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THE ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH.

THE present attempt to lay a telegraph line from Europe to America is the fourth one. The first Atlantic cable was laid in August, 1857. It had been determined to splice the cable in mid-ocean, and then to proceed simultaneously to both shores. At the eleventh hour this arrangement was altered. The directors of the company resolved that one half of it should first be laid from Valentia to mid-ocean, and then connected with the other half, which was to be carried to Trinity Bay. Accordingly, the Telegraph Squadron, consisting of eight vessels, sailed August 4, 1857, from Queenstown Harbor for Valentine Bay.

AN ILL OMEN.

Just before they sailed the London *Times* startled its readers by the announcement that the enterprise must necessarily prove a failure. "It will scarcely be credited," said that journal, "but it is nevertheless true, that the twist of the spiral wires of the Birkenhead half of the Cable is in exactly the opposite direction to the twist of the wires made at Greenwich. Thus, when joined in the centre of the Atlantic, they will form a right and left hand screw, and the tendency of each will be to assist each other to untwist and expose the core. By attaching a solid weight to the centre joining, it is hoped this difficulty and danger may be overcome; but none attempt to conceal that the mistake is much to be regretted. We are informed that Messrs. GLASS and ELLIOTT had nearly one hundred miles of their portion completed before Messrs. NEWALL commenced theirs, and that, therefore, the fault rests with those who began theirs last."

This attack called forth a reply from Messrs. NEWALL, who denied the conclusions at which the writer of the article in question had arrived, holding that the so-called "blunder" was literally of no importance. At the same time they exculpated themselves from blame on the ground that they

were acting throughout under the direct instructions and supervision of the engineer of the company, and that the fault, if there was any, was his.

Nevertheless the Squadron sailed with the two cables as originally made, the U. S. steam frigate *Niagara* having one, and H. M. steamer *Agamemnon* having the other on board.

FAILURE NUMBER ONE.

On the evening of Friday, the 7th of August, 1857, the Telegraphic Squadron bore away from the coast of Ireland, delivering the cable into the sea at a slow and steady rate. The Company having decided upon the attempt to lay the Cable by commencing at the Irish shore, and effecting a splice in mid-ocean, the work of paying-out was begun by the *Niagara* alone. Unfortunately the commencement of the expedition was inauspicious. When about four miles of the thick shore-end of the Cable had been paid out, it became entangled with the machinery, owing to a momentary want of watchfulness, and parted. An attempt was immediately made to recover the lost portion. The *Niagara* came to anchor for the night. On the following day the cable was recovered, a splice was made, and the work was resumed without further accident to the shore-end.

FAILURE NUMBER TWO.

At noon on Sunday, August 9, ninety-five miles of Cable had been expended, the continuity of the electric current remaining perfect, and signals passing between the *Niagara* and the station at Valentia.

On Monday, August 10th, at 8.45 P.M., and for two hours afterwards, the electricians failed to receive signals, the continuity being now, for the first time, interrupted. Towards midnight the current was re-established, but the hopes which this circumstance revived were of short duration.

On Tuesday, August 11th, at 3.45 A.M., the machinery stopped, and with the strain the Cable parted. Three hundred and forty-four miles of the cable was lost, the depth of water in which it was submerged being about two miles.

The first Expedition having thus come to an untimely end, nothing remained but to return to Ireland. The *Niagara* accordingly put about, and headed for Valentia.

SECOND EXPEDITION.

It being resolved to continue the enterprise, preparations were made to resume it in 1858. It was determined to join the two cables in mid-ocean, and to select an earlier season of the year for the work.

On Saturday, May 29, 1858, the *Niagara* and the *Agamemnon* sailed from Plymouth for Queenstown, having the cable on board which, during the intervening winter had been discharged at Keyham Docks. On the same day they put to sea, to undertake an experimental trip, for the purpose of testing the Cable.

FAILURES NUMBER THREE, FOUR AND FIVE.

