whitney's machine to separate cotton from the seed. This machine did for the planters of the American States what the genius of Arkwright and Watt did for the cotton manufacture in England; and it is to this machine that we owe the gigantic expansion of the cotton trade. Previous to 1790 the United States did not export a single pound of cotton. Whitney's invention came into operation in 1793, and in 1794 1,600,000 lbs. were suddenly exported. In 1791 America grew only $\frac{1}{245}$th of the produce offered in the markets of the whole world; in 1845, more than seven-eights of the cotton produced in the world was in the United States of America; and in 1861 they gave upwards of one thousand millions of pounds. And as the production increased, so the consumption increased immensely. Little by little has this interest acquired gigantic proportions. Farther and farther has the use of cotton been extended, and by degrees it has nearly distanced all other branches of British industry.

Of 6,300 factories in the United Kingdom, nearly the half of them are for cotton. Of 36,500,000 spindles, 30,000,000 are for cotton. Of 490,000 power-looms, 399,000 are of cotton. Of 779,000 persons employed in factories, 450,000 are employed in cotton. And as compared with foreign countries, whilst we have 30,000,000 spindles, France has 4,000,000 spindles, Russia 2,000,000, Germany 2,000,000, Austria 1,500,000, Switzerland 1,300,000, Italy 500,000, Belgium 500,000, and Spain 300,000. The proportion of the cotton trade to the general trade of this country is very large. Of £377,000,000, which constitutes the value of the total trade of the United Kingdom, £94,000,000, or 25 per cent, is the value of the imports and exports of cotton.

RELATION OF THE VALUE OF COTTON MANUFACTURE AND YARN EXPORTED, TO THE TOTAL EXPORTS OF BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE.

Years.	Value of Cotton Manufactures and Yarns Exported.	Total Value.	Percentage.
1820–24	£19,922,000	£36,782,000	46
1825–29	16,974,000	36,050,000	47
1830–34	18,417,000	38,641,000	47
1835–39	23,211,000	45,250,000	51
1840–44	23,806,000	52,176,000	45
1845–49	24,902,000	58,637,000	42
1850–54	30,485,000	84,002,000	35
1855–59	40,658,000	116,120,000	41
1860	52,012,000	135,891,000	38
1861	46,837,000	125,115,000	37

RELATION OF THE VALUE OF RAW COTTON TO THE TOTAL VALUE OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDIZE EXPORTED.

Years.	Value of Raw Cotton.	Total Value.	Percentage.
1854	£2,302,000	£18,636,000	12
1855	2,475,000	21,003,000	11
1856	3,346,000	23,393,000	14
1857	3,431,000	24,108,000	14
1858	3,955,000	23,174,000	17
1859	4,218,000	28,281,000	14
1860	5,388,000	28,630,000	19
1861	8,578,000	35,694,000	24

And of £217,000,000, the total value of our imports, £39,000,000 was the value of cotton.

RELATION OF THE VALUE OF RAW COTTON IMPORTED TO THE TOTAL IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Years.	Value of Cotton (Raw) Imported.	Value of Total Imports.	Percentage.
1854	£20,175,000	£152,389,000	13
1855	20,849,000	143,543,000	14
1856	26,448,000	172,544,000	15
1857	29,289,000	187,844,000	15
1858	30,107,000	164,584,000	18
1859	34,560,000	179,182,000	18
1860	35,757,000	210,531,000	17
1861	38,653,000	217,352,000	18
Total imports,....	£38,653,000	£217,352,000	..
" exports, ...	55,415,000	160,809,000	..
	£94,068,000	£378,161,000	40

And who can tell the amount of the cotton manufacture consumed in this country. It probably amounts to £30,000,000 and more. Calculating the quantity imported reduced by the percentage of waste in the conversion into yarn; and then at so many yards of manufactured goods per pound,

with proper deduction for the export of yarn and manufacture, the consumption of cotton in this country may be set down 7½ lbs. per head. In France the consumption is probably 4 lbs. per head. In Germany and Austria 3 lbs. In Italy 2 lbs., and in Russia 1 lb.

But large as is the consumption of cotton in this country, we cannot say that it has displaced materially the consumption of wool, linen, or silk. If we import 1,200,000,000 lbs. of cotton, we also import 147,000,000 lbs. of wool, besides the large quantity produced in this country; 224,000,000 lbs. of flax and hemp; and 10,000,000 lbs. of silk. In describing the extent of our trade in cotton, I have not indicated the numerous trades ministering directly or indirectly to the prosecution of this branch of industry. The capital invested in this manufacture has been variously estimated, and may be set down at at least £100,000,000,* whilst the shipping required to carry the large quantity of cotton from the Atlantic and Eastern ports is not less than 1,000,000 tons.

The cotton manufacture has some specific localities in this country; chiefly in England; but partly in Scotland. Ireland has just a sprinkling of it. In England, Lancashire is the chief place, next Cheshire, and then Yorkshire and Derbyshire, with a little in Cumberland, Notts, Stafford, Gloucester, and Leicester. In Scotland, Lanarkshire is the chief place, and there is a little in Renfrewshire, Perth, Ayr, &c. Of 450,000 persons employed in this manufacture, 407,000 were in England and Wales, 40,000 in Scotland, and 3,000 in Ireland. The great cotton towns distinguished for their smoke, dirt, bustle, excitement, and dense population, are Manchester, Wigan, Bury, Bolton, Blackburn, Preston, Leigh, Oldham, Ashton-Staleybridge, Hyde, and Stockport. The following are the statistics of factories for textile fabrics, extracted from a return laid before Parliament in 1861:—

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* It is difficult to estimate the capital embarked in the cotton manufacture. In an article on the difficulties and dangers of the cotton trade, by Mr. Bazley, M.P., it is stated that the fixed investment, including land and water rights, may amount to £60,000,000, and that to work all these concerns and their ramifications, £20,000,000 more are needed, making in all £80,000,000. Besides this, he valued the mercantile and consumers' stock, in home and foreign markets, of cotton and auxiliary materials, and bankers' capital devoted to the manufacture, at £120,000,000, making the whole gross capital employed in it £200,000,000. This is certainly a large estimate. In the article in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," supposed to be by Mr. Bazley himself, the capital invested in this manufacture was estimated at £54,000,000. Mr. Redgrave, the factory inspector, in his paper on the Textile Fabrics, presented to the International Statistical Congress, computed the cost of building, steam-engines, machinery, &c., at £21,000,000, raw materials £8,000,000, wages £4,000,000, grease, oil, leather, £1,000,000, making in all £34,000,000; and if we take Mr. Ellison's estimate as given in Mr. Mann's work, of 23s. to 24s. per spindle, and £24 per loom, we shall have for 30,387,000 spindles and 399,992 power-looms, £45,000,000. Estimated floating capital and cash in the hands of bankers, £25,000,000; probable capital employed by manufacturers in subsequent processes of bleaching, dyeing, printing, £30,000,000; floating capital of importers of raw materials, shipowners, &c., £9,500,000; total, £110,000,000.

STATISTICS OF FACTORIES FOR TEXTILE FABRICS.

	Number of Factories.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Power-looms.	Number of Operatives.
ENGLAND—				
Lancaster	1,979	21,530,532	306,423	315,627
York	369	2,414,898	17,393	27,810
Chester	212	3,373,113	32,926	40,860
Derby	79	682,008	7,581	12,965
Cumberland	15	136,212	1,761	3,281
Middlesex	10	5,834	—	323
Stafford	8	81,116	694	1,982
Leicester	3	4,408	14	219
Nottingham	26	36,000	—	2,183
Flint	1	21,800	—	190
Suffolk	1	—	32	52
Warwick	7	—	186	445
Surrey	2	—	—	53
Gloucester	1	66,004	1,115	1,514
Norfolk	2	—	—	94
	2,715	28,351,925	368,125	407,598
SCOTLAND—				
Aberdeen	2	66,276	70	770
Bute	4	52,148	977	976
Dumbarton	4	75,296	246	758
Dumfries	1	16,308	—	112
Lanark	83	1,138,602	24,149	27,065
Linlithgow	1	19,800	—	121
Perth	3	57,796	552	1,069
Renfrew	32	408,742	2,968	8,749
Stirling	5	50,190	180	528
Ayr	3	30,240	968	1,089
	138	1,915,398	30,110	41,237
IRELAND—				
Antrim	3	72,884	200	639
Dublin	2	11,668	391	492
Londonderry	1	—	60	77
Tyrone	1	—	36	18
Waterford	1	30,292	940	1,412
Wexford	1	5,100	130	96
	9	119,944	1,757	2,734
Cotton Factories United Kingdom	2,887	30,387,267	399,992	451,569
Woollen Factories—				
Woollen	1,679	2,182,609	21,770	86,983
Worsted	532	1,289,172	43,048	86,063

	Number of Factories.	Number of Spindles.	Number of Power-looms.	Number of Operatives.
Flax	399	1,216,674	14,792	87,429
Hemp	5	2,580	1	607
Jute	36	32,982	554	5,967
Hosiery	69	—	—	4,487
Silk	771	1,338,544	10,709	52,429
	6,378	36,449,828	490,866	779,534

There is one important feature in the cotton industry which invests it with something more than simple commercial considerations, it is that cotton has greatly contributed to the spread of comfort and civilization among the masses of the people. Hitherto it has been the cheapest material for clothing ever produced. Even where the masses are yet sunk in the most abject condition, and in places not yet brightened by the light of civilization and Christianity, wherever, in fact, a cover is needed to shelter man, whether in frozen regions or in tropical climates, a cotton dress and a fustian jacket will ever find a hearty welcome. In a paper read by Mr. Ashworth before the Society of Arts, he compared cotton with wool and flax. One pound of wool for flannel cost 18d. per lb.; when manufactured into cloth it costs 3s. 1d. per lb.; 1 lb. of flax for shirting costs 10d. per lb., when manufactured it costs 2s. 4d.; but 1 lb. of cotton for shirting, which used to cost 6d. per lb., when manufactured costs only 1s. per lb. The materials for a full dress of outer garments, if composed of wool, would cost not less than 30s., whilst the same quantity of material of cotton, and of more durable quality, cost only 7s. 6d. to 10s. The labourer's wife was able to purchase from a draper a neat and good cotton print at 5d. per yard, and allowing seven yards to the dress, the material required only 2s. 11d. How much more is the cost of a woollen dress even of the lowest quality. This source of economy, which entirely depends now upon the cost of the materials, makes the question of cotton supply a consumer's question—a question in which all are interested.

And how extensive is our commerce in this article. It is an extraordinary fact that we are importing nearly 600,000 tons of cotton from a distance of four thousand miles, and even 13,000 miles; and after redistributing about 78,000 tons of it in an unmanufactured state, we convert the remainder into yarn and woven manufacture of all kinds at three times the original cost of the raw material when landed on our shores. Whilst the value of the raw cotton imported in usual years amounts to about £36,000,000 to £38,000,000, the value of the cotton manufactures exported, besides the entire quantity consumed in this country amounts to as much as £47,000,000 to £50,000,000. Our exports of cotton manufactures and yarns are enormous. We are sending abroad yearly some thousand millions of yards of calico printed and dyed; and we could not in our space give the quantities of other articles. With the general adoption of better principles of commercial policy, most nations have been reducing sensibly their duties on cotton manufactures and yarn. Even France, hitherto closed to British goods, has now been opened, and bids fair to become a most extensive field for commercial intercourse. How auspicious was it to have thus opened a new outlet for our industries just before the stream of prosperity ceased to flow towards the United States.

Some surprise, or rather fear, has been expressed in influential quarters

on seeing Russian and Swiss cotton yarn sold in the British market. Most likely it was sent to this country to take advantage of the high prices. Certainly the time has not come yet when these countries can produce more than they can consume themselves, or produce cotton yarn cheaper than British manufacturers. But can it be that a formidable competition is likely to be met with in future in this, we may say, the most indigenous of English manufactures? Nothing, certainly, hinders foreign manufacturers, with wealth at their command, from importing this exotic vegetable as we do; or India from consuming the article of her own growth; and manufacturing it to the highest perfection. Nor are they hindered from importing the best machinery ever invented, the most skilful engineers, the most skilled workmen. All is now free. This is no longer the age of mystery. No longer the age of artificial protection to national industry. And yet we anticipate that English manufacturers will always be able to face such competition, and permanently maintain the supremacy they have hitherto enjoyed. And why? It is because we must attach the greatest importance to our national character, to the strenuous energies of our manufacturers to overcome difficulties wherever they may present themselves, and, above all, to the moral worth and physical aptitude of our people to work hard and long. Whilst the present pre-eminence of Britain in wealth, with her command of the markets of the world, and her riches in coal and iron, which no nation can rob her of, and no free trade can communicate to others, will ever keep her at the head of the manufacturing countries of the world.

[Are not the latter portions of this article particularly suggestive to us as a nation? We are raising the raw materials in abundance. Cotton, wool, flax, in immense quantities, are at our very doors. The food to feed an army of operatives we also have; while the earth itself, almost, we might say, through the entire length and breadth of this favored land, holds inexhaustible treasures of coal and iron. What more do we need to make this country the centre of manufactures, if not for the world, certainly for this half of it. We can conceive of but one obstacle in our way—an indisposition on the part of Government and people to improve our communications with other countries, and thus open up new markets for our productions and manufactures. Great Britain has, by means of the steamship lines already established, obtained control of the markets of the world. This is what has enabled her, and still enables her, to defy competition. Professor LEVI tells us that he thinks English manufacturers will always be able to maintain the supremacy they have hitherto enjoyed because, among other things, of the physical aptitude of Englishmen to work hard and long. All the world will willingly bear testimony to the Englishman's energy and perseverance; but yet we think it will be as readily admitted that the American cousins have in no degree lost either of these characteristics, but have rather added to them unusual quickness and ingenuity. Only give us, therefore, steamship lines communicating with the countries of the world, and we believe the next quarter of a century will see a development in this country, in the direction of manufactures, unequalled in the history of the world.—ED. HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

STEAM ON THE PACIFIC OCEAN.

TRADE BETWEEN CHINA AND JAPAN.

H. B. A.

(Continued from page 175.)

THE harbor in China, to which a line of steamers would be directed from California, would soon be settled by the inducements offered in freights and central position. Hong Kong, Shanghai, and Chusan Island are the three which are the most obvious; all good harbors, and all possessing separate claims to the trade.

Hong Kong is the centre of British influence, a free port—the European center, as Shanghai is the Chinese center. Canton, which is commanded by Hong Kong, is fast dwindling in importance, and her tea trade is distributed between Foo Chow for the black teas, and Shanghai for the green. She retains the kind known as "Canton-made teas," and the trade in sweetmeats and knick-knacks so widely known abroad. Rice is another great staple, although more likely to be a ship, than a steamer, cargo. Hong Kong is also the center of the Chinese emigration; the people of the northern provinces not being so ready to leave home as the Cantonese and it is to Hong Kong that the Californian flour and specie must find their way. Moreover, the Chinese merchants in California, who are large freighters of every vessel, are generally Canton men, and their connections are naturally with that port. All these things tell powerfully in favor of Hong Hong.

The city of Shanghai, on the other hand, is the great emporium of the silk trade, the tea trade, and the cotton trade. Since the opening of the Yang-tze, the change in the direction of trade with China would be almost incredible, did we not know that it was a necessary result of the close of a policy which, by limiting intercourse to one city in the south, turned the whole course of trade many hundred miles out of its natural channels. The trade which centers in Shanghai is enormous, and it must increase with every year as the steamboats of the foreigners penetrate into the interior. We are just beginning to realize that *China is open*, and that the volume of trade resulting is not to be measured by the past. Shanghai, within five years, has become a noble city, almost European in its proportions, and commanding a trade with many millions of people in the interior of China a "back country" such as on sea-board city in the world can boast. Its position, in regard to the silk districts, makes it an important terminus for any line of steamers which could connect with the Panama route so as to lay the goods down in New York in sixty or seventy days, ensuring to such a line the entire silk freights to America at high rates. A ton of silk goods is worth from $10,000 to $15,000, and the saving in interest alone, to say nothing of insurance, would pay a heavy freight. At present a large proportion of the silk going to England, goes forward by the Peninsular and Oriental Line at the rate of £22 10s. per ton of 40 cubic feet, from Hong Kong to Southampton, with an additional charge for the eight hundred miles between Shanghai and Hong Kong. The delays of frequent transhipment and a heavy freight are borne rather than risk the delays and loss of interest of a voyage around the Cape. Notwithstanding these enormous freights

and their numerous steamers, the Peninsula and Oriental Company are unable to take all the goods offering, and written applications are made by the merchants some time in advance, on which proportional allotments are made by the agent, as the steamers are ready to load. This great steamship monopoly has become rich by its trade with the East, although requiring an immense capital and outlay. Its fifty pounds shares, on which thirty pounds only have been paid, stand at twenty per cent premium in the London Market. The freight and passage rates obtained by it are out of all proportion to the work done, and there is pressing call for greater accommodations and lower rates. Within a year the Messageries Imperiales de France, backed by the Imperial Government and a heavy capital to boot, with a large steam-fleet to which they are making yearly accessions has entered into a strenuous competition with the Peninsular and Oriental Company for a share of the traffic, but this has had no effect in reducing rates. Both Companies are likely to amass money without practically interfering with each other. There is ample room for others.

Shanghai, besides being the depot of the silk districts is the centre of the great trade of the Yang-tze, and through it will be distributed the bulk of the imports of China. It has communication with Hankow by steamers of fifteen hundred tons burthen, and for trade with the richest and most populous provinces of China its facilities are unsurpassed. It also draws considerable trade from Japan.