On the 31st of May, when in latitude 47° 12' north, longitude 9° 32' west, the depth of water being 2,530 fathoms, a series of deep-sea experiments was commenced. The *Niagara* and *Agamemnon* were connected by hawsers, stern to stern, distance from each other some twelve hundred feet. The Cable was paid out and spliced on board the *Agamemnon*, and the

first experiment began. Two miles of Cable were paid out, when the wire parted.

On the following day (Tuesday, June 1,) the Cable was re-spliced, and three miles were paid out; but in the attempt to haul in, the wire again parted.

On Wednesday, June 2, the Cable was again spliced, but in a few minutes parted on board the *Agamemnon*. These experiments having been continued during three days and one night, ceased with this last attempt, and after various trials of the operations of splicing, lowering and heaving-in the wire, the squadron set sail for Plymouth, whence reports of the results were forwarded to the Directors of the Company.

FAILURE NUMBER SIX.

But a single week elapsed, from the return of the fleet from this trip, when the expedition set sail from Plymouth for the second great ocean trial. The appearance of the two principal vessels engaged in laying the Cable was thus described by a correspondent of the *London Times*, from which it appears that the 1,500 miles of Cable which was stowed aboard each of these great ships was enough to sink at least one of them down to her bearings:

"Both the *Agamemnon* and *Niagara* are astonishingly deep. The lower deck ports of the former are very near the water, and they are being fastened and caulked before starting. But in spite of this, the *Agamemnon* carries her share infinitely better than her long black-looking rival of the United States, which is immersed very deeply indeed by her load. The *Agamemnon* only draws 26 feet, or actually one foot less than her draught at starting last year; but even at this depth she bears herself well, and looks a noble ship, and one that should be seaworthy in any weather. The *Niagara*, however, draws no less than 27 feet 2 inches aft, and this great draught effects a marvellous and most unpleasant change in her appearance, since it leaves her spar deck scarcely 8 feet above the water's edge. In fact, the main deck is actually below the water's level, and if her lofty bulwarks, some nine or ten feet high, were taken away, she would appear to be almost the last vessel in the world in which it was desirable to venture across the great Atlantic." Yet, in the great gale which the fleet encountered a few days after sailing, while the *Agamemnon* was tossed about until her safety was seriously endangered, and one of the large coils of the Cable had broken loose, and occasioned alarm for the success of the entire expedition, the *Niagara* rode it out with no more damage than the loss of a piece of carving from her figure-head.

The squadron, now consisting of four vessels, having safely arrived at the appointed rendezvous, latitude 52° 2', longitude 33° 18', the Cable was spliced on the 26th of June, 1858. After having paid out two and a half miles from each vessel, owing to an accident on board the *Niagara*, the Cable parted.

FAILURE NUMBER SEVEN.

The ships having again met, the splice was made good, and they commenced to pay out the Cable a second time; but after they had each paid out forty miles, it was reported that the current was broken, and no communication could be made between the ships. Unfortunately, in this in-

stance, the breakage must have occurred at the bottom, as the electricians, from the fine calculations which their sensitive instruments allowed them to make, were able to declare such to have been the fact, even before the vessels came together again. Having cast off this loss, they met for the third time, and recovered the connection of the Cable on the 28th. They then started afresh, and the *Niagara*, having paid out over one hundred and fifty miles of Cable, all on board entertained the most sanguine anticipations of success, when the fatal announcement was made upon Tuesday, the 29th, at 9 P.M., that the electric current had ceased to flow. As the necessity of abandoning the project for the present was now only too manifest, it was considered that the opportunity might as well be availed of to test the strength of the Cable. Accordingly, the *Niagara*, with all her stores, was allowed to swing to the Cable, and, in addition, a strain of four tons was placed upon the brakes, yet, although it was blowing fresh at the time, the Cable held her as if she was at anchor, for over an hour, when a heavy pitch of the sea snapped the Cable, and the *Niagara* bore away for Ireland. Before starting, an arrangement was made that should any accident occur in giving out the Cable before the ships had gone one hundred miles, they were to return to their starting-place in mid-ocean; but that, in case that distance should have been exceeded, before any casualty happened, they should make for Queenstown. In accordance with this understanding, the *Niagara*, having made one hundred and nine miles before this mishap, returned to Queenstown, arriving July 5th. The *Agamemnon* arrived on the 12th. On the 6th of July the £1,000 shares of the Company receded from £600 to £200. Nothing daunted, however, the entire fleet was again under way on the 17th, bound to the mid-ocean rendezvous.