Chusan has been proposed as a fitting terminus for a line of steamers, on account of its central position, the fine harbor of Tinghae, and the theory which is very attractive to men who locate steamship lines by looking at the map, that its central position would command the trade of the China coast. They forget that a centre of trade is not merely a geographical centre, but one which possesses the greatest facilities of communication. New York would never be what she is but for her canal and railroads. Such theorists forget, also, that Europeans are not the only merchants in the Chinese Empire, and cannot dictate where business shall be done, for nature and chance have chosen certain spots for cities, and where the Chinese merchants are, the Europeans must arrange to meet them. Shanghai, from time immemorial, has been a great commercial depot of northern China, as Hanków is of central, and the island of Chusan has not. No doubt Tinghae has a very good harbor, although somewhat difficult for strangers from the perplexing labyrinth of islands, and Chusan island is a very pleasant and salubrious place for Europeans; if trade really centered there it would be an admirably central position. But trade tends to Shanghai as its centre, and the foreign merchants act accordingly.

A few years ago the citizens of Benicia thought, that, because, it was more accessible to the interior of California than San Francisco, it could be made the great commercial seaport of the State, while San Francisco would be what Gravesend is to London; whereas that former capital and present village is now a quiet workshop for the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, and a mooring place for their reserve steamers not wanted in the San Francisco trade.

The people of Chusan have greater comparative claims over Shanghai as far as geographical position is concerned, but the fact is that Shanghai, like San Francisco, has passed the doubtful age, when it was not quite

certain whether the great promise of the growing city would be fulfilled. This is seen in both instances by the price of real estate.

In regard to the pest of piracy which is the plague of the harbors of China, even Hong Kong, under the eye of Government, is not exempt. Chusan is one of the great cruising-grounds of the Ningpo pirates, as great scamps as there are in the world. The small islands give them shelter, and make it extremely difficult to abate the nuisance. Any disabled vessel would be sure to be captured. Only a few months ago they seized the house-boat of Dents & Co's branch at Ningpo, a foreign built boat of eighty tons, laden with opium and specie, and beat off a gun-boat sent to recover it. The Woosing river is tolerably free from pirates—thanks to the number of vessels passing up to Shanghai—but here, as in the other ports, it is bad enough, so that there is not much choice, as far as that is concerned. The only safety is in arms, and that is perfect, for a China pirate never attacks a boat stronger than his own, and rarely a foreign steamer.

And now having discussed the route, the ship and her ports, supposing that she sails from San Francisco via Honolulu, to Shanghai, and returns by way of Yokuhama, let us see whether a fair freight and passage list could be expected.

It is difficult to say in advance what class or amount of freight would offer at first. Silk goods might be relied on, but the quantity in the beginning would not be large. Fine teas to a certain amount would be sure to offer, and if it could be made clear that the first of the new crop could be landed in New York before the clippers could take it, at least one full cargo would be certain. The steamer "Bahama"—an auxiliary screw—obtained twelve pounds per ton from Foo-Chow to London, in May, in consideration of the chance of a few weeks earlier delivery, while ordinary freights were only four pounds, or thereabouts. She made the voyage in eighty days. A few months experience would show what amount and kind of freight would be obtained in China and Japan, and whatever it might be, the offerings would be very certain to increase with every voyage. It has been found by the experience of the screw line between Liverpool and New York, that with regularity, heavy freights which no one dreamed of sending by steamer before, have been readily obtained when least expected, and the same thing is much more likely to occur in the Pacific trade. Returning from San Francisco the clippers would compete seriously with the steamers, but there is one freight always certain, bar silver and Mexican dollars. The great increase in the silver production of Washoe, and the further increase likely to follow the stimulus silver mining operations have received by the fever of speculation last year, will soon open a very important trade. Silver as naturally seeks China as water does its level, and it sometimes runs a roundabout and expensive course to get there—from California to London and from London to Hong Kong. It was beginning to go to China in considerable amounts by clippers early last year, and must steadily increase.* The

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* The Exports to China for the first six months of 1863 were..... $1,603,059 53
To Manila..... 66,200
Japan..... 8,186 19

Total..... $1,677,445 72

The produce of the mines averaged one million per month.

silver mines of California are important realities, notwithstanding the misty stories about them which have arisen from speculation run mad, and many sober men think that they will yet prove as valuable as her gold mines, from their greater extent. The best proof of their richness is their steady and large yield.

The probability of a large passenger list is much more encouraging. Once established, the line would draw passengers from England itself, and all the American custom. Some Americans bound from New York to China, give the preference to the Pacific route already, although it causes them a delay of a month or more. No one who has not travelled by the so-called overland route, via Suez, knows the inconveniencies, annoyances and discomforts which must be borne. The Peninsular and Oriental Steamship Company is a prodigious monopoly, of the school of the Honolulu East India Company, and the old Hudson's Bay Company, both happily extinct, and like all monopolies, is regardless of the comfort of passengers. Transfersare made from port to port, attended with all the annoyances bad management can devise; the vessels are some of them old and dirty, and on a long journey one is sure to get at least one of these uncomfortable tubs. The heat on the Red Sea, the Indian ocean, Straits of Malacca, and southern part of the China Sea is intense, and the chances of storms exceed those of any other route to China. Some travelers have the opportunity of comparing the relative forces of a levanter in the Mediterranean, a cyclone in the Indian ocean, and a typlioon in the China Sea, all very ugly customers. No less than five transfers are made on the journey from Southampton, and sometimes a steamer fails to connect at Galle, or breaks down at Penang, and the unlucky traveler must go ashore and shift for himself with the thermometer at ninety degrees for a fortnight perhaps, the Company serenely taking its own time to repair damages. The time from New York to Shanghai by this route is about sixty days, the expense about one hundred and ninety pounds sterling—say five dollars to the pound—nine hundred and fifty dollars.

By the Panama route, and steam from San Francisco to Shanghai in thirty-five days, the time would be fifty-nine days, allowing three days in San Francisco, and the expense could not possibly be as great as by the other route. The average charge of the Pacific Mail Company for first class tickets from New York to San Francisco is about two hundred dollars, the competition of the Nicaragua route frequently reducing it considerably, and sailing vessels from San Francisco to China charge from one hundred to two hundred dollars, an extreme rate. Allowing three hundred for a first-class passenger ticket from San Francisco to Shanghai, which ought to remunerate any steamship Company, the total cost of the journey would only be about five hundred dollars against nine hundred and fifty by the Suez route, an ample margin for greater rates of fare if the company in the Pacific should find it necessary to charge more. They could safely do so if they looked only to the American travel, for the comforts of such a route over the Peninsular and Oriental line would be immense. In the first place it would not cross the equator, or linger long in the tropics. To be sure the Peninsular and Oriental Company does not do so either, but at Singapore they are within eighty miles of it, and for a long, long distance they are in the heart of the torrid zone—Only once does the Atlantic and Pacific line come within the equatorial belt of rains, and that is at Panama, but a week's journey takes us through

it all, and as far as crossing the Isthmus, that bugbear of old times, is concerned, three hours and a half are sufficient for the transit, and as it is made in a comfortable railway car, it is not at all disagreeable even in the rainy season. By a timely use of the telegraph, the transit is managed with a despatch and quiet order that would seem incredible to any one who has not made it. The road is equal to any in the United States for substantial work, the appointments are excellent; the best English railways are scarcely better. The only fault which travelers have to find with the line is in the management of the Vanderbilt steamers, which are often over-crowded till they are like cattle-pens. Vanderbilt is as greedy a monopolist as the managers of the Peninsular and Oriental line, but competition is making matters more decent. The Pacific mail steamers and their management are all that could be desired.

Excepting for the short time which is necessary to pass through the belt of equatorial rains and clouds, hanging for certain seasons of the year over the neighborhood of the Isthmus of Darien, the traveler is in the pleasant and equable temperature of the trade-wind zone, where the thermometer ranges from seventy-two to seventy-five degrees. A gentle breeze is always blowing, often a fresh one, and the whole voyage from New York to Shanghai is to as great a degree invigorating to a person in delicate health, as that by way of the Red Sea is debilitating. The writer once traveled by the former route in early summer without taking in anything between San Francisco and China but the studding sails and royals, and those only once—more from precaution than necessity.

But it was remarked that a steam line between California and China might draw passengers even from England itself, allowing fifty days from London to Shanghai by the Peninsular and Oriental Company, at an expense of one hundred and sixty pounds sterling; let us see how the Pacific route could compete. To do so at all, it would be necessary that connections should be made with some degree of regularity between the Cunard steamers, the Pacific mail and our proposed line. Allowing twelve days for the first of these, twenty-one days for the second, and thirty-five for the third, the trip could be made in sixty-eight days, and if the regular rates of fare are twenty-six pounds for the first, forty pounds for the second, and sixty pounds for the third, there is still a margin of thirty-four pounds to compensate for the loss of time. Returning, the journey might be made in sixty-two days. When the greater comforts of the route are considered, the longer time required would not be so serious an objection as it appears at first sight. Both the time and the expense would be reduced by taking the West India to Aspinwall direct, there connecting with San Francisco, but the passage among the West India Islands at certain seasons of the year would be open to the same objection as the Eastern route, and we are bound to say that thus far, at least, these packets have manifested a sublime indifference to the movements of the Pacific Mail Company's steamers, generally managing that their passengers spend a week at Panama.

Englishmen under these circumstances might prefer their own steamers when going out to China, but on their return numbers would take the Pacific route in preference. Many of those returning possess money and leisure, and if they have never been to America would prefer passing through the United States, if they could make the journey with despatch and a reasonable degree of comfort. A few do so now in the favorable

season when the clipper barks run across to San Francisco in forty-five days from Shanghai. Some return with impaired health, and no physician will recommend the overland journey to such. Better four months at sea than one under the equator.

It only needs steam on the Pacific to divert a large share of the homeward travel from China. By the Peninsular and Oriental line the rate of passage from Shanghai to Southampton is seven hundred and twenty-seven Mexican dollars, equal to eight hundred dollars in American gold, while if a reserved cabin is required the cost is upwards of thirteen hundred Mexican dollars. All the comfort, and more, could be had by a Pacific route for half that amount.

The exhorbitant charges of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, applied to their branch line from Point de Galle to Australia, have taken from them the great bulk of the Australian business, there being a powerful competition from sailing ships, with steam as an auxiliary, such as the "Auxiliary Screw Steamship Great Britain." This vessel without enjoying any government subsidy, and without making a gain of more than 20 days in her return passages over the regular clippers, and often not making that, is able to run with profit at rates at which the Peninsular and Oriental Company either cannot or will not compete. In one of her trips from Sydney to Liverpool, around Cape Horn, she ran the distance in sixty-five days, carrying no less than three hundred and twenty-five passengers (first second, and third class), passage-money ranging from fifteen to seventy pounds ahead per adult. The number of passengers carried by the Peninsular and Oriental line from Australia varies from ten to twenty, sometimes less than ten, the passage-money being one hundred and twenty pounds, and the time about fifty-eight days. The line, however, is supported by a handsome government-subsidy in consideration of its carrying the mail.

It is worthy of remark that some of the Colonial papers are even discussing the feasability of the Panama route for speedy and certain com munication with the mother country, and some years ago one or two trips were made to test the matter, but the distance and difficulty of procuring coal made the expense too enormous to be warranted by any business which such a line could obtain. It was proposed to make Tahiti a half-way station, with boats of different grades to run the different parts of the route, the one through the tropics, the other through the rough west-winds. This scheme was quite impracticable, for a return-boat would be obliged to steam within a few degrees of the equator, or else against the south-east trades for nearly five thousand miles, and when a vessel relies so much on its machinery the bill for coal in the South Pacific is something frightful, and would ruin any company, no matter how large their subsidy. It might bring England within forty days of her Australian colony of New Zealand, they tell us, but it will be many years before the scheme can be made practicable.*

* The entire correspondence between the Lord Commissioners of the Treasury and the Agents of the Colonies of New Zealand and New South Wales was published by the House of Commons on the 4th of September, 1863, throwing much light upon the question of a postal route via Panama.

It appeared that the Legislature of New Zealand and New South Wales had voted subsidies, the one £30,000 for five years, the other £50,000 for ten years, in all

No parallel can be justly drawn between this wild scheme and that of connecting China and California, but the fact that it has been suggested, shows the enterprise of the colonists, and of the steamship owners at home, as well as the reliance of both on the known liberality of the British Government, in promoting by subsidies any reasonable plan for facilitating her communication with her colonies in the East. If she considered her China trade in danger of being diverted, by speedier and cheaper routes than those she now commands, a line of steamers from Hong Kong to Panama, supported by a handsome subsidy, would be likely to follow, and it has been proposed by men interested in the China trade. Such a line following the route which has been marked out for the westward trip, with the advantage that three days steaming from Panama would place her in the trades, and not going north at all on the eastward voyage, but keeping on the southern edge of the north-east trades, where a belt of easterly current is found of about two degrees in width, would make the round trip from England to Hong Kong in fifty days, and, if powerful steamers were used, in less time. With fewer trans-shipments the delivery of freight would be more certain and rapid than by the Peninsular and Oriental line. On the return trip from China large steamers taking the northern route, and calling for fresh coal at Shanghai, Yakuhama and San Francisco, would obtain any amount of freight which they could carry; but such a line would not be as profitable as that proposed from Shanghai to San Francisco. At the former place passengers

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£80,000, provided the Treasury would assist by contributing an equal amount, or by paying half the expenses of the Pacific, and making no claim on the Colonies for service on the Atlantic.

It was proposed to establish a line of steamers of 2,000 tons each, able to make twelve knots average speed, and to perform a monthly service, the maximum time between London and Melbourne to be forty-five days, in which an allowance of five days was made for contingencies.

The arguments in favor were very powerfully urged, and no less eminent an authority than Sir EDWARD BELCHER expressed himself in favor of the route before a select Committee, in these words:

"I think that in either passage in the Pacific you would have a leading wind which is the best wind always for a screw steamer, or you would have an opportunity on the return passage of having what is called a soldier's wind; and that the breezes which blow there would enable a vessel to go faster than she would ever with strong breezes on the other side."

The fact of Sir EDWARD's having twice circumnavigated the globe, and being familiar with the South Pacific, gives great weight to his testimony.

The arguments aganst the route were substantially, as already stated, the principal one being that it would cost more than it was worth, and the Lords Commissioners formally declined, in letters dated May 7, 1863, to have anything to do with the matter on the part of her Majesty's Government.

The agents of the Colonies mentioned, however, made a strong protest against such a decision being final, and threatened that New Zealand and New South Wales would not pay for any postal arrangements, via Suez, and just dared to hint that *if they could* they would start the new line alone, and therefore, although it is not probable that such threats will come to anything, it is not likely that we have heard the last of the scheme.

and freight would be received from all China; at the latter the powerful sseamers of the Pacific Mail Company plying between San Francisco and Panama, with facilities for coaling at Acapulco, could forward both freight and passengers with greater ease and despatch than any vessel with steam as an auxiliary only, arriving after a voyage of four thousand five hundred miles with empty bunkers, and another stretch of three thousand five hundred miles before her to Panama. No reliance can be placed on the winds of the Mexican coast.

The policy of our Government has for some years past been directly opposite to that of Great Britain in the matter of giving encouragement to the increase of steamship lines by a judicious and timely subsidy, or, in other words, a liberal mail contract, and the result is that Great Britain possesses a far larger steam fleet than America, and all the great ocean lines have fallen into English hands with the exception of that to California by way of the Isthmus, and we have excluded them from this trade by legislation, it being part of our coasting-trade, under which head we have managed to include Maine and Oregon, with a sweep of sixteen thousand miles around Cape Horn, taking in the continent of South America as a matter of no consequence.

The unfortunate Collin's line, of which we were justly proud, was broken up for want of this aid, and now, in a time of trouble, the Government has found the idle vessels of that line the best and most useful of its transports.

An enumeration of the trans-oceanic steamship lines, subsidized by the Queen, and their results, commercially and politically, is hardly an agreeable matter for study, in view of our own deficiencies in this respect, but it should be a very profitable one, for it suggests a great deal.

First, we have the great Cunard lines, which Americans know all about; then the Peninsular and Oriental, connecting with the Colonies of Gibralter and Malta, with Egypt, Bombay, Madras, Ceylon and Calcutta, Singapore and all the China ports, and the Colonies of Mauritius, Australia and New Zealand—the greatest steamship monopoly in the world. The West India Packets are well-known, and they form a bi-monthly line to Aspinwall, where another branch skirts the coast of South America. Once a month England sends a steamer to her Colonies of St. Helena and Cape Town, and on the way she looks in upon the principal ports of the African coast. Another steamer leaves weekly for Canada, via Portland, and the Grand Trunk Railway. Again we find a steamer sailing monthly for Lisbon, Rio and Monte Video. All these voyages are of considerable length, some of them are long in point of time as that proposed, and all are Royal Mail Steamers; in other words they receive heavy subsidies. All the shorter lines of propellers, etc., are purposely omitted from this list, which is quite long enough to merit serious attention.

It may be urged with great show of reason that we have enough to do at present to attend to matters at home, and to provide ways and means for our heavy war-expenses, without spending money on postal routes where England is ready to do all the work for us; but this question of the Pacific is one involving a very small annual expense, which would be a mere drop in the bucket which Mr. Chase is preparing to souse Congress with at its next meeting, and the outlay, unlike many others will make four-fold returns in a very brisk period. Leaving out of sight all it would do for San Francisco and the benefit New York would derive by being

within thirty-five days communication by telegraph with Shanghai, a very short time would serve to build up a steam navy in the Pacific, which would be of incalculable value in event of trouble with any foreign power.

In time of peace it would be reaping golden harvests for our Pacific States, in time of war it would defend our coasts, and command the northern half of the grand ocean.

The Sandwich Islands are of first importance in event of war between England, Russia, or the United States. They are powerless for defence, owing their political independence in the first instance to the mutual interests in them of the United States, England and France. A nation possessing them or able to throw any considerable force there from the China coast would do great damage to our Pacific trade and our whaling fleet, and at the first outbreak of hostilities, Hawaii would quickly meet the fate of the Isle of France or Mauritius. A large steam fleet in the Pacific, and close connection between the Hawaiian Kingdom and California, would ensure it and us against such a calamity, which, from the future importance of the Pacific trade, would be a very serious one.

Thus, it will be seen, that as a safeguard to our coasts, and protection to our trade, as well as a means of increasing the prosperity of the richest and most thriving States in the Union, and through her that of all others, (for she has been the most bountiful,) steam communication between California and Asia is a matter not only of local but of national importance deserving national aid.

THE DANO-GERMAN WAR.

T. M. J.

We spoke in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine* of the probabilities of a European war. The fears we expressed then are realized now. Austria and Prussia have advanced their standards into Schleswig, and have been met by the army of King Christian. Blood has been spilt; the war has actually commenced, and who is wise enough to tell us where it will end? As this is a question of daily increasing interest to the commercial world, we propose again to take up the story, and enter a little more into the details of this Dano-German controversy.

The modern Danish monarchy consists of a kingdom and three duchies. The islands and the northern portion of the Cimbrian peninsula, or the province of Jutland, constitute the kingdom. The central part, which has from the most ancient time been either a fief of the Danish crown, or a component part of the monarchy, is the duchy of Schleswig. The southern portion of the peninsula is the duchy of Holstein, and on its south-eastern frontier lies the little duchy of Lauenburg. All these territories belong to Denmark; but the two latter, instead of being fiefs of that kingdom, as the former is, are fiefs of the Holy Roman Empire. Thus the river Eyder, which separates Schleswig from Holstein, forms also the boundary line between Germany and Denmark. And all the territory, north of that river, looks to the king of Denmark as its rightful sovereign;

while the provinces on the south, claimed by the Danish monarch merely in the capacity of Duke, acknowledge the superior authority of the German Diet. This arrangement, uniting the two German Duchies to the kingdom, and thus making the Danish monarch a member of the Diet, cannot claim for itself any great antiquity. In the revolutions and political earthquakes of past centuries, during which the map of Europe has been so often dissected and made anew, the duchies occupied various positions with regard to the kingdom. Sometimes the King of Denmark governed them in their entirety as now, but they were more usually split up into different fragments, and acknowledged the authority of different princes. When peace came after the great Napoleonic wars, and the time for gathering together the spoils, and readjusting the shattered fragments of territory had arrived, Denmark received the little duchy of Lauenburg, to compensate her for the loss of Norway; and that arrangement was entered into with regard to Lauenburg and Holstein, which gave to the Danish monarch a seat in the German Diet. Since that time Holstein has been to Denmark a source of constant trouble. The people being Germans are thoroughly imbued with true Teutonic feeling, and this feeling, being fostered by their German kinsmen, has made them long for the day when a German prince shall receive their heartfelt homage, and make them a part of the great fatherland.

Every quarrel has two sides to it, and so has this. The friends of Denmark say, "that Austria and Prussia have not kept their word. They have never acknowledged King CHRISTIAN as duke of Schleswig-Holstein, which the treaty of London requires them to do; and, furthermore, they are continually acting a double policy, which, of all policies, is the most dangerous. In the first place they profess to desire peace, and have done all they could to bring on war. In the second place they still acknowledge the obligations of the treaty, and at the same time their aim is to satisfy a people, that will not be satisfied, save the treaty be broken." These surely are serious charges. Let us examine them a little in detail.

First. They talk of their desire for peace, yet have done all they could to cause a rupture. We cannot help thinking that they are somewhat sincere, however, for they are the powers that have most to lose by war. With Kossuth endeavoring to excite the discontented Hungarians to revolution; with Galacia so near outbreak, that the Emperor deems martial law necessary; with the King of Italy anxious to seize Venetia, why should not Austria wish for peace? Then again, with France able and longing to annex the Rhenish provinces, what has Prussia to gain by establishing the principle that "they should take, who have the power, and they should keep, who can." Although their interest is unquestionably to preserve the peace, yet there is another influence at work, pushing them on to war. The voice of the people at all times speaks loud and forcibly. There is no monarch in the world, nor has there ever been one, who can set himself, and his government in direct opposition to the clearly expressed demands of the popular will. Even the Peruvian Incas, whose authority was as unlimited as any ever possessed by man, were forced to work upon the popular superstition and extort from their subjects the reverence due to the children of the Sun, in order to acquire that despotic power, which it is the undisputed right of a deity to wield. They rested their authority on the religious devotion of their subjects, and made rebellion against their government not a crime only but a sin; and every

monarch, who would not be driven from his throne by an enraged people, must sustain even a despotic power by some kind of popularity. It is this power of the people that is working in Germany, and it is to gratify this popular feeling, and to calm the excitement of the popular mind, that the leading powers have opened the war. The rulers speak loudly for peace, and say that if the obnoxious constitution were revoked which incorporates Schleswig with the Kingdom, making it a component part of the Danish monarchy, then indeed they would adhere to the treaty of London, and maintain unimpaired the integrity of Denmark. Yet the best guarantees for the revocation of the constitution, possible in so short a space of time, were given to Austria and Prussia, before they crossed the Eyder. They asked King CHRISTIAN to do something he had no power to do. To revoke the constitution he must assemble his Rigsdaag or Parliament, and ascertain through them the will of his people. All this requires time. But Austria and Prussia grant no time. They say, "we will not wait; you must comply at once, or we will declare war, enter your territory and seize your provinces, because we are stronger than you." And so they have done, and on their shoulders do the Danish people throw the responsibility.

The insults heaped upon the German nations by the first Napoleon, had the effect of awakening a national spirit, and of arousing the people to patriotic exertion. The remembrance of the time when a German wielded the tremendous power of a united Empire, and Charles V. dictated the law to that same France, which was now crushing them, excited longings and aspirations, which unity among themselves alone could make effective. How this unity could be brought about became a subject of anxious consideration. One of the first things suggested was the creation of a navy, belonging to no one kingdom or province, but carrying over the high seas the flag of a united Germany. This would be both a bond of union and an element of strength. No sooner was the idea presented, than it spread like wild-fire; no one wished to be behind-hand in his subscription to this patriotic purpose, and lectures were delivered in almost all the towns, and the proceeds applied to build a German fleet. The effort does not appear, however, to have been remarkably successful, for up to the present day Germany is deficient in ships.

But there was a serious obstacle in the way of Germany's attaining much maratime greatness. There is hardly another nation in the world that possesses so large an area, and yet such a small extent of sea-board. What little coast it has is poorly supplied with harbors, and the harbors it possesses are either insignificant or commanded by the territory of other powers. Their ports on the North and Baltic seas are guarded by Denmark and Holland, and would be of little avail if these powers were hostile—but with the Duchies firmly united to them the case would be different, and the fine harbors in these coasts would be at the disposal of the German fleet. "Here," says Denmark, "is the key-note of the popular cry; this is the reason they are opening the war—they wish to get possession of our harbors, to destroy us as a nation, and to make themselves a great naval power." There is, doubtless, much truth in this. The Austrian and German rulers, however, care little for German nationality or a German fleet, they only want to get control of the Germanic Confederation, and to obtain the highest place in the German Diet; yet they have to bend to and partly obey the demands of their people. They

profess to stand on the treaty of London, which their subjects don't care for, and demand the revocation of the obnoxious constitution which they know will not satisfy the popular will. And this brings us to consider the second point, viz: that they acknowledge the obligations of the treaty, but nevertheless try to please a people that will not be pleased so long as the treaty stands.

The German people uphold the cause of the Duke of Augustenberg, not merely because they believe his claim to be more valid, but also because he is a German, and the duchies, under his rule, would be a part of Germany. The aim of the popular German party has been constantly to draw Schleswig nearer and nearer to Holstein, and as constantly to widen the gulf which separates the duchies from the kingdom. They have held since 1848, at least, that the fate of Schleswig is identical with that of Holstein, and that Schleswig cannot be drawn nearer to Denmark without influencing Holstein, nor Holstein be taken away from Denmark unaccompanied by Schleswig. Indeed they would prefer to see both Duchies drawn closer to Denmark than Schleswig alone, because the German element which exists in Holstein would serve as a drag, preventing the dreaded incorporation of either duchy with the Danish monarchy. "Wherever," they say, "one duchy goes there must also the other go, they cannot be separated, but must be joined more firmly together; a like future awaits each—their fates are identical." Their reason for taking this ground is evident. They fear that Schleswig if left to itself would soon be united to Denmark, and they believe that German-Holstein possesses more power to draw Schleswig towards the Bund, than Schleswig can have to draw Holstein into the kingdom. They naturally desire to see the German power extended, and they immediately raise the cry of German nationality. But Austria and Prussia, as we said before, care little for Germany as a nation. Their only desire is to get the upper hand to receive the lion's share in the distribution of power, and if that is attained the rest may look out for itself. They were compelled when they saw German feeling rising high to bow before it, and they took their stand on the engagements of the treaty, and demanded the revocation of the constitution; but the revocation of the constitution will not satisfy their people. They long to tear the duchies from the dominion of King Christian, and to unite them to themselves. If the constitution were revoked to-day, and Austria and Prussia should thereupon withdraw from the contest, they would have to bear the contempt of their subjects. These two great powers pretend to be zealous for the treaty, and draw the sword ostensibly to uphold its requirements, but really to satisfy a people that will not be satisfied, unless they do that which the treaty declares shall not be done. How will they extricate themselves from the unfortunate dilemma?

So much for the plea of Denmark; let us now see what Germany has to say.

Upon the death of the late King of Denmark, the elder branch of the family of Frederic II. became extinct, at least as far as its male representatives were concerned. It therefore became necessary, in accordance with the requirements of the Salic law, to call upon the family of his younger brother to supply the heir to the throne. It is not necessary to examine the genealogy of the rival princes. No one attempts to deny that the Duke of Augustenberg is the eldest male representative of the

royal family; and that the Prince of Glucksberg, the reigning king, belongs to a younger branch. It is evident then that, if the Salic law remains in force, the present king has no right; and that the Duke of Augustenberg is the legal representative. But unfortunately, in the year 1660, at the same time that Denmark was changed from an elective to an hereditary monarchy, the Lex Regia was passed. This law provides that the female can inherit provided there is no male heir. When, therefore, the late king died, the throne descended, through the female line, to Prince Frederic of Hesse. He, however, withdrew his claim, and his sister Mary did the same, and the Princess Louise, wife of the Prince of Glucksburg, became queen. She also abdicated in favor of her husband, and thus gave Prince Christian the kingdom. But although the Salic law was abolished in Denmark, it does not follow that it was also abolished in the Duchies. On the contrary, it holds there as strongly as ever; and, although the Duke of Augustenberg may have his rivals, yet his right is evidently superior to that of the king. The Duchies are all he claims. His claim is upheld by the German people, and by the German population of the Duchies themselves. He is the representative of German feeling, because he is a German, and if he were Duke of Schleswig-Holstein, then Schleswig-Holstein would be a part of Germany, and the people would be united to their kinsfolk and friends.

But how is the treaty of London to be dealt with? Not only all the great powers of Europe, but almost all the principalities of Germany, promised to acknowledge the Prince of Glucksburg as king. Austria and Prussia profess to be zealous for the treaty, yet they refuse to comply with its requirements. It cannot be denied, that the present king came to the throne in a very unfortunate time. It was when the obnoxious constitution had passed its third reading, and only awaited his signature. If he signed, he committed a grave offence against Germany; if he refused, he outraged the feelings of his people. He did sign, and the constitution became law. Here is the nominal offence. "We are not bound," say the German people, "to see the Duchies drawn away closer to Denmark. We promised to King Christian all the territories of the late king; but he has no right to unite all his provinces into one kingdom." To prevent the dreaded incorporation from taking place, a Federal execution was ordered in Holstein, and that duchy was occupied by Saxon soldiers. Soon Austria and Prussia, influenced by popular feeling, and afraid of losing power in the Bund, also took up the quarrel and sent troops forward. But this duchy could not be held alone. It must not be severed from Schleswig. The German forces must cross the Eyder. They did cross the Eyder; and crossing the Eyder was war. "And now," says Herr Von Bismark, "we have a new state of things; a state of war. War is a trial of strength. We promised to give to King Christian all the territory of the late king. But war has altered the case. It has put an end to the treaty, and we are free to act as we please." Whether this is sound political morality or not, we do not pretend to say; but certain it is that an adherence to the treaty will not satisfy the German people, and it seems almost equally certain that the great German powers will not withdraw without endeavouring to satisfy them.

But there is another plan by which the German rulers endeavor to set aside the unpleasant stipulations of 1852. They confess themselves bound to recognize the integrity of Denmark, and hold that they do not depart

from that principle by the occupation of Schleswig. "If however," says a dispatch to the English government, "in consequence of complications which may be brought about, by the persistence of the Danish government in its refusal to accomplish its promises of 1852, or of the armed intervention of other powers in the Dano-German conflict, the king's government were to find itself compelled to renounce combinations, which would no longer offer a result proportionate to the sacrifices, which events might impose upon the German powers, no definite arrangements could be made without the concurrence of the powers who signed the treaty of London." That is, if Denmark does not carry out her part of the treaty and perform the stipulations—unfortunately very indefinitely expressed—which in 1852 she promised to Germany; or if any interference on the part of European powers should render a great war necessary, then we will not perform our part of the obligations, but will take what we can to pay the expense of the war. Such is the reply of Germany. The legal question is one that cannot interest us very much, but it may bring on great events. To peer, however, into the thick darkness which surrounds all coming events, and to state what is to be, is a more difficult matter. So far Denmark has received no foreign assistance, but has been left to bear the brunt of war alone. Will the other powers continue to sit tamely by and see Germany rob Denmark, or will they extend to the weaker party something more than the mere expression of sympathy? She has been driven back by her powerful enemies, and has been compelled to abandon the strong fortress of the Danewerke. Still she is presenting a plucky front, and is endeavoring to shame her English friends into some active participation. If left to herself the issue cannot be doubted, for she is unable to cope single-handed with her formidable adversaries. But she does her best even in her solitary condition, and keeps up a stout heart and hopes for better days. She evidently thinks with Mr. MARK TAPLEY, that only in adverse circumstances is there any merit in being jolly.

But our English friends do not appear exactly to enjoy the present state of things. They do not want war, but neither do they want to sit tamely by and see the annihilation of Denmark. They denounce in strong language the aggressive spirit of Austria and Prussia, and they have done what they could to bring about a peaceful issue. But, alas! their efforts have not proved, nor are they likely to prove, successful. Should they enter into the war, the whole of Europe would be in a blaze. Italy would seize upon Venetia; France would grasp the Rhenish provinces; and thus we should see England, France, Italy, and perhaps the Scandanavian kingdom, arrayed against the holy alliance: for Russia is said to be uniting herself with Austria and Prussia, eager to have her finger in the pie, and to receive her share of the spoils. Whether this shall be or not probably remains with Napoleon to decide. He is the man that governs Europe, and makes peace and war. The *Invalide Russe*, the official organ of the Czar, asks who is the head of the Polish revolution, and answers itself by drawing a pen and ink sketch of Louis Napoleon, who sits, it says, "on a golden throne, and makes revolutions rise or fall." Such seems to be indeed the case; but as "there is always a power behind the throne," so there is a controling influence in events to which even Louis Napoleon will be forced to succumb. What this may be time only can determine.

DEATH OF THOMAS TILESTON.

On the morning of Monday, February 29th, we were startled by the announcement of the sudden death of Thomas Tileston—one of our most enterprising, successful and best loved citizens.

When Mr. Tileston wrote his signature beneath the engraved portrait which appeared in one of our late issues, it was with a smile of blameless pride at the steadiness of the hand that had passed its allotted threescore years and ten, yet still retained the unshaken firmness of early manhood. To a human eye, looking at him thus in the midst of health and prosperity, in unimpaired vigor of mind and body, there seemed to be still in store for him, many long years of usefulness to others and happiness for himself. But a fortnight had scarcely expired when the steadfast hand was still and powerless; and the will that prompted it, the eye that guided it, passed away from the earth for ever.

It is not possible, within a limited space, to estimate the full value of such a life, with all its far-spreading influences, nor to mention the innumerable regrets occasioned by its sudden ending.

In countless ways and places, the loss will be felt: by the fireside in a desolate home; in an extended circle of strongly attached and appreciative friends; in numberless public enterprises and institutions. The firm that has stood for forty-eight years, and that soon might have celebrated its golden wedding-day of partnership, has met with a sudden and sorrowful dissolution. In the bank, the counting-house, the insurance office, in commercial circles everywhere the wise voice will be missed, and many will long to hear again the sage counsel now hushed in sound slumber.

We have already spoken in the sketch of Mr. Tileston's life, of the many noted traits of his character; his wisdom, integrity, and judgment; his benevolence, his energy and discernment. Much more might indeed be said upon these points, but we forbear, and allow the testimony to stand as it was then written, for what was intended as a just tribute to the virtues of the living, has now become Sacred to the Memory of the Dead.