THIRD EXPEDITION, AND ITS FAILURE.

On the 28th they met, and on the 29th, at 1 P.M., the splice was made, and the vessels started for their respective destinations. On the 4th of August THE CABLE WAS LAID, and the Old World and the New were in telegraphic communication with one another. But the communication was not continuous, nor had it been. On the 29th July, at 7.45 P.M., the signals along the wire ceased. At 9.10 they again resumed. Upon the landing of the cable, the continuity was again found to be disturbed. The wires were at first worked with the RUHMKORFF induction-coils and a SMEE'S battery, and afterward with a DANIELL battery; but the current was for the most part so weak as scarcely to work the most delicate relay, susceptible to an impulse that can hardly be perceived on the tongue. The effect was indicated at the Newfoundland station by the reflection of a delicate galvanometer, and at Valentia, in Ireland, by that of the reflecting galvanometer of Professor WILLIAM THOMPSON, the effect of which is to multiply the movement in a ray of light reflected from a mirror attached to a very delicate magnetic needle. This ray being thrown upon a surface at some distance, a movement of the needle, which is otherwise imperceptible, may be even measured upon a graduated scale. The transmitted current was so weak during much of the time that the cable continued in action, that every expedient of this kind was necessary to render the signals perceptible. From the first there appears to have been a defect in the part of the cable laid by the *Niagara*, which defect was noticed on the day after starting; and it is generally believed that the very im-

perfect signals which followed the landing of the cable, and lasted until the 20th of October following, were attributable to this original defect. Between those two dates 129 messages were sent from Valentia to Newfoundland, and 271 in the other direction. The number of words in the former direction were 1,474, and in the latter 2,885. The first message was from Queen VICTORIA to President BUCHANAN; and the last intelligible signal was: "Two hundred and forty t—k—Daniells now in circuit." It afterwards appeared that the complete message was; "Two hundred and forty trays and seventy-two liquid Daniells now in circuit." This indicated the enormous electrical power which was used to force through the now dislocated wire the last dying throbs it was destined to transmit. The power thus employed was over a thousand times what would have been acquired, even at that time, in an ordinarily well insulated conductor to give perfect signals to the mirror-galvanometer. The hopelessness of endeavoring to work the line was but too plain; and it was accordingly abandoned after as much of the shore ends were recovered as possible.

THE COST.

The cost of the Atlantic cable was as follows: for 2,500 miles, at \$485 per mile, \$1,212,500; for 10 miles, at \$1,250 per mile, \$12,500; and for 25 miles of shore ends, at same price, \$31,250; making altogether \$1,256,250. Up to December 1, 1858, the expenditures of the company had amounted to \$1,834,500.

THE PRESENT EXPEDITION—THE FOURTH.

The company having resolved not to give up the enterprise, at once took steps to carry it to a successful termination. New capital was raised, a new cable made, new privileges were obtained, and the *Great Eastern* chartered to lay the cable. But they now embark upon their great mission under very altered circumstances. Since 1858, submarine telegraphy has taken great strides. Previous to that period but 945 miles of insulated wire had been laid, as follows:

	Miles.
1854. Sweden to Denmark.....	36
1854. Italy to Corsica.....	660
1854. Corsica to Sardinia.....	60
1855. Egypt.....	40
1856. Newfoundland to Cape Breton.....	85
1856. Prince Edward's Island to New Brunswick.....	12
1857. Norway, across Fiords.....	49
1857. Across mouths of Danube.....	3
Total.....	945