There is perhaps one quality of Mr. Tileston's character which may well be remarked upon, and this is the unusual combination of the legislative and executive faculties. It has been said that men are divided into two classes—the dreamers and the workers—those who think and those who act, those who plan and those who execute. If this be not true as an axiom, it surely may be considered true as a rule. There is of necessity among men a diversity of gifts. A sculptor moulds into plaster the perfect conception of his artist's soul, but it is the accustomed fingers of the handicraftsman, dexterous and flexile with long practice, that finally evolve from the shapeless marble, a statue of such exquisite finish that the world goes wild over its beauty. One general works out in theory a magnificent campaign, admirable in its utmost details, wonderful in its perfection as a whole; another, powerless to originate, but strong to execute, grasps the great idea, and rushes on to a victorious consummation. These diverse powers of invention and execution, dissimilar, and

generally separate, were combined in an unusual degree in Mr. TILESTON'S character, and largely contributed to ensure the remarkable success which attended all that he attempted. The best laid plans are but schemes and visions, till a practical test proves their wisdom; and the greatest executive faculty can hardly be expected so fully to adopt and carry out the conception of another, as not to lose something of its original force or delicacy. He, therefore, who can both theorize and perform, who can first think out and then work out his own idea, has an advantage over his fellows that must inevitably make him an eminently successful man.

The manner of Mr. TILESTON'S death is too well known to require any detailed statement here. It was excessively sudden. Without an instant's premonition, without a quiver of the strong hand, without even a quickened breath to warn him, death seized the earthly tenement and let the soul go free. It must ever be a consolation to those who best loved him, that he was spared the pains and anxieties of a lingering illness, and that they were saved the sight of long distress and weakness, which human tenderness is sadly powerless to relieve. And yet, to every thinking mind, there is a wonderful solemnity in such a sudden death. It forces upon one a profound and overwhelming sense of the strange union and still stranger parting of soul and body; the eternal mystery of

> "The vase of clay, the earthy clod,
> Constrained to hold the breath of God!"

Breathed into it at birth, withdrawn at death; and, between the two, a short tumultuous passage, a rapid grasp of grief, joy, pain, and change, that we call the life of man.

Happy is he who, in passing away, leaves only the remembrance of worthy deeds to those about him; whose name evokes none but good and kindly memories; whose life, like a goodly bark passed out of sight, leaves behind it a glittering wake of beneficent influences to guide other mariners into the desired haven. Yes, more than happy are all such, they are blessed, for "they rest from their labors, and their works do follow them."

PROCEEDINGS OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE ON THE DEATH OF THOMAS TILESTON.

AT the regular meeting of the Chamber of Commerce on the 8th of March, Mr. A. A. Low, after calling the meeting to order, spoke in a few earnest words of the death of MR. THOMAS TILESTON, and the great loss the city had thus suffered, referring to the fact that Mr. TILESTON had been a member of the Chamber since 1833. After which Mr. JOHN D. JONES, President of the Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company, in a brief address paid a feeling tribute to his memory, and gave a very just estimate of his character. In speaking of his unusual success, he said:

"It was no one quality of mind that made him great in his sphere, but a combination of many evenly balanced qualities, which gave him power to excel. His industry knew no tiring; his energy seemed controlled by a will which was adequate to the difficulty to be overcome; his sagacity and quick decision gave him great advantage in mercantile transactions. His skill and foresight, adopting and entering upon plans of enterprise and improvement, and his fidelity in pursuing his plans; his promptitude and punctuality in performing his engagement; are rare qualities in the human mind, and the favorable results which are so well known have all shown their value.

"In liberal public spirit few excelled him. He was ready to take up any public measure deemed by the Chamber necessary for consideration, and, regardless of his own valuable time, gave it the necessary attention. His last duty was to act on a committee upon the subject of ocean steam navigation; his last public act and address before this Chamber upon the adoption of that report, delivered only a few days before his death.

"His courtesy and frankness of manner were remarkable, and his general discretion very largely contributed to his success.

"Mr. TILESTON adorned every station he held in life; he added dignity to the position of a merchant, and elevated the character of a banker. As a counsellor his clear judgment was most valuable; as a friend he was devoted and reliable."

After listening to Mr. JONES address, the Chamber adopted the following resolutions:

"*Resolved,* That in his decease the mercantile community has lost an estimable member, the young merchant a valuable friend, and the city of New York one of the active supporters of its commercial greatness.

Resolved, That in our varied forms of intercourse with the lamented deceased, we can all bear testimony to his industry, energy, sagacity and ability; to the skill and courage with which he foresaw or adopted and entered into well-considered and productive plans of enterprise and improvement; to the promptitude, punctuality and fidelity with which he pursued such plans and performed his engagements; and to his liberal public spirit.

Resolved, That after a long intimacy with him, we express with gratitute our appreciation of his virtues as a citizen and friend, of his probity of character, and his genial, social qualities.

Resolved, That the members of this Chamber attend his funeral and unite with his numerous friends and acquaintances in attesting their respect for his memory.

Resolved, That a copy of the foregoing resolutions, duly authenticated by the officers of the Chamber and seal, be transmitted to the family of the deceased.

After the adoption of the resolutions the Chamber adjourned, to attend in a body the funeral of deceased."

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

FINANCIAL AFFAIRS—LAW OF FEBRUARY, 1862—SINKING FUND—GOLD ACCUMULATION—BILL TO SELL GOLD—RELATIVE VALUE OF GOLD—PRICES—GOLD IN THE WORLD—FOREIGN COMMERCE—OBJECTS OF NEW BILL—ITS DEFEAT—GOLD IN TREASURY—GOLD INTEREST—NATIONAL DEBT—THE MOVEMENT IN MARCH—TWO YEAR NOTES—INCREASE OF DEBT—RESULTS OF GOLD BILL—GOLD MOVEMENT—EXCHANGE—LOAN BILL—NEW ISSUES—STOCK PRICES—INVESTMENTS—MINING INTERESTS—REDUCED COST—GENERAL BUSINESS—IMPORTS—EXPORTS.

THE commercial and financial affairs of the country has been a good deal disturbed during the last month, by the proposed action of Congress in relation to the disposition of the gold in the Treasury. The continued collections for custom duties, which are payable in gold had caused an immense accumulation, and the supply in the market was small—hence the amount on hand, and which under the loan could apply only to interest on the sinking fund, came to be regarded with uneasiness. The law of February 25, 1862, provided Section 5, as follows:

That all duties on imported goods shall be paid in coin, or in notes payable on demand, therefor authorized to be issued, and by law receivable in payment of

public dues, and the *coin so paid shall be set apart as a special fund*, and shall be applied as follows:

First. To the payment in coin of the *interest* on the bonds and notes of the United States.

Second. To the purchase or payment of one per centum of the entire debt of the United States, to be made within each fiscal year after the first day of July, 1862, the interest on which shall in like manner be applied to the purchase or payment of the public debt as the Secretary of the Treasury shall from time to time direct.

Third. The residue thereof to be paid into the Treasury of the United States.

This solemn pledge of a "special fund" was made in the law authorizing the issue of $500,000,000 six per cent five-twenty year stock, all of which had been issued or sold on that pledge as part of the condition of purchase. The custom duties have been very large, and the amount of gold accumulated as follows:

SPECIE IN NEW YORK CITY.

		Price.	Treasury.	Banks.	Total.
October	3.....	42	$9,081,843	$30,064,614	$39,146,457
November	1.....	47	9,586,970	28,783,281	38,370,251
January	1.....	51	12,830,599	25,161,935	37,992,534
February	1.....	57	15,618,231	24,203,632	39,821,863
—	6.....	58	17,113,941	24,070,791	41,184,732
—	13.....	59	18,562,456	23,521,453	42,083,909
—	20.....	61	19,063,565	22,523,968	41,592,483
—	27.....	63	20,675,021	22,301,687	42,976,708
March	5.....	69	22,318,101	21,220,658	43,538,759
—	14.....	63	23,752,515	20,750,495	44,503,010
—	19.....	62	25,118,578	21,059,512	46,178,120
—	26.....	70	26,655,022	20,425,504	47,080,526
April	2.....	71	26,535,204	19,526,665	46,057,869

The amount held by the banks in October was estimated to belong, two thirds to the banks themselves, and one-third to special depositors, importers and others who had purchased to pay duties, and for other purposes. Under the process of paying duties and of exporting the amount in bank ran down nearly $10,000,000 and that in the Treasury increased $16,000,000, after all the payments of interest, November, January and February 19, and the price of specie in the market regularly increased. Under these circumstances it was obviously the duty of the Secretary under the law if he supposed the sum on hand would warrant it, to buy the public debt for the sinking fund. The amount of the public debt is in round number $1,600,000,000, hence one per cent is $16,000,000 which with the accruing interest would supply the market and keep faith with the government creditors. Instead of this, however, a bill was brought into the House authorizing the Secretary to sell all the gold not wanted for the interest on the public debt. In other words to do away with the sinking fund on the guarantee of which the debt had been negotiated. This direct attack upon the public faith gave rise to much discussion. The theory of the new bill was that the rise in gold was due almost entirely to speculation, and that a few sales by the Secretary would suffice to break that speculation, and greatly to reduce the price. This theory was founded in the error that it is gold that has risen and not paper that has fallen in value, whereas the fact is that gold has risen less than any other article—all commodities are higher than gold. There are, of course, circumstances that affect prices besides currency. As taxes, transportation, supply and

demand. The imported goods bear a high rate of duty direct and also payable in gold, and these affect prices. The articles formerly derived from the South are in very short supply, in consequence of which the prices not only rise on those commodities, but upon all kindred articles.

Let us leave out of the estimate then imported goods and materials supplied by the South. Those articles that are more exclusively influenced by the currency are farm products. These are in more than usual supply, and pay no taxes, but are affected by the high cost of labor of manufactured goods and of transportation. The following will show how those prices have varied since March, 1862, when the government legal-tender issues began:

PRICES IN NEW YORK IN MARCH.

	1862.	1864.	Rise.
Copper, 100 lbs	$23 00 a 25 00	$41 00 a 42 50	$18 00
Coal, ton	4 50 a 5 00	9 00 a 10 00	4 50
Iron, pig, ton	21 00 a 23 00	48 00 a 49 00	27 00
Lead, 100 lbs	6 50 a 6 75	11 75 a 12 00	5 25
Nails, 100 lbs	3 25 a 3 75	6 00 a 6 25	2 75
Ashes, pot, bbl	5 50 a 5 75	8 75 a 8 87	3 25
Dry Cod, cwt	3 37 a 4 25	6 50 a 7 00	3 12
Flour, bbl	4 50 a 5 60	7 30 a 7 35	1 90
Corn, 100 bush	58 50 a 60 00	131 00 a134 00	72 50
Hay, 100 lbs	80 a 85	1 85 a 1 40	55
Wheat, bush	1 30 a 1 45	1 63 a 1 65	33
Hemp, cwt	10 50 a 11 25	14 00 a 16 12	3 50
Barley, bush	85 a 1 00	9 35 a 1 50	50
Oats, bush	37 a 39	90 a 91	53
Hops, 100 lbs	14 00 a 20 00	26 00 a 33 00	12 00
Clover seeds, 100 lbs	7 50 a 7 75	12 50 a 13 25	5 00
Lime, bbl	60 a 65	1 25 a 1 35	65
Oil, Whale, gal	25 a 35	58 a 60	83
Oil, Coal	48 a 57	1 10 a 1 12	62
Pork, bbl	13 25 a 13 75	21 75 a 23 50	8 50
Beef, bbl	5 50 a 8 00	10 00 a 15 00	4 50
Lard, 100 lbs	7 50 a 8 25	13 59 a 14 00	6 00
Whisky, 100 gals	25 00 a 25 50	89 00 a 91 00	64 00
Tallow, 100 lbs	8 75 a 9 00	12 62 a 12 75	3 87
Whalebone, 100 lbs	68 00 a 70 00	150 00 a155 00	82 00
Wool, fleece, 100 lbs	52 00 a 55 00	78 00 a 82 00	26 00
Wool, pl'd, 100 lbs	44 00 a 45 00	70 00 a 75 00	26 00
Butter, 100 lbs	16 00 a 21 00	36 00 a 37 00	20 00
Cheese, 100 lbs	5 00 a 7 00	15 00 a 18 00	10 00
	412 67 a445 88	825 83 a871 12	413 15
Gold	101 5 a101 50	150 00 a164 00	
Paper Money outstanding	60,000,000	600,000,000.	

The rise has effected every article, and the average aggregates will compare as follows:

	Gold.	Aggregate Articles.	Rise per cent.	U. S. paper currency.
March, 1862	101½	429 27	..	$60,000,000
March, 1863	154	727 12	70	320,000,000
March, 1864	159	848 57	98	600,000,000

It is here evident that the rise in gold is far less than in other commodities, the metal having risen but fifty-nine per cent, and the average of twenty-nine articles is ninety-eight per cent, and those are articles not directly acted upon by the rise in gold. It is also evident that if this level of prices is maintained

in paper value, while gold is forcibly depressed, an immense amount of the over-valued article must be imported from Canada and elsewhere.

If now we make a table of imported articles or those the prices of which are effected by higher duties and those in gold and also by exchange, we will have still higher prices, as follows :

	1862.	1863.	1864.
Cordage, Manilla	9 00 a 10 00	18 00 a 18 50	19 00 a 20 00
Indigo	1 25 a 2 50	2 00 a 2 85	1 60 a 2 50
Coffee, Rio, 100 lbs	17 25 a 19 50	30 50 a 34 00	36 00 a 37 50
India Rubber	48 a 50	85 a 87	83 a 85
Gunny Cloth, 100 yards	11 00 a 11 50	16 00 a 16 75	15 50 a 15 75
Hides, Rio, 100 lbs	21 00 a 21 50	30 00 a 31 00	29 50 a 30 00
Plaster of Paris	1 50 a 1 75	3 60 a 3 75	3 25 a 3 50
Leather, Oat. Mid	27 00 a 30 00	40 00 a 42 00	45 00 a 47 00
Mahogany	35 00 a 45 00	45 00 a 55 00	100 00 a150 00
Molasses, No. gall	50 a 55	45 a 47	70 a 80
Silk, raw	5 00 a 5 50	10 00 a 10 50	9 50 a 9 75
Carria, 100 lbs	31 00 a 32 50	45 00 a 46 00	62 50 a 65 00
Gin	26 00 a 27 00	55 00 a 56 00	103 00 a110 00
Sugar, Cuba, 100 lbs	6 87 a 8 75	9 25 a 11 50	12 25 a 14 75
Tin, boxes,	30 00 a 32 00	56 00 a 58 00	56 00 a 57 00
Spelter	5 50 a 5 70	9 00 a 9 37	12 50 a 13 00
	$228 35 a254 25	$370 55 a396 56	$516 13 a577 00

	Gold.	29 articles above.	Rise per cent.	Sixteen imported.	Rise per cent.
March, 1862	101½	429 27	..	241 30	..
March, 1863	154	727 12	70	383 85	60
March, 1864	159	848 57	98	546 56	130

Thus while farm produce has risen ninety-eight per cent, imported articles not directly influenced by the scarcity of raw materials have risen one hundred and thirty per cent, while gold had risen only fifty-nine per cent. These facts show conclusively that the rise in gold is only an index. The apparent value of gold depends entirely upon the volumn of irredeemable paper money afloat, in relation to the markets of the whole world. In a work published in Paris, and of high authority, by Mr. Ed. M. Levasseur, the quantity of precious metals in civilized countries in 1858 was given as follows :

Silver	fr.22,000,000,000	or	$4,125,000,000
Gold	fr.13,000,000,000	or	$2,442,500,000

Modern commerce, through the quick agency of steam, equalizes the value of this vast sum to a fraction of one per cent all over the world. In every country, all known commodities bear exact proportions in gold, and in every country myriads of merchants are eagerly watching a variation in order to profit by it, by sending commodities for gold where it is too cheap, and sending gold for commodities where it is too dear. The idea of altering the value by selling a comparatively few handfuls of gold in New York, is novel. The rise and fall of paper is another matter, and is governed by putting more or less of it afloat. The world at large does not sympathize with it, and it falls in value where there is an excess.

The moment paper becomes the medium of exchange the commerce of the country becomes complicated with its depreciation. Every foreign merchant and every home dealer is required to reduce the paper price to its equivalent in gold, to ascertain the relative sales of commodities, and each promptly avails

himself of the change. If the volume of paper has produced a certain currency level of prices, these are calculated at what the circulating medium may be turned into gold for. If the government or any other agency then steps in and forcibly depresses the value of gold, it simply gives a bonus to the importer. Thus, suppose the above sixteen imported articles are represented by the value two hundred and forty-one dollars when gold was at par, and now by five hundred and forty-six dollars in paper. If the importer could still get the gold for the paper at par, his profits would be 130 per cent, and the country would be flooded with goods, yet this is what the Secretary and Chairman of Ways and Means poposed to do. They proposed to break down the price of gold and let other articles stand. The object was defeated. The bill could finally pass only in the shape of permitting the Secretary to sell the gold not wanted for the interest. The bill will be found elsewhere.

It would appear that all the interest and sinking fund are preserved, and consequently the law now stands in effect as before, "The entire debt" is sixteen hundred millions, consequently one per cent is sixteen millions. Mr. SHERMAN, in the Senate on the 10th, gave an official statement of the debt bearing gold interest at $717,277,512 55, as follows:

Due April 1	$3,152,711 22
Due May 1	14,245,141 33
Due July 1	3,451,347 37
Total	$20,849,199 92
Add 1 per cent sinking fund	16,000,000 00
Total due to July 1	$36,849,199 92
In Treasury, March 10	19,670,479 91
Deficit	$17,178,720 01

Mr. SHERMAN stated that there was more gold in the Treasury, but not available, being special funds. He also stated the estimated receipts of gold from March 10th to July 1 at $22,272,175. This, if realized, would meet the deficit and give a surplus of $5,094,000 to be sold. This is the whole scope of the bill, with the exception that the Secretary may pay interest in advance on such terms as he can bargain for.

The last named power does not appear to be very available. To advance the interest on the public debt involves may grave considerations. Thus the Secretary has it in his power, if he has the gold, to pay to-morrow the coupons due on $510,000,000 five-twenty six per cent stock up to next November. Let us suppose that he does so—that the holder of a $1,000 bond consents to take off his two coupons and get the gold to-day. Having received the gold for interest say sixty dollars, worth ninety-six dollars in currency, he then holds a bond that will draw no interest for more than a year. This bond he would not be likely to hold, but to sell and reinvest the money where it would gain interest, in which case the price of the stock may become very low, the more so if after the coupons are paid there should be a decline in customs. The effect would be to shake out the whole funded debt from its place of investment, making it a floating, speculative stock, and be highly detrimental to the national credit. These objections do not apply to the disbursement of gold in stock purchased for a sink-

ing fund, and it is to be hoped this will now be done if the Secretary is sure of gold enough to meet the whole year's interest.

It is, however, a very serious question whether it would be advisable to pay out the gold for any purpose since all past experiences show that the customs cannot be depended upon absolutely for a year's revenue. After a year or two of prosperity they are very likely to break down and leave the government without the necessary revenue until a return of prosperity. The national debt is now as follows:

UNITED STATES DEBT.

	Feb. 2.	March 2.	March 15
4 per cent Treasury Loan.....	$1,526,092 07	$1,037,392 39	$943,692 22
5 per cent Treasury Loan....	30,293,404 34	40,188,919 46	47,207,545 38
Temporary Loan, coin.....	9,547 00	4,450 00	4,450 00
Past due Treasury Notes.....	13,000 00	164,150 00	143,300 00
Suspended reqs	21,375,060 27	7,830,817 00	46,971,278 45
Temporary liabilities.....	$53,217,203 68	$48,725,728 68	$95,270,226 05
Old public debt.....	67,221,591 10	67,447,412 55	67,447,412 55
Three year 7-30 Bonds.....	139,536,450 00	138,772,300 00	138,063,800 00
U. S. N.....	450,785,004 60	449,119,548 10	449,073,616 60
Fractional Currency.....	18,246,290 15	18,745,720 15	19,173,320 15
20 Year Loan of 1861.....	50,000,000 00	50,000,000 00	50,000,000 00
20 Year Bonds E	.....	1,227,000 00	1,935,500 00
1 Year Treasury Notes.....	.....	5,860 05	14,600,000 00
2 Year Treasury Notes.....	50,000,000 00	95,502,031 22	115,581,414 03
Oregon W. Debt.....	1,016,000 00	1,016,000 00	1,016,000 00
Certificate of Indebtedness....	137,980,950 00	136,121,650 00	131,098,000 00
6 per cent 5-20 Bonds.....	503,005,178 51	510,165,446 92	510,740,100 00
Total...	$1,473,225,714 35	1,513,702,837 62	1,596,999,429 38
Less amount in Treasury....	4,033,064 69	9,411,795 27	16,797,655 14
Total, March 1, 1864,.....	$1,469,192,649 66	1,513,291,042 35	1,580,201,774 24

This presents a very interesting chart of the Treasury movements. In the first fifteen days of March it appears $7,000,000 have been deposited at five per cent with the Treasury under five per cent temporary loan head. There have been issued $400,000 fractional notes; $9,000,000 one year legal tender, and $20,000,000 of two year legal-tender; making an increase of $29,400,000 in floating paper, or very nearly $2,000,000 per day. At the same time the "suspended requisitions" have increased $39,640,461.45. These probably embrace the army pay due on the first of March.

The seven-thirty notes decreased it appears $708,748, and the twenty-year bonds increased $708,500, showing the conversion of the former into the latter under this law.

The means of the department in that fifteen days were then as follows:

Received on Deposit, 5 per cent.....	$7,018,626
One year legal tender notes issued	8,740,000
Two year legal tender notes issued.....	20,079,383
Fractional currency.....	427,600
Total means.....	$36,265,609
Unpaid requisitions.....	30,640,416
Total increase, 15 days.....	$75,903,025

Almost the sole dependence for this expenditure were, it appears, the legal-

tender notes, of which the two-year issues were stopped by the following order, thus leaving the one year notes alone to meet the daily wants of fully two millions per day:

TREASURY OF THE UNITED STATES,
WASHINGTON, Tuesday, March 14.

Subscriptions having been received for the total amount of two-year five per cent Treasury notes with coupons attached, which it is proposed to issue, you will please receive no deposits on account of such notes after the receipt of this notice. F. E. SPINNER, Treasurer U. S.

There were then issued some new two year notes bearing interest five per cent payable at the maturity of the note. On the 25th of March a new loan was offered under the law of March 3, 1864, being a five per cent 10-40 year stock.

It appears from the above statement of debt that the amount which bears gold interest is $764,202,812, and the annual interest is $45,852,168. The largest amount ever obtained from the customs was last year $69,059,642. In 1858 the amount was $48,000,000. The increase of the public debt has been as follows:

	Debt.	Increase per day.
July 1, 1862	$508,526,499	.....
" 1, 1863	1,098,793,181	$1,617,300
Sept. 30, 1863	1,222,113,559	1,370,200
March 15, 1864	1,580,201,774	2,157,150

The appropriations for the year beginning July 1 are over $1,300,000,000 and the present laws authorize $1,100,000,000 of gold interest debt. Hence the expense of the next seven months are likely to be as much as for the last six months, viz: $2,157,150 per day, which will give an increase of $453,001,500 in the debt, and this must be derived either from more paper or gold interest debt. In the latter case $27,000,000 will be added to the gold interest, and four and a half million to the sinking fund, making a demand within the next twelve months of $85,000,000 for gold, which is not likely to be derived from customs. In this view it is clearly not prudent to sell any gold now on hand. The Secretary, however, has caused the following notice to be issued.

UNITED STATES TREASURY, NEW YORK, March 23, 1654.

By direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, notice is hereby given that until further orders I will issue to importers, for payment of duties on goods imported by them, certificates of deposit of gold coin, to the credit of the Collector of any port as desired, in exchange for notes, at a quarter of one per centum below the current market value of gold.

These certificates are not assignable, but will be receivable by the Collector from the party to whom they are issued.

J. J. CISCO.
Assistant Treasurer of the United States.

No.—— United States Treasury, New York,————1864.

I certify that————has this day deposited to the credit of the Collector of the port of New York $———— in gold coin. This certificate is receivable only for duties on imports from the party to whom it is issued, and upon his indorsement. ————Assistant Treasurer.

$————

This threw a vast responsibility upon the Assistant Secretary, but the unlimited confidence that the public justly have in Mr. CISCO took away from the measure the distrust that might otherwise have attached to it. As a result the

movement after overcoming the difficulties of fixing a marked value, was merely to stop the purchase of gold for customs for a few weeks. The gold movement was as follows:

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1863.		1864.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in bank.	Prem. on gold.
Jan. 2	.....	681,448	254,239	590,262	25,161,935	51⅛ a 52
9	1,277,788	726,746	.....	1,216,204	25,122,002	51⅜ a 52
16	.....	1,380,247	279,801	1,985,057	24,884,264	52⅛ a 56⅛
23	678,841	780,817	365,608	1,000,000	24,631,204	56 a 58
30	.....	1,331,027	324,864	668,747	24,203,632	56⅛ a ...
Feb. 6	301,860	1,277,000	.....	662,616	24,070,191	59⅜ a ...
13	359,987	1,152,846	363,198	1,219,808	23,521,453	59⅛ a ...
20	.....	520,017	.....	325,632	22,523,918	61 a ...
27	285,394	1,377,016	407,657	531,700	22,301,687	59⅛ a 61
March 5	1,243,551	733,643	512,358	629,803	21,220,658	61 a 62
12	.....	3,540,550	.....	465,920	20,750,495	62 a 69
19	249,514	1,201,907	281,304	83,881	21,059,512	62 a 62¼
26	159,105	1,050,156	375,101	273,900	20,425,504	69¼ a 70⅛
Total...	4,556,031	15,753,420	3,163,630	9,653,660	.....	

In the last week in March the prices had risen under the demands accumulated from a long delay. The issue of the circular above quoted, however, caused a deduction to 165 on the 28th, which again rallied to 171½ in the first week in April. The circumstances that affected gold also had an influence upon exchange, and the market for bills was generally below the corresponding gold rate, as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 2,	166 a 166½	3.38⅜ a 3.34¼	62⅛ a 63	62⅜ a 63½	55½ a 56	110⅛ a 111
" 9,	166½ a 167⅜	3.38⅜ a 3.40	62⅜ a 63	62⅜ a 63½	55⅝ a 56¼	110½ a 111
" 16,	169½ a 170⅜	3.30 a 3.32½	64 a 64½	64¼ a 64⅜	56½ a 57¼	112⅜ a 113⅜
" 23,	170 a 171	3.31 a 3.33	64⅛ a 64½	64⅛ a 65	56⅜ a 57	112⅜ a 113⅜
" 30,	171 a 172	3.32½ a 3.28½	64¼ a 64⅜	64⅛ a 65	57¼ a 57½	113½ a 114
Feb. 6,	174 a 175	3.26¼ a 3.23⅜	65¼ a 66⅜	65½ a 66	58 a 58½	115 a 116
" 13,	173 a 174½	3.27½ a 3.23½	65 a 65½	65¼ a 65½	58¼ a 58½	115½ a 116½
" 20,	172½ a 174	3 27½ a 3.23⅜	65½ a 65⅜	65½ a 65⅜	58¼ a 58½	115½ a 116
" 27,	173½ a 174	2.26½ a 3.22	65½ a 65¼	65⅜ a 66	58⅜ a 58⅜	115⅜ a 116½
Mar. 5,	174½ a 175⅜	3.25 a 3.21¼	65⅜ a 66¼	66 a 66½	58½ a 59	116 a 117
" 12,	177 a 178	3.15 a 3.18⅜	66 a 66¼	67 a 67½	59 a 59½	117¼ a 118
" 19,	176 a 177	3.22½ a 3.18⅜	65½ a 66¼	66 a 66½	58½ a 59	116 a 117
" 26,	179½ a 182	3.15 a 3.10	67⅜ a 68¼	68 a 68⅜	60½ a 61	120 a 121½

In another column will be found the supplemental bill passed for the issue of a new loan by the department. The original bill authorized the loan at 10-40 years, not less than six per cent. The new law authorized it at 5-40 years, but the stock was put upon the market at 10-40 year five per cent stock. The first day, March 26, $875,000 were subscribed, the second day $130,000, and the third $430,000, when the national banks were authorized to receive subscriptions. The price of the government stocks were as follows:

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881.			7 3-10,	1 year certif.		
	Reg.	Coup.	5's, 1874.	3 years.	Old.	New.	Gold.
January 2,.....	104⅜	105⅛	96	106⅛	101⅛	97⅜	151½ a 151⅝
" 9.....	104⅜	105¼	96	166⅛	102	97⅝	152 a 152½
" 16,.....	104	105¼	96	106¼	102¼	97⅞	155 a 155¼

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	73-10, 3 years.	1 year certif. Old.	1 year certif. New.	Gold.
" 23,.....	106	107	97	107	103	97	156 a 158
" 30,.....	106⅝	106	100	107⅛	102⅝	97⅝	156½ a 156⅝
February 6.....	107⅝	107¼	100	108	102⅝	98⅜	159⅜ a 159⅝
" 13,.....	109⅝	109⅝	100	109½	103	98⅝	159¼ a 159½
" 20,.....	111½	110	100	111	103	99¼	159⅜ a 161
" 27,.....	111¼	110½	100	111	103	99¼	159⅜ a 161
March 5,.....	111¼	111	100	111	103¼	99⅜	161¼ a 161½
" 12,.....	112	112	100	110½	103	99⅜	162½ a 162⅝
" 19,.....	112	112½	100	110½	103	99¼	162 a 162¼
" 26,.....	112	112¼	100	111½	103	99¼	169⅜ a 179

The six per cent 5-20 stock payable in twelve years are quoted with the accumulated interest at 109⅝, which bears a premium of 106 net price, and with gold at 170, this is equal to 63 specie price, at which the stock pays 11 per cent interest, and is therefore better for the buyer than the five per cent at 100.

Investments ran very heavy in stocks, but the rise in gold caused some fluctuation, and there was apparent a growing demand to invest in substantial property like mines. Hence attention was turned to the mineral wealth of the west, causing its development to be pushed with great vigor under growing improvements that make gold and silver production constantly less expensive. Governor EVANS of Colorado, in his annual message, remarks :

"The improvement in the modes of saving gold from the ores of our mines that have been made during the past year have given a new impulse to our mining operations. By these new processes ores that paid but twenty-five dollars per ton by the old process, are readily made to yield one hundred dollars per ton, while many varieties produce much more largely, and this without greatly increasing the expenses."

The improvements here alluded to are as well chemical as mechanical, and are some of them very curious. Thus the gold in the quartz is associated with iron pyrites ; it is held very tenaciously, as if combined itself with the sulphur always present. The old plan, after drawing off the sulphur, was to pulverize very fine and then apply quicksilver, which united with all the gold free, forming a paste which, exposed to heat, lost the quicksilver in vapor, leaving the gold pure. By this process much gold was lost because it adhered to the pyrites and passed off in the tailings. A new process of roasting at a certain heat drives off the sulphur without adding to the cohesion of the pyrites or causing the gold to volatilize. This process increases the produce threefold. In other cases, where the ores are finely pulverized, the gold becomes so fine as to float in the air, thus escaping the quicksilver. This difficulty has been met by heating the quicksilver into vapor inclosed in a cylinder, into which the dust penetrates. The vapor thus fixes the floating particles of gold, and the yield has been raised in the proportion of two to five. There are numerous other contrivances that produce vast results.

In addition to this is the application of capital to the mechanical improvement of the operations. Thus the veins crop out on the hills and are worked down one hundred to two hundred feet each in a separate shaft—the product being greater as the depth increases. The Atlantic and Pacific Gold and Silver Mining Company have seven of these shafts that yield largely of silver. The Quarz Hill Company veins give gold. The former company embracing the most responsible and sagacious capitalists organized a large capital with

which to drive a tunnel into the side of the hill tapping all the veins, and causing the ore to descend instead of being lifted. The results are so immense from these new applications of capital that $25,000,000 so employed in one region draws $1,000,000 in gold, or four per cent per month interest. The Mexican Pacific Company is now being organized to prosecute operations on the Pacific coast of Mexico under grants from the Mexican Government to 185§ square miles of land. This is an important enterprise, and the substantial names composing the board of directors are a guarantee of its soundness.

These are vast results in gold income from capital investment, and they have stimulated great exertions in the same direction. With great success, aided by the improvements we have mentioned, they have also given color to a cloud of bogus companies, representing old, abandoned worthless claims, and got up to sell. The unwary will be severely bitten with many of them, while great results will flow from judicious investments in sound companies. The effect that these developments must have upon the future prosperity of the country is obvious. Indeed next to direct support to the Treasury there is no more important national object than working the mineral wealth.

The general business has been held in abeyance by the idea that gold would be sold from the Treasury to depress the price and that goods might be lower, a large importation of goods took place however as follows :

IMPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Free goods.	Entered for Consumption.	Entered for Warehouse.	Total.
January	$141,790	$841,050	$12,422,648	$5,571,936	$18,977,395
February	88,150	797,788	15,766,601	4,991,398	21,643,937
Total	$229,940	$1,638,838	$28,189,249	$10,563,334	$40,621,332
" 1863....	315,877	3,197,210	16,113,766	8,140,569	27,767,422
" 1862....	225,665	5,933,528	13,821,570	6,512,211	26,492,969

The importations for the month of February exceeded those of January, and were much in excess of those of last year—while the quantity of goods in warehouse diminished to a considerable extent.

EXPORTS, PORT OF NEW YORK.

	Specie.	Foreign. Free.	Foreign. Dutiable.	Domestic.	Total.
Jan.....	$5,459,079	$42,232	$664,485	$11,443,953	$17,609,749
Feb	3,015,367	77,698	456,493	13,662,218	17,211,776
Total.....	$8,474,446	$119,930	$1,120,978	$25,106,171	$34,821,525
" 1863...	8,590,238	117,000	1,278,284	32,109,984	42,095,506
" 1862...	6,455,193	76,259	358,250	22,131,578	29,001,280

The exports of the month were much less than for the same month last year. The value of merchandise was $14,196,409, whicht a the average price of specie realize in bills $9,120,000 making with the specie a value equal to $12,135,000 with which to meet a specie value of $21,643,937 of imports—showing a deficit of near nine and a half millions. This was brought about to some extent through the influence of the gold bill agitation, which spread the belief that there would be a fall in gold, that would favor importation and discourage exportation. The natural effect would be a fall in price.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

BANKING MOVEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES—LONDON MONEY MARKET—BANK OF ENGLAND, ETC. BANK OF FRANCE—BANK OF MEXICO—NEW LOAN ACT—THE ACT ALLOWING TREASURER TO DISPOSE OF GOLD.

BANKING MOVEMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE bank movement of the three cities, the last three months, is of much interest in a general way, since it has been marked, as during the previous month, by symptoms of collision between the new system called into being by the National Banking Law, and by the workings of the five per cent interest bearing legal-tender notes paid out by the Government.