But since then over 6000 miles of submarine telegraph have been successfully laid down and worked, as follows:

	Miles.
1858. England to Holland.....	560
1858. England to Hanover.....	560
1858. Norway, across Fiords.....	16
1859. Alexandria.....	8
1859. England to Denmark.....	1,050
1859. Sweden to Gottland.....	64
1859. Folkstone to Boulogne.....	144
1859. Liverpool to Holyhead.....	50

	Miles.
1859. Across rivers in India.....	10
1859. Malta to Sicily.....	60
1859. England to Isle of Man.....	36
1860. Jersey to Pirou, France.....	21
1860. France to Algiers.....	560
1860. Corfu to Otranto.....	80
1861. Toulon to Corsica.....	60
1861. Malta to Alexandria.....	1,518
.... Other lines since.....	2,000
Total	6,757

The peculiar condition of insulated wires has been closely observed, and many improvements have taken place in the instruments used for telegraphing and for determining force of currents, &c. Beyond all, the grand generalization of HERBERT SPENCER on the nature of electricity sets at rest a theory which, although it had agitated the minds of scientific men for some time past, had not until lately found an exponent of sufficient genius to impress upon it the stamp of genuineness and truth. That theory is in effect, that in the transmission of intelligence along a wire by the aid of electricity, it is not the flow of the electric current, as it is called, which conveys the message, but the impulse given to the molecules of iron composing the wire. In other words, no current of electricity passes along the wire; but a shock or impulse is experienced by the first molecule and transmitted instantaneously to all the succeeding ones, and thus at one end is repeated the signal which was made at the other. In the same manner the shock experienced at one end of a log, when it is struck by a simple blow at the other end, may be the means of conveying a signal, albeit nothing actually passes along the log.

But this is not all. We have learnt many things of importance in telegraphy besides this, which, unlike the great theory on hand already mentioned, have passed into the domain of accepted and practical truths. Since the first Atlantic line was laid, the advance that has been made by the scientific world towards comprehending electrical phenomena is very great. Electric science has passed, since that time, from its childhood to its maturity. So far as the phenomena connected with long electric circuits were concerned, we had in 1858 no knowledge whatever. The instruments in common use were unsuited to receiving signals through a great length of cable; the necessity of providing for the conductor an insulation so perfect as to approach an absolute condition was inadequately appreciated. The best preliminary test for a long cable had not been devised, and the old Atlantic telegraph was laid without having been subjected to any searching test on shore. Everybody had advice to give concerning the management of the wire, but no one recommended the precautions which subsequent experience has shown to be necessary. When the signals began to fail the battery power was augmented, and electro-magnetic induction coils, which rapidly helped on the destruction of the conductor, were put in circuit. No one thought of "nursing" the cable—of humoring its feeble attempts at articulate utterance, and of finding out what it said, rather by listening acutely, than by constantly calling on it to "Speak up!" The old cable, however, is dead and gone; part of it has been picked up and applied to ignoble uses, and part of it—the greater part—has been abandoned, and lies where it may rest until the end of time.

THE NEW ATLANTIC CABLE.

The new Atlantic cable now lies on board the *Great Eastern*. A late letter thus describes the appearance of the big ship :

SCENES ON BOARD THE GREAT EASTERN.

The *Great Eastern* looks just now more like an engineer's workshop than a seagoing vessel. The vast expanses of her deck are covered with wooden sheds and piles of timber. There are smiths' forges below, and between the decks you might fancy yourself in a machinist's factory. The great engines of the ship, it is true, have lost the bright look of machinery which is in constant use; and the huge dull masses of iron seem asleep, or in a trance. If you descend the ladders which lead to the boilers and furnaces—an expedition which is more like going down a mine than any other to which it can be compared—you find yourself in the midst of darkness, solitude and cold; but in those regions of the vessel where the cable is being shipped and watched there is every sign of keen, vigilant intelligence. When you understand what is being done, you see something more than this—that scientific foresight of the highest order directs every step; and that the thick tarry rope, coarse and rough to appearance, which lies coiled away under water in the tanks of the ship, is manufactured, scanned and tested with as much care as the nicest optical instrument in an astronomer's observatory, or the most delicate apparatus of fragile glass ever applied to the careful experiments of chemistry.