Our readers will, doubtless, bear in mind the loan made by the associated banks to the Government on the 5th of September, the details of which we have published in full in former numbers. That loan bore six per cent interest, and was not paid until the year 1864, when the banks received $50,000,000 of legal-tender notes, drawing five per cent interest from the 1st of December, 1863. These notes, it was supposed, would be taken up as an investment, and not act directly upon the markets as currency. A very little experience, however, showed that this view was erroneous. At the time they were paid to the banks money was worth seven or eight per cent; and the one year six per cent certificates of indebtedness of the Government were selling at ninety-seven cents per dollar. It is evident that, as the new notes in their character of legal-tender could be paid away for certificates that would give nine per cent interest, they could not be held for the sake of five per cent interest they bore. They were, therefore, freely paid out by the banks as currency. The government, at the same time, emitted others to meet its daily wants, and in doing so, stamped the notes with the dates of emission in order that they should draw interest only from the date of emission. The notes so uttered were received and paid out freely by the Treasury, and the banks without reference to the interest. This large supply of currency, added to the influx from the country on the commencement of the spring trade, caused the deposits in the banks to increase to a great extent as will be seen in the table of the weekly returns hereto annexed.

It is the custom of the banks in making those returns to include all that draws interest under the head of "loans." Hence, when in September they advanced to the Government $50,000,000 the loans were swollen by the amount. But when the Government paid off the loan in interest, bearing legal-tender, as that paper was more currency than investment, it did not appear among the loans. The accumulation of money, however, soon exceeded the demand, and the price o money fell from eight to five per cent. The interest bearing legal-tender therefore became available with their accumulated interest as an investment. The peculiarity of the paper is, however, that in order to realize the interest it must be held until June 1, whereas if they were deposited with the Treasurer for five per cent deposit certificates, these would be available with interest at ten days

notice. Therefore, when money became cheap in February, the banks deposited them to the extent of nearly $10,000,000 with the Treasury.

A new element here came into action. The national banks had multiplied to an extent that forced their circulation, with its privileges and peculiarities, upon the public attention. There are now two hundred and seventy-eight National banks organized, with a capital of $33,042,000. Eight million dollars of the new National currency in fives and tens have been issued to one hundred and seventy-eight banks. Of the new banks, ten are in the city of New York. All the circulating notes issued by the National Banks are a legal-tender between the Government and the people, although not among the people, and any National Bank may put out the notes of any others. Thus, a New York bank may pay out the notes of an Oregon or New Orleans bank, and the latter may pay out New York bank notes, while the Government pay all of them out anywhere. That is the notes received in New York for taxes may be paid in the west or elsewhere. Inasmuch as the notes of the National Banks are redeemable in greenbacks only at the place of issue, a very little management will render it a perfectly inconvertible currency. This is a serious matter, the possible consequences of which must be guarded against by solvent institutions. For this reason, therefore, the associated banks agreed that they would not receive notes of, or checks upon, National Banks that were not redeemed and guaranteed by an associated bank. This determination was reached February 29th, at a meeting of bank officers, held at the American Exchange Bank, at which thirty-five of the city banks were represented. We give the following resolutions passed at that meeting, only the last two of which, however, refers to this subject.

Resolved, That the resolutions adopted at the meetings of the Clearing-House Association, held on the 7th of March, and the 23d of April, 1862, authorizing the use of the temporary loan certificates of deposit, issued by JOHN J. CISCO, Esq., assistant treasurer of the United States, as a medium for the settlement of balances at the Clearing-House, to the extent of forty million of dollars, be now rescinded, and that all such United States temporary loan certificates, heretofore known as Clearing-House certificates, which are held and reported by the banks on the morning of the first day of March proximo, may be used at the Clearing-House for the settlement of balances until the first day of April next, but not after that date.

Resolved, That if any bank, member of the Clearing-House Association, shall elect to hold such United States temporary loan Clearing-House certificates, after the first day of April next, that they shall continue to report the amount of such certificates so held, to the Clearing-House daily, until the morning of the third day of May next, that being the date when the next payment of interest will become due thereon; and the interest upon the certificates so held and reported, together with the interest upon such certificates previously held and reported, shall be paid to such banks as heretofore, by the chairman of the Clearing-House committee, and the manager of the Clearing-House; but that after said third day of May next the interest accruing upon such certificates shall be collected from the government by the banks holding the same.

Resolved, That the Loan-Committee be authorized to receive any United States five per cent legal-tender treasury notes that may be deposited with them by any bank, member of the Clearing-House Association, and to issue therefor loan certificates, equal to the amount of such deposit, in certificates of one, five, or ten thousand dollars, as may be desired by the bank making such deposit.

Resolved, That such certificates shall bear interest at the rate of five per centum per annum, payable monthly on the first day of each month after their issue, and until they shall have been returned to the Loan-Committee and exchanged for the

five per cent United States legal-tender treasury notes upon deposit of which they were issued.

Resolved, That the loan certificates issued as provided by the preceding resolutions may be used in the settlement of balances at the Clearing-House until the 6th day of June next.

Resolved, That a statement of the amount of the United States five per cent temporary loan (Clearing-House) certificates, and the amount of loan certificates held on the morning of each day before the commencement of business, shall be made to the Loan-Committee daily, at or before 11 o'clock, A. M.

On motion of the President of the Manhattan Company, J. M. MORISON, ESQ., it was unanimously

Resolved, That Messrs. C. P. LEVERICH, GEORGE S. COE, J. D. VERMILYE, R. H. LOWRY, and H. L. JAQUES, who, as a Loan-Committee of the associated banks, for several months past, have had the management of the arrangements connected with the loan made by the banks to the United States on the 8th of September last, and who have discharged and completed the very important business referred to them in the most satisfactory manner, be respectfully and *earnestly* requested to continue to act as Loan-Committee, on behalf of the banks, until the arrangements for the issue of loan certificates which have been made by this meeting shall have been completed.

After some discussion the following resolutions were then *unanimously* adopted, viz.:

Resolved, That the banks composing the Clearing-House Association agree to receive from their customers *at par* the notes of all such National Banks as are guaranteed to be redeemed *at par* in *lawful money of the United States* by any bank member of the New York Clearing-House Association, and that all National Bank notes that are not so redeemed shall be considered and treated as uncurrent money.

Resolved, That we will receive on deposit certified checks on such National Banks in this city, as are redeemed through the Clearing-House, by any bank member of that association. *Provided*, that such member shall first engage, by notice given to every other bank member of the association, that it will be responsible for such checks to the extent required by the provision of the constitution of the Clearing-House Association.

On motion, the proceedings of the meeting were ordered to be printed, and a copy thereof sent to each of the banks, and the secretary was directed to request the banks not represented at the meeting to assent to its proceedings and unite therein.

The meeting then adjourned.

MOSES TAYLOR, Esq., acted as Chairman, and GEORGE D. LYMAN, Esq., as Secretary.

These resolutions look to a permanent policy, but practically at present the national circulation is to the associated banks of little importance since it is eagerly sought after by Government to pay troops. The $467,000,000 greenbacks which have been already issued are mostly of large denominations, a fact growing out of the extreme haste in which each issue has been got out. They were prepared only when the Treasury was under the pressure of immense arrears, and therefore notes of large denominations only were printed. The notes of old banks are not receivable by the Treasury. When, therefore, the troops are to be paid a great want of small notes is experienced. To meet this want there is a constant and urgent demand by the Treasury for all the National Bank notes. There is, therefore, no difficulty on the part of the banks at present in receiving the national notes and turning them into the Treasury. This will be the case as long as the Government continues to borrow $2,000,000 per day, and

refuses old bank notes. When this borrowing process shall cease, and the national issues shall approach their limit of $226,000,000, and the issuers begin to find difficulty in keeping them out, the danger will begin to show itself. The necessity of keeping out the notes on the part of needy issuers will lead to the usual practices for the purpose, and the above resolutions adopted by the old banks will be a safeguard. This, however, and some other evils of the new system, are likely to be corrected. A committee of bank officers was appointed to proceed to Washington, and obtain some modifications of the law, particularly in relation to placing government deposits in new banks, and compelling the new banks to keep an agent for the redemption of their notes at the business centre. Also a change of the regulation of the department which seeks to force every bank to adopt a numeral instead of a name. These suggestions have been adopted by the Comptroller of the currency, and the Committee of the House have in accordance therewith, reported in substance the following amendments to the general law:

National Banks are to be required to redeem their circulating notes in the city of New York at a small discount. A uniform rate of interest (seven per cent) is to be established throughout the United States for National Banks. The lawful money reserve that is to be kept on hand is to be reduced from twenty-five to fifteen per cent for country banks, and from twenty-five to twenty per cent for city banks.

Provision is also made for the closing of banks whenever the owners of two-thirds of the capital stock shall deem it expedient. Banks cannot be organized with a less capital than $100,000 in the country and $200,000 in the cities. It will be made imperative that an amount of bonds equal to one-third of the capital stock paid up shall be kept on deposit with the Treasurer of the United States, whether banks take circulation for them or not.

While these propositions in Congress look to the modification of the National loan, an act has been introduced into the State Legislature to the following effect:

Section 1. Provides that any bank association, corporation, or individual, incorporated by or under the laws of this State at the time of the passage of the act of Congress, February 25, 1863, may, at any time within two years after the passage of the act, become an association under the provision of said act of Congress, provided that two-thirds of the capital stock consent thereto, and that the cashier shall publish notice thereof in some newspaper published in city or county where such banking association is located for at least thirty days, and send a similar notice to the Banking Department of the State.

Section 2. Provides that nothing contained in this act shall be so construed as to exempt the shares from taxation under the laws of this State.

Section 3. Provides that nothing ordered herein shall be understood as releasing such associations from their obligations to pay and discharge all the liabilities incurred before becoming such association, and they shall be continued as bodies corporate for the term of three years, to enable them to close their concerns.

The facility of obtaining the use of the public deposits has been a stimulant to the new banks. This privilege has, however, operated singularly to the disadvantage of the Treasury as we stated last month. The law which permits the deposit of funds with the Treasury in exchange for five per cent certificates lays down no limitation, neither does the law allow the public money to be deposited with the national banks contain any restrictions as to the application of those funds. Hence, it has occurred that the public money has been transferred

from the Treasury, its national custodian, into the keeping of National Banks, and they, at a time when money could not amply be employed in the open market, have re-deposited it with the Treasury in exchange for five per cent certificates, thus drawing five per cent interest on the public money without giving any service therefor.

In the meantime, the amount of business for either new or old banks to do is far less than in ordinary times, since mercantile dealings are so generally for cash. The large amount of individual notes usually created on the sale of goods is not now called into being. The immense amount of drafts and interest paper that formerly grew out of the movement of crops, particularly cotton, and which formed the legitimate object of banking operations, have now meanwhile ceased to exist, and the largest proportion of the bank funds are employed in government securities. This is true as well of the old banks as the new. Hence the prospect of any large legitimate banking business seems to be out of the question for the present, and it is precisely at such a moment that the banking capital of the country is doubled. Both systems draw their profits from the manipulation of the government funds, and the future, therefore, holds out for them but a gloomy prospect. The difficulties of a return on the part of either system to specie payments will be very great. The new banks provided by the Government are not required even to pay specie, and have no need ever to provide for it. The banks are called into being and granted certain power, one of which is to issue paper redeemable in "greenbacks."

And so, too, the notes of the old banks are equally redeemable in greenbacks. But the chief difficulty in the way of specie redemption arises from the fact that the assets of both, *now created* by them, are at values created by the legal-tender, the withdrawal of which would sink all one-half. Some prudent banks have, therefore, thought that there was but one alternative for them. They may keep their capitals on hand in gold, or they may wind up and go into liquidation, while yet legal-tenders are serviceable for the discharge of obligations. The latter involves the power of a corporation in prosperous circumstances to wind up its affairs, a question which we understand is in course of investigation by legal authority.

The redemption of specie payments by the New York banks in 1838, is not a parallel to the present circumstances, because the suspension was but a year, and the banks steadily prepared for it. There was also no intermediate legal-tender between the notes and specie. When they gradually contracted their issues they brought values down to the specie level without convulsions. The United States Bank did not do so, it attempted to prolong suspension, and was finally a total loss with some $200,000,000 of bank capital that followed its policy. The Bank of England, after the French war, was seven years preparing for it by contraction, and thus reducing prices, so that resumption was possible in 1821, and there was then no intermediate legal-tender to get rid of. We have now out and in course of issue $1,000,000,000 of legal-tender, all of which must be paid off by taxation, or funded into a specie stock before specie payments can be thought of. There will remain $400,000,000 bank notes, new and old, that must be reduced full one half before specie payment can be resumed. In other words $1,200,000 of debt must be paid before we can get down to the specie level.

The inflation of values that now constitute a part of the bank assets is very

manifest in the column of clearings given in the weekly bank statement. These have swollen to an immense extent. In the year 1861, the whole amount of clearings for the year was $5,915,742,758. This sum is equal to nine weeks of the present rate. In other words, the rate of clearings now is 29,000 millions per annum. The following are the bank returns for the three cities brought down to the latest dates.

NEW YORK BANKS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $————; *Jan.*, 1863, $69,494,577.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
January 2,..	$174,714,465	$25,161,935	$6,103,331	$140,250,856	$300,753,147
" 9,..	173,009,701	25,122,002	6,032,546	134,861,977	387,546,217
" 16,..	165,991,170	23,884,264	6,008,182	130,311,046	416,962,806
" 23,..	162,925,880	24,077,513	5,049,807	130,136,203	460,811,543
" 30,..	162,296,896	24,203,632	5,913,558	130,665,415	427,306,608
February 6,..	163,076,846	24,070,791	5,974,762	133,849,042	425,430,985
" 13,..	165,090,329	23,521,453	5,916,707	140,464,616	467,751,745
" 20,..	168,302,935	22,523,918	5,908,394	148,014,106	514,887,411
" 27,..	174,928,205	22,301,687	5,907,851	154,875,059	575,442,304
March 5,..	182,317,378	21,188,034	5,937,167	158,999,668	518,951,433
" 12,..	189,757,746	20,750,405	5,918,807	168,044,977	688,822,273
" 19,..	198,229,513	21,059,542	5,889,197	169,637,975	618,338,858
" 26,..	199,372,437	20,425,504	5,514,139	168,315,904	576,253,989
April 2,..	203,993,131	19,526,665	5,708,908	171,151,297	676,372,745

BOSTON BANKS.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $38,231,700; *Jan.*, 1862, $38,231,700.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 4,..	$76,805,343	$7,503,889	$9,625,043	$32,525,679	$12,831,000	$12,351,500
" 11,..	77,747,734	7,531,195	10,185,615	31,524,185	12,703,600	11,019,000
" 18,..	75,877,427	7,464,511	9,963,389	31,151,240	12,041,000	11,769,000
" 25,..	74,146,000	7,440,000	9,729,000	30,893,000	11,106,700	12,227,000
Feb 1,..	73,959,175	7,385,413	9,660,163	30,655,782	10,825,000	11,854,500
" 8,..	71,765,122	7,265,104	9,579,020	30,030,292	11,315,000	12,272,000
" 15,..	71,088,849	7,224,924	9,741,471	30,412,647	11,615,000	13,448,000
" 22,..	71,074,000	7,215,500	9,411,000	31,831,000	11,329,600	14,925,400
" 29,..	72,189,003	7,179,310	9,371,440	33,155,888	12,224,663	16,189,724
Mar. 7,..	72,687,363	7,108,519	9,606,318	33,688,017	12,313,829	16,535,992
" 14,..	72,105,111	7,052,181	9,490,311	33,891,204	12,704,181	17,315,231
" 21,..	73,207,121	7,033,721	9,548,211	35,090,181	13,092,531	17,266,741
" 28,..	73,485,514	7,016,086	9,210,096	34,859,508	13,352,706	17,071,732
April 4,..	71,838,506	6,856,708	9,442,082	32,861,609	13,601,005	15,786,091

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1862, $11,970,130.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 4,...	$35,698,808	$4,158,585	$2,055,811	$29,878,920	$4,316,763	$2,963,563
" 11,...	35,458,967	4,158,235	2,050,891	30,484,227	4,001,473	2,814,188
" 18,...	34,896,842	4,158,125	2,044,427	31,194,851	4,330,120	3,063,148
" 25,...	34,849,959	4,103,065	2,047,846	32,354,253	3,500,693	2,905,921
Feb. 1,...	34,345,126	4,108,109	2,056,532	32,027,147	3,453,431	3,271,306
" 8,...	34,146,677	4,102,671	2,066,069	31,033,030	4,080,059	2,461,873
" 15,...	34,590,880	4,102,748	2,069,061	29,911,704	4,322,609	2,080,750
" 22,...	35,059,676	4,102,588	2,119,488	30,783,741	4,463,751	2,099,778
" 29,...	35,519,704	4,102,848	2,167,348	31,435,753	4,837,264	2,114,227
Mar. 7,...	35,913,334	4,102,632	2,208,492	31,712,547	5,323,316	2,116,042
" 14,...	35,956,678	4,099,707	2,308,250	32,511,405	5,508,146	2,333,819
" 21,...	36,412,923	4,099,664	2,340,132	32,835,038	6,933,974	2,428,227
" 29,...	36,695,415	4,096,401	2,357,768	33,156,496	5,791,191	2,724,935
April 4,...	37,262,220	4,095,495	2,390,092	34,404,607	5,641,638	3,425,805

LONDON MONEY MARKET—BANK OF ENGLAND, &C.

THE course of events in Europe has produced singular fluctuations in the course of the banks of both France and England, causing a rapid rise and fall in the rates of interest. At the date of our last number, the rate had been 8 per cent, and it has since been reduced to 6 per cent, although the causes of the advance still remain in active operation, and will soon, in all probability, induce a return to as high, if not higher, rates. These causes are mainly, as we have stated many times before, the results of our war, which, withdrawing from the markets of the world a value of cotton equal to $200,000,000 per annum, threw upon distant and chiefly new sources of supply, a demand which they have been enabled to supply only at greatly advanced prices. The amount of money which Europe has been required to pay for that raw material is indicated in the following table, the values imported into Great Britain for each of the last three years:

	E. Indies.	Brazil.	Egypt.	Other countries.	Total.
1861.....	£9,459,556	£690,100	£1,546,897	£386,445	£12,082,998
1862.....	22,042,437	1,676,741	3,723,440	2,429,150	29,871,768
1863.....	27,180,111	1,911,005	7,601,211	8,510,121	45,202,448

Thus, India has drawn $135,000,000, Egypt $38,000,000, and new countries $40,000,000. It has been the case, as usual with all new enforced business, that specie only is taken in payment for this vast amount of cotton; and of specie silver has been the chief article in demand, for the reason that in India, on account of certain religious and superstitious ideas, as well as long habits, that metal is the favorite. The following exports of the metals have resulted from Great Britain:

EXPORTS OF SPECIE FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

	E. Indies.	Brazil.	Other countries.	Total.
1862	£12,629,830	£452,392	£16,243,969	£29,326,191
1863	12,289,430	1,731,037	12,523,573	26,544,040

This large movement could not, as a matter of course, take place without causing a severe drain upon the banking resources, and to an extent which required great caution on the part of the banks.

But besides this drain, by reason of the cotton purchases, there have been other causes at work which have helped to disturb the European money market. During the first three years of the war an immense decrease took place in the amount of money employed in the manufacturing business, as a consequence of the diminished supply of the raw material. On this account money became very abundant, and the more so because all over the world there were held overstocks of manufactured goods, which suddenly rose in value and were remitted home in greater profits. That circumstance caused money to be more abundant, and counteracted to some extent the new demand for cotton. It has, however, now nearly ceased, leaving the full weight of a growing demand for cotton to fall upon the exchanges.

Meantime, the abundance of money in England caused it to seek new channels for employment, and an immense number of new commercial enterprises were projected to operate with British capital in all quarters of the world. This sudden home abundance of capital gave an impulse to events that have long been in course of development. It is evident, since the general peace of 1815, that the nations of Western Europe and North America, by developing manufactur-

ing industry to a marvelous extent, each surpassing the other in some peculiarities of natural resources or mechanical aptitude, were rapidly reaching a point where international intercourse would be restricted by similarity of productions; for, when the surplus products of each nation should come to closely resemble each other, interchange would cease. Hence the trade of agricultural or tropical countries has become more and more important to the great manufacturers who require supplies of raw materials on the best terms, while at the same time they seek more extended markets for their products. Intercourse with the United States has been maintained by the ever increasing supplies of materials and food which have been furnished hence to the manufacturers of England and Europe. The working up of the materials thus obtained has largely employed the capital of England.

At the same time rail-roads, the telegraph, steam, the attractions of gold and other circumstances, have prepared the way for more extended knowledge of remote countries, and have supplied the means of reaching them regularly and promptly, while they have called forth a more migratory spirit among all nations. The newly opened countries have presented capabilities that attracted the enterprising, but the means of employing and rightly directing local labor have been wanting. The great international exhibitions, which have been furnished with samples of the products of all quarters of the world, have given a spur to a new class of enterprises.

When the American blockade cut off the supplies of cotton, rice and tobacco, a large capital in England was thrown out of employment, and money became there, as we have said, very cheap. At the same time the necessities of the case impelled the greatest exertions to find supplies of cotton elsewhere, and all countries likely to supply cotton were ransacked without much success. Out of this necessity, however, has grown a more extended action. The cheap capital of England has been forming itself into companies for the development of tropical productions in the most remote quarters. India is, at present, the object of most of the enterprises, but the West Indies are also attracting attention. The large capital flowing from London over the most distant countries, carries with it a germinating power destined to cause broad streams of increasing wealth to flow back into the warehouses of Great Britain and the world.

Among the numerous joint stock associations which are in England daily being announced, in order to take advantage of the ease of the money market, it is highly satisfactory to find that a considerable number of useful undertakings have been projected. Banks, railways and hotel companies have long received an undue share of the floating capital seeking investment. But the far-off fields of culture, where, with careful management and proper supervision, large remunerative returns might be obtained with a small outlay of capital, now take their places.

This class of companies will soon occupy an important position in the English stock market; but, whatever may be result to the stockholders, it is very evident that the markets of the world will soon feel the effects of the increased production of all that class of productions; and with the restoration of peace, a broader foundation for commercial enterprise and wealth will be found to exist, and cannot but act favorably upon the future of America.

It is here evident how much the forced withdrawal of capital from American cotton trade has fostered other and remote British interests, making very large demands upon capital.

It is not only in their distant enterprises, however, that capital has sought new employment. The greatest development has been given to joint-stock banking in and around London. It is known that the Bank of England has the sole right to issue notes within an area of sixty miles round London, but banks of deposit multiply without much limit, doing business with the notes supplied by that bank. Ten years back the number of London joint-stock banks was six, and the total deposits only about £22,000,000. The present list includes the business of two old established private banks,—Messrs HEYWOOD and Messrs HANKEY, who have amalgamated with the Consolidated Bank, the deposits of which amount to £4,006,558,—but with this exception it is not believed that the amounts in private hands have been diminished. On the contrary, they are understood to have steadily increased, like those in the joint-stock banks, so that the augmented figures now exhibited with respect to the latter may be accepted as a simple illustration of the rapid development of the commercial and financial powers of the country. As regards the Bank of England, the deposits held ten years ago was about £14,300,000, and it is now £20,140,000 :—

Banks.	Year Established.	Subscribed Capital.	Paid-up Capital.	Deposits.	Guarantee Fund.	Dividend per An. P.Cent.
London & Westminster	1834	£5,000,000	£1,000,000	£15,629,094	£275,953	80
London Joint-Stock	1836	3,000,000	600,000	14,056,731	279,579	20½
Union Bank of London	1839	3,000,000	*780,000	16,472,278	110,000	15
London and County	1839	1,500,000	600,600	9,634,638	100,000	18
City	1855	1,000,000	417,820	3,525,975	130,000	12
Bank of London	1855	600,000	300,000	4,179,294	112,000	15
Metropolitan and Provincial (Limited)	1861	1,000,000	200,000	784,108	6,000	5
Alliance Bank of London and Liverpool (Lim.)	1862	3,000,000	595,745	2,788,093	54,000	6
Imperial (Limited)	1862	1,000,000	199,950	606,439	3,000	5
Consolidated (Limited)	1863	1,494,070	597,628	4,006,558	20,000	12½
English & Irish (Limited	1863	502,200	75,320	256,485	nil.	...
London & South-Western (Limited)	1863	387,500	58,125	152,618	nil.	...
Total		21,483,770	5,424,588	71,792,311	1,090,532	...

This large amount of deposits, of over $350,000,000, in the London Joint-Stock Banks, in addition to $100,000,000 in the Bank of England, and $250,000,000 in private banks, makes the vast sum of $700,000,000 on deposit in London.

It is not a matter of surprise that this vast amount seeks an outlet in profitable employment elsewhere, but, at the same time, the sending it out of the country involves an export of coin, which is the basis of all values. The only mode in which that export of coin may be checked is by raising the value of money, and directing the measure against those interests which are most nearly allied to the export movement. Under these circumstances, where such a vast volume of capital is to be guided, the fluctuation is great. If the flow of a rivulet is checked its waters may rise a few feet in a few days; if the Hudson river

* £3 per share added to the reserved profits amounting to £180,000.

is damed its waters may rise twenty feet in an hour. Thus, in England, the volume of the capital is very large, and not only that, but the facility of communication has brought all the capital of Europe into prompt sympathy with the London market. If the rate rises to 8 per cent, the telegraph carries the news to every point of Europe, even to India, in an hour, and from every available point capital seeks the new rate, while the English out-flow stops. The accumulation is rapid, and the rate promptly drops, only, however, to rise again with the fact of cheap money. The Bank of England returns are as follows:—

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 2,...	21,685,732	7,234,894	12,924,545	31,980,889	13,048,475	8 per ct.
" 9,...	20,801,207	8,629,856	12,981,276	32,622,659	13,008,617	8 "
" 16,...	20,382,764	9,103,738	13,265,068	32,303,049	13,675,474	7 "
" 23,...	20,273,799	10,266,546	12,711,637	32,270,286	14,217,067	7 "
" 30,...	20,686,538	10,841,991	13,021,212	33,438,154	14,362,605	7 "
Jan. 6, '64	21,322,304	10,001,982	13,052,604	33,486,952	14,196,754	7 "
" 13,...	21,396,420	5,264,097	15,411,794	31,726,575	11,708,597	7 "
" 20,...	21,445,793	5,689,074	13,879,877	31,445,860	12,974,109	8 "
" 27,...	20,875,825	6,337,246	13,406,627	31,017,449	13,022,220	8 "
Feb. 3,...	21,162,626	6,748,867	13,372,981	31,436,334	13,303,243	8 "
" 10,...	20,708,113	7,254,682	12,882,226	36,923,317	13,472,271	7 "
" 17,...	20,696,172	7,079,789	13,306,156	31,078,328	13,583,635	7 "
" 24,...	20,207,871	8,153,601	12,426,673	30,504,827	13,819,412	6 "

At the close of February, the diminished bullion demand for India, and the easier state of the money market in Paris, partly consequent on the recent issue of $10,000,000 in 50f notes, led to a reduction in the inquiry. In face of the increasing resources of the bank, the directors had no option but to lower the rate of discount, which now stands at 6 per cent. The constant though moderate addition to the stock of bullion, and the gradual strengthening of the reserve, had induced most persons to expect this alteration, and to reserve for the lower rate the bills they desired to discount. There has been, therefore, rather more business since Thursday, although the supply is ample for all present wants. On the best bills, the outside rate is perhaps ⅛ below the terms of the bank, and there is in some quarters the usual sanguine disposition to look forward to still cheaper money, now that the course of the stream in the opposite direction has been so far arrested.

Bank of France.—The general circumstances of the cotton trade which have borne so heavily upon the English Banks have been no less burdensome to those of France, heightened in some degree by the political condition of Europe, which has, as is usually the case in times of disturbance, promoted hoarding of the metals. The general circumstances of the case have induced M. Leon Say to suggest to the French Government that a Commission should be appointed to inquire into the present monetary crisis. M. Felix Vernes, whose name is well known in the banking world, writes to the *Journal des Debats* to combat the proposition, on the ground that the cause of the crisis is perfectly well known,—namely, the large exports of the precious metals to pay for cotton in India and Egypt. M. Vernes says, moreover, that the crisis is not peculiar to France, but common to all Europe, and that in France there is but one remedy for it—the augmentation of the rate of discount of the Bank of France. The *Journal des Debats*, however, in opposition to M. Vernes, insists that an inquiry is desirable, and it suggests that it should be made as searching and complete as

those which are from time to time instituted by Committees of the English Parliament. It also recommends that it should comprise the question of a plurality of banks.

This latter question relates particularly to the Bank of Savoy, which claims to have the right of issuing notes in France like the Bank of France, while the Bank of France contends for a monopoly of the right. This question is, therefore, pending before the tribunal of public opinion, and excites great interest on account of its intrinsic importance, and also because it is supposed to have some bearing on the existing monetary crisis. It involves a scientific problem, which, though solved in England and the United States, is still far from decided in France,—namely, whether monopoly or liberty is the better; and the solution of it will not only be of great general importance, financially and commercially, but will affect more or less the interests of very powerful individuals. In the discussions to which it has given rise, some of the most eminent men in the economic and banking circles of France have taken part: M. MICHEL CHEVALIER, M. ISAAC PEREIRE, M. EMILE PEREIRE, M. D'EICHTHAL, M. WOLOWSKI, and M. LEON SAY; and even the Minister of Finance, M. FOULD, has raised his voice in the matter. M. MICHEL CHEVALIER takes the liberal view of the question. In a recent article in the *Journal des Debats*, he put the matter very tersely:—"If," said he, "the question be treated in an economic point of view, I want to know how an aristocratic monopoly can be defended when France is democratic? If it be treated in an economic point of view, I want to know how liberty can be refused in banking when it is established in everything else?" As an answer to M. MICHEL CHEVALIER, one of the defenders of the Bank of France presents in a daily newspaper extracts from the works of ROSSI and LEON FAUCHER, in which plurality of banks of issue is condemned.

Meantime, the condition of the Bank of France, the resources of which had run very low under the outward drain, caused much uneasiness. The bank had refrained from raising the rate of interest by reason of the Government loan pending.

The loan restored the means of the bank to some extent, and the institution promoted the abundance of money during a temporary check in the demand for specie for India, by issuing $10,000,000 in 50f. or $10 notes. The last two monthly returns of the institution were as follows:

BANK OF FRANCE.

	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
January —fr.	751,649,983	fr.169,027,010	fr.813,490,825	fr.159,797,667	7
February —	705,516,796	182,573,888	775,096,775	160,110,225	7
March —	642,135,993	195,994,738	746,610,375	142,925,719	6

BANK OF MEXICO.—Certain eminent French bankers and capitalists have not only resolved on starting a bank in Mexico, but have even obtained a provisional concession from General Almonte as chief of Regency, and they count on the support of the new Government about to be set up in that country, and also on encouragement from the French Government. The formation of a Mexican Bank is, regard being had to the peculiar situation of Mexico, one of those projects in which French and English capitalists can co-operate with great advantage. There is, however, in London a proposition for a new and rival bank, which, at the present juncture, would be a misfortune.

THE LOAN ACT OF MARCH, 1864.

We give below an official copy of the new loan act, and also the resolution passed authorizing the Treasurer to dispose of gold.

[Public—No. 15.]

"An Act supplementary to an act entitled 'An act to provide ways and means for the support of the Government,' approved March third, eighteen hundred and sixty-three.

"*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That, in lieu of so much of the loan authorized by the act of March third, eighteen hundred and sixty-three, to which this is supplementary, the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to borrow, from time to time, on the credit of the United States, not exceeding two hundred millions of dollars during the current fiscal year, and to prepare and issue therefor coupon or registered bonds of the United States, bearing date March first, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, or any subsequent period, redeemable at the pleasure of the Government after any period not less than five years, and payable at any period not more than forty years from date [in coin] and of such denominations as may be found expedient, not less than fifty dollars, bearing interest not exceeding six per centum a year, payable on bonds not over hundred dollars annually, and on all other bonds semi-annually, in coin; and he may dispose of such bonds at any time, on such terms as he may deem most advisable, for lawful money of the United States, or, at his discretion, for Treasury notes, certificates of indebtedness, or certificates of deposit, issued under any act of Congress; and all bonds issued under this act shall be exempt from taxation by or under State or municipal authority. And the Secretary of the Treasury shall pay the necessary expenses of the preparation, issue, and disposal of such bonds out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, but the amount so paid shall not exceed one-half per centum of the amount of the bonds so issued and disposed of.

"Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to issue to persons subscribed on or before the twenty-first day of January, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, for bonds redeemable after five years and payable twenty years from date, and have paid into the treasury the amount of their subscriptions, the bonds by them respectfully subscribed for, not exceeding eleven millions of dollars, notwithstanding that such subscriptions may be in excess of five hundred millions of dollars; and the bonds so issued shall have the same force and effect as if issued under the provisions of the act to 'authorize the issue of United States notes and for other purposes,' approved February twenty-six, eighteen hundred and sixty-two.

"Approved, March 3, 1864."

RESOLUTION AUTHORIZING SECRETARY OF TREASURY TO DISPOSE OF GOLD.

[Public Resolution—No. 18.]

"Joint resolution to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to anticipate the payment of interest on the public debt, and for other purposes.

"*Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That the Secretary of the Treasury be author-

ized to anticipate the payment of interest on the public debt, by a period not exceeding one year, from time to time, either with or without a rebate of interest upon the coupons, as to him may seem expedient; and he is hereby authorized to dispose of any gold in the Treasury of the United States not necessary for the payment of interest of the public debt: *Provided,* That the obligation to create the sinking fund according to the act of February twenty-fifth, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, shall not be impaired thereby.

"Approved, March 17, 1864."

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

FLOUR AND GRAIN FOR 1863.

RECEIPTS AND SHIPMENTS AT CHICAGO, OSWEGO, DETROIT, BUFFALO, ALBANY AND MONTREAL, AND IMPORTS INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

THE past year shows diminished receipts of flour and grain at nearly all points. This is owing in part to the diminished foreign demand for our breadstuffs, and in part, also, to the damage the new crop of corn received by frost, making the receipts of corn since September 1st very light. Oats have commanded so high a price as to increase the quantities sent forward.

CHICAGO.

The following tables show the receipts and shipments of flour and grain in Chicago during the past four year:

TOTAL RECEIPTS OF FLOUR AND GRAIN FOR FOUR YEARS.

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.
Wheat, bu	14,568,429	17,539,909	13,728,116	11,180,344
Corn, bu	15,487,966	26,543,233	29,449,328	26,450,508
Oats, bu	2,029,906	1,883,258	4,138,722	9,139,525
Rye, bu	295,436	479,005	1,038,825	839,760
Barley, bu	623,005	417,129	872,053	1,098,346
Total	33,004,742	46,862,534	49,227,044	48,708,483
Add flour into wheat.	3,500,030	7,230,865	8,331,953	7,371,420
Total	36,504,776	54,093,219	57,558,999	56,079,903

The following table shows the shipments of flour and grain for four years past:

TOTAL SHIPMENTS OF FLOUR AND GRAIN FROM CHICAGO FOR FOUR YEARS.

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.
Wheat, bu	12,487,684	15,788,385	13,808,898	9,341,881
Corn, bu	13,743,172	24,186,382	29,452,610	24,444,147
Oats, bu	1,039,799	1,655,384	3,112,366	7,574,994
Rye, bu	129,156	422,492	871,796	835,133
Barley, bu	290,211	185,293	532,195	668,735
Total	27,690,002	42,237,936	47,777,865	42,864,890
Add flour into wheat.	3,566,695	7,125,445	8,699,245	7,683,455
Total	31,256,697	49,363,881	56,477,110	50,548,345

The following table shows the shipments of all kinds of grain from Chicago for the past twenty-six years:

SHIPMENTS OF FLOUR (REDUCED TO WHEAT) & GRAIN, FROM CHICAGO FOR TWENTY-SIX YEARS.

Years.	Wheat, bu.	Corn, bu.	Oats, bu.	Rye, bu.	Brl'y, bu.	Total bu.
1838	78	....	....	....	....	78
1839	3,678	....	....	....	....	3,678
1840	10,000	....	....	....	....	10,000
1841	40,000	....	....	....	....	40,000
1842	586,907	....	....	....	....	586,907
1843	688,907	....	....	....	....	688,907
1844	923,494	....	....	....	....	923,494
1845	1,024,620	....	....	....	....	1,024,620
1846	1,599,619	....	....	....	....	1,599,819
1847	2,136,994	67,135	38,892	....	....	2,243,201
1848	2,286,000	566,460	65,280	....	....	3,001,740
1849	2,192,809	644,848	26,849	31,453	....	2,769,111
1850	1,387,989	262,013	186,054	22,872	....	1,830,939
1851	799,380	3,221,317	605,827	19,997	....	4,646,291
1852	941,470	2,757,011	2,030,317	127,028	17,315	5,873,141
1853	1,680,998	2,780,253	1,748,493	120,275	82,162	6,412,181
1854	2,744,860	6,837,899	3,239,987	148,421	41,153	12,932,320
1855	7,110,270	7,547,678	1,888,533	92,032	20,132	10,633,700
1856	9,419,365	11,129,658	1,014,547	19,051	590	21,583,221
1857	10,783,292	6,814,615	316,778	17,993	....	18,032,678
1858	10,909,243	7,493,212	1,498,134	127,008	7,569	20,035,166
1859	10,759,359	4,217,654	1,174,177	478,162	131,449	16,753,795
1860	16,054,379	13,743,172	1,039,779	129,156	290,211	31,256,697
1861	22,913,830	24,186,382	1,655,384	422,492	185,293	49,363,380
1862	22,902,765	29,451,610	3,112,666	871,796	532,195	56,477,111
1863	17,925,336	24,444,147	7,574,994	835,133	668,735	50,548,345

OSWEGO.

The *Oswego Times* gives the following as the receipts of grain at Oswego from Lakes Michigan, Huron and Erie, for the year 1863:

	Wheat.	Corn.	Oats.	Barley.	Rye.
Welland Canal	7,037,233	1,808,800	48,515	93,837	52,192
Welland Railway	909,053	720,460	58,600	29,258	....
L. Huron & Buffalo Railway	161,984	123,533	....	....	7,118
Collingwood	107,508	23,449	....	....	....
	8,215,778	2,676,242	107,151	123,095	59,310
Leaving for Lake Ontario	569,647	125	325,996	1,791,572	57,045
Total	8,785,425	2,676,367	433,147	1,824,667	116,355

The total amount of grain received by the above routes for the last two seasons have been as follows:

	1862.	1863.
Welland Canal	11,367,609	9,045,613
Welland Railway	2,071,914	1,717,371
Buffalo and Lake Huron Railway	1,296,601	292,635
Collingwood	257,273	130,957
Lake Ontario	1,885,517	2,654,385

DETROIT.

We find in a late number of the *Detroit Tribune* a carefully prepared statement of the flour and grain trade of that city for the year 1863, and from it we have made up the following general table showing the receipts and shipments of flour, wheat, corn and oats for the past six years:

	FLOUR.		WHEAT.	
	Receipts.	Shipments.	Receipts.	Shipments.
1858	592,287	505,917	886,613	791,870
1859	605,640	478,918	858,037	739,236
1860	862,175	809,519	1,814,951	1,607,757
1861	1,321,149	1,261,289	3,005,111	2,705,067
1862	1,543,886	1,445,458	3,593,242	3,419,942
1863	1,143,148	1,033,150	2,174,726	1,862,901

	CORN.		OATS.	
	Receipts.	Shipments.	Receipts.	Shipments.
1858	236,212	182,587	....	....
1859	403,055	132,487	173,364	24,816
1860	638,698	592,044	399,598	319,205
1861	1,036,506	989,309	319,986	253,157
1862	608,861	342,887	407,247	151,204
1863	353,295	139,616	662,926	465,057

The following statement shows the total receipts of grain and flour, reduced to bushels, for the past five years:

Total bushels—	1859	4,177,856
do	1860	6,441,639
do	1861	10,514,286
do	1862	11,827,000
do	1863	8,527,666

The receipts of flour at the Grand Trunk junction, near the city, which we have not taken into the account, would make a difference of about 400,000 bushels.

BUFFALO.

The flour and grain trade of Buffalo for 1863, reducing the receipts of flour to wheat, shows a deficiency, as compared with 1862, of 8,190,498 bushels, and, as compared with 1861, an increase of 3,208,433 bushels. There is a deficiency in the receipts of wheat as compared with 1862, of 9,195,483 bushels; corn, 4,201,675 bushels; rye, 369,275 bushels; an increase in oats of 4,697,255 bushels; barley, 218,325 bushels. There is an increase in the receipts of flour in 1863 of 132,067 barrels over 1862, and 818,498 barrels over 1861. The following will show the receipts of flour and grain at Buffalo by lake and Buffalo and Lake Huron Railway (not including the receipts by State Line Railway, which are large) from the opening of navigation in 1861, and from January 1st in 1862, 1863, to December 31st, in each year respectively:

Years.	Flour, bbls.	Grain, bu.	Grain & flour in bush.
1858	1,536,109	20,002,444	21,812,980
1859	1,420,333	14,429,069	27,530,722
1860	1,112,335	31,521,786	37,053,115
1861	2,159,591	50,662,646	61,460,601
1862	2,846,022	58,642,344	72,872,454
1863	2,978,089	49,713,245	64,603,690

ALBANY.

The following are the receipts of breadstuffs at Albany, by the Erie and Champlain Canals, each of the last four years:

Years.	Flour, brls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.	Oats, bush.	Barley, bu.	Rye, bu.
1860....	1,149,100	11,176,000	14,155,500	6,490,900	2,967,600	332,100
1861....	1,493,238	39,886,687	23,342,334	5,978,338	2,235,840	832,792
1862....	1,826,509	32,667,866	23,709,882	5,990,028	2,562,659	748,897
1863....	1,560,800	22,206,900	20,703,600	12,437,500	3,190,500	470,500

TOTAL TIDE WATER RECEIPTS FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

	Grain, bush.		Grain, bush.		Grain, bush.
1849.....	11,786,690	1854.....	23,796,038	1859.....	18,048,798
1850.....	11,585,619	1855.....	21,613,904	1860.....	41,122,100
1851.....	16,762,613	1856.....	30,793,225	1861.....	62,275,951
1852.....	19,583,875	1857.....	16,141,310	1862	74,811,877
1853.....	19,316,019	1858.....	23,686,374	1863.....	66,713,000

MONTREAL.

The *Montreal Witness* gives the following statement of the quantities of pro-

duce received and shipped in 1863 from that city. The statement includes arrivals by Lachine Canal and the Railways; also, exports *via* Portland, in sea-going vessels by St. Lawrence River, and by Montreal and Champlain R.R., from 1st January to 30th December, 1863, with aggregates for previous years:

	Receipts.			Shipments.		
	1863.	1862.	1861.	1863.	1862.	1861.
Wheat, bushels.	5,506,324	8,529,622	7,829,684	3,806,306	6,945,815	5,900,100
Peas, do .	667,345	534,679	1,409,859	774,442	727,277	1,409,859
Barley, do .	294,524	236,930	132,749	640,380	373	2,457
Oats, do .	373,463	96,792	122,399	3,001,766	8,072	287,877
Corn, do .	855,328	1,661,611	1,565,477	635,387	1,774,347	1,477,114
Rye, do .	32,278	82,665	24,812	170	200	....
Flour, barrels..	1,173,096	168,174	1,081,160	692,868	632,052	654,966
Oat and Corn Meal, brls....	1,789	2,426	21,221	9,353	4,039	32,015

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

The following, prepared from the British Board of Trade returns, is a statement of the imports of wheat, Indian corn and flour, into the United Kingdom (Great Britain and Ireland), in each of the last four years. The wheat and corn are in "quarters," which signifies eight bushels, this being considered in dry measure a quarter of a ton. The flour is in "hundredweights," or 112 lbs. The total only of the Indian corn is given; but the greater part of it came from the United States:

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

	1861.	1862.	1863.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
Wheat from Russia	1,041,461	1,327,158	1,046,378
do Prussia	1,027,733	1,450,484	1,017,807
do Denmark	228,157	145,398	128,155
do Mecklenburg	122,248	93,161	88,800
do Hanse Towns	214,146	156,701	73,013
do France	180,903	224,835	34,034
do Turkey and Danube	231,044	390,068	95,811
do Egypt	339,811	759,936	555,290
do United States	2,507,744	3,724,770	2,008,708
do British America	549,525	861,452	483,230
do Other Countries	470,043	336,267	111,275
Total Wheat	6,912,815	9,469,270	5,622,501
Indian Corn, Qrs.	3,090,352	2,738,791	2,971,872
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
Flour from Hanse Towns	279,609	256,973	996,216
do France	460,775	790,040	1,367,938
do United States	3,794,865	4,499,534	2,531,822
do British America	805,339	1,108,591	883,352
do Other Countries	812,350	551,975	129,648
Total Flour	6,152,938	7,207,113	5,218,976

COMMERCE OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Our interest in the prosperity of the Hawaiian Islands increases each succeeding year. Their position, in fact, is so important to our Pacific coast that we could never consent to see the islands pass into the control of Great Britain, or any other European power. With moderate watchfulness, this need never be feared; for American enterprise and capital are fast outstripping all other nations there, and binding that country more and more closely to us. We have just received the official returns of the trade of the Hawaiian Islands for 1863,

from which it appears that more than half of the total duty-paying goods imported into those islands during the year came from the United States. The following shows the total foreign imports, dutiable and free:

FOREIGN IMPORTS.

GOODS PAYING DUTY. Imported from	Value.	GOODS AND SPIRITS BONDED DUTIABLE. Imported from	Value.
United States, Pacific side...	$304,502 12	United States, Pacific side...	$36,617 43
United States, Atlantic side.	122,770 00	United States, Atlantic side.	40,827 18
Bremen.....	194,429 11	Bremen.....	62,850 81
Great Britain.....	63,400 17	Great Britain.....	9,227 04
Vancouver's Island.....	32,210 52	Vancouver's Island.....	2,277 94
Sea.....	6,291 87	Sea.....	179,454 10
Islands of the Pacific.....	6,457 19	Islands of the Pacific.....	5,468 22
		Sitka.....	4,585 70
Total.....	$730,060 98	Total.....	$341,308 42

	Dutiable.	Free.
Total imports at Honolulu.....	$1,071,369 40	$95,537 72
" " Lahaina.....	3,553 49	1,942 16
" " Hillo.....	1,561 17	1,063 80
" " Kawaihæ.....	25 89	439 62
Total.....	$1,076,509 95	$98,973 30
Making the total value of imports.....		$1,175,493 25

The total exports during the year amounted to $1,025,852 74, being an increase of nearly one quarter over 1862. Exports of sugar increased from three million pounds, in 1862, to five millions two hundred and ninety-two thousand pounds, in 1863. This important staple promises to be the chief production of the Islands.

In our last number, in the article on "Steam on the Pacific," we referred to this subject, and showed that climate and soil were just what was necessary, and that they only needed capital and cheap labor to become one of the principal sources of the world's supply. Now that the production has really begun in earnest, we believe it must increase rapidly: foreign capital will flow in, and the necessary labor can be obtained from China. We see, among the new articles of export, cotton set down at 3,122 lbs., this year, most of which is said to have been choice Sea Island.

The following table, for which we are indebted to the editors of the Honolulu *Commercial Advertiser*, shows the commerce of the Sandwich Islands for the last eighteen years:

COMMERCE OF THE THE SANDWICH ISLANDS, FROM 1856 TO 1863.

Year.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.	Domestic Produce Exported.	Foreign Merchandise Re-exported.	Total Custom House Receipts.
1863	$1,175,493 25	$1,025,852 74	$744,413 54	$281,439 20	$122,752 68
1862	998,239 67	838,424 61	586,541 87	251,882 74	107,490 42
1861	761,109 57	659,774 72	476,872 74	182,901 98	100,115 56
1860	1,223,749 05	807,459 20	480,526 54	326,932 66	117,302 57
1859	1,555,558 74	931,329 27	628,575 21	302,754 06	132,129 37
1858	1,089,660 60	787,082 08	529,966 11	257,115 97	116,138 23
1857	1,130,165 41	645,526 10	423,303 91	222,222 91	140,777 03
1856	1,151,422 99	670,824 67	466,278 79	204,545 88	123,171 75
1855	1,383,169 87	572,601 49	274,741 67	297,859 82	158,411 90
1854	1,590,837 71	585,122 67	274,029 70	311,092 97	152,125 58
1853	1,401,975 86	472,996 83	281,599 17	191,397 66	155,650 17
1852	759,868 54	638,395 20	257,251 69	381,142 51	113,001 93
1851	1,823,821 68	691,231 49	309,828 94	381,402 55	160,602 19
1850	1,035,058 70	783,052 35	536,522 63	246,529 72	121,506 73
1849	729,839 44	477,845 81	279,734 74	198,192 07	83,231 32
1848	605,618 73	300,370 98	366,819 43	33,551 55	55,568 94
1847	710,138 52	264,226 63	209,018 53	57,208 07	48,801 25
1846	598,382 24	363,750 74	301,625 00	62,325 74	56,506 64

Year.	Oil and Bone Transhipped.— Galls. Sperm.	Galls. Whale.	Lbs. Bone.	Number National Vessels.	Merchant Vessels. No.	Tonage.	Number Entries Whalers.	Gallons Spirits Consu'd.
1863	56,687	675,344	337,043	7	88	42,930	102*	7,862
1862	12,522	460,407	193,920	7	113	48,687	73*	8,940
1861	20,435	795,988	527,910	7	94	45,962	190*	9,676
1860	47,859	782,086	572,900	10	117	41,226	325*	14,295
1859	156,306	1,668,175	1,147,120	5	139	59,241	549*	14,158
1858	222,464	2,551,382	1,614,710	10	115	45,875	526*	14,637
1857	176,306	2,018,027	1,295,525	10	82	26,817	387*	16,144
1856	121,294	1,641,579	1,074,942	9	123	42,213	366*	14,779
1855	109,308	1,436,810	872,954	13	154	51,304	468*	18,318
1854	156,484	1,683,922	1,479,678	16	125	47,288	525*	17,537
1853	175,396	3,787,348	2,020,264	7	211	59,451	535*	18,123
1852	173,490	1,182,738	3,159,951	3	235	61,065	519*	14,150
1851	104,362	909,379	901,604	7	446	87,920	220	9,500
1850	.....	.....	.....	12	469	90,304	237	8,252
1849	.....	.....	.....	12	180	.....	274	5,717
1848	.....	.....	.....	6	90	.....	254	3,443
1847	.....	.....	.....	4	71	.....	167	3,271
1846	.....	.....	.....	17	65	.....	...	6,491

* These figures give the number of Custom House *entries* of Whalers at various ports—some of the vessels entering at several different ports during the year. The actual number of different Whalers during the Spring of 1863 was 36 vessels, and during the Fall season 44—total, 80.

A SUCCESSFUL INSURANCE COMPANY.

A PROPERLY written history of the world's mercantile operations would gradually work more and more into a history of the insurance system. It is profitable then to turn to the record of a single successful corporation, and note the increasing favor it yearly commands. And for such a company we point to the Washington Insurance Company.

This Company commenced business in December, 1850. with a capital of $200,000, under the management of its present efficient president, who was its founder, and who has given it his undivided attention from the start. The result is shown in its perfect management and success. During the first eight years it paid $288,000 in dividends to stockholders, being an average of sixteen per cent per annum. In 1860 its capital was doubled, from $200,000 to $400,000, and the Participation System adopted "the *safest and cheapest system of insurance.*" The Company also added the business of insuring in land marine risks on the lakes and rivers and canals. Since then it has divided $180,000 among stockholders, and has also made *three* dividends in scrip of sixty per cent on the earned premiums of policies entitled to participate, *being the largest scrip rebate made by any company for three consecutive years.*

The gross premiums of the Washington for the fiscal year ending January 31, 1864, were $206,314. The Company paid a five per cent dividend in August last, which, with the eight per cent now announced, makes thirteen per cent for the year to stockholders.

Since the removal of the Washington, in May, 1862, from Wall street, to the splendid building erected by Dr. ELEAZER PARMLY, on the corner of Broadway and Maiden Lane, it has largely increased its business.

We refer to the success of the Company with pleasure, and do not hesitate to recommend it to those who are in want of insurance against loss or damage by fire, or the risks of inland navigation on the lakes, rivers or canals. Mr. SATTERLEA, the President, Mr. WESTON, the Vice President, and Mr. LOTHROP, the Secretary, are well known to the public as efficient and reliable men.—*Commercial Advertiser.*

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