THE SCIENTIFIC TESTS.

It seems impossible that there can be any fault in the Atlantic cable when the *Great Eastern* goes to sea. To say nothing of the tests applied to it at the manufactory, it is tested not alone after it has been taken on board, but during its delivery into the ship. As soon as a length is brought alongside, one end is connected with the coils already on board, and the other end with the instruments in the testing room. The circuit is thus made through the whole extent of the coil, the portion on board and the portion alongside. The process of hauling in then commences, and the insulation is continuously observed. The instruments in the testing room record the smallest deviation from absolutely perfect insulation.

Indeed, from first to last, it has been subjected to a series of the most searching electrical tests, the standard of insulation being fixed at a resistance, per nautical mile, equal to 150,000,000 of SIEMEN'S units, at a temperature of 75 degrees—a standard wholly unprecedented in any former work of the kind. In actual practice these tests, great as they were, have been considerably exceeded, and the present Atlantic cable has come out successfully from a series of trials of the most critical character. It will be understood that an insulation which shall be quite perfect, as an electrician understands the word, is not attainable. A piece of metal separated by means of the purest glass, and enclosed in the driest atmosphere that can be obtained, will, if charged with electricity, lose that electricity after a time. In speaking of insulation we must therefore be understood to mean an approximate condition; but the approximation in the case of the new Atlantic cable comes so near to perfection that this rough tarry rope is a scientific wonder.

The last dying pulsation of the old Atlantic cable was forced through it by means of a galvanic battery consisting of two hundred and forty cells. The submarine telegraph from London to Amsterdam is habitually worked with a battery of fifty cells, and such a battery is commonly used for the other submarine lines of Europe. Signals have been repeatedly sent

through more than thirteen hundred miles of the cable now on board the *Great Eastern* by means of one cell. Galvanic currents so feeble that they could not have been felt by the hand, and might have been passed harmlessly through a circuit completed by the operator's tongue, can be used to convey messages along a length of cable that would very nearly stretch from London to St. Petersburg. Over needle instruments, such as those in ordinary use for land telegraphy, a current from one cell would be powerless.

To record such faint pulsations of electricity it is necessary to use Professor Thompson's mirror galvanometer. This beautiful instrument consists of a mirror about the size of a fourpenny piece, made of microscope glass, and so thin that it weighs only a grain. On the back of this mirror a minute magnet is fixed, and thus supplemented it is suspended by a silken fibre in the heart of a coil of wire, so that any current passing through the coil deflects the magnet and the mirror along with it. A ray of light reflected by the mirror falls on a scale, distant about eighteen or twenty inches, and reveals its faintest movements. Different combinations of these movements represent the different letters of the alphabet, and thus the apparently erratic wanderings of a ray of light are made to convey intelligence. An instrument of this kind is constantly used to test the cable, as it is hauled on board; and if any fault had existed it could not have passed without detection. Up to this time no fault has been discovered.

Another of the tests employed was soaking separately each joint of the gutta-percha covering for twenty-four hours in warm water, previous to passing the electric current through. A third, and perhaps the most trying and continuous test, was that of allowing no part of the cable to be out of the water, except merely while *in transitu* from one reservoir to the other; and in connection with this it may be mentioned that the wrapping of jute yarn, which forms the padding, around which the external wires are spun, instead of being soaked in tar, as in other cables, which has the effect of temporarily stopping up and concealing minute flaws, has simply being tanned to preserve it decay, thus admitting the water to search out every part of the cable, and keep it, in fact, constantly surrounded with a wrapping of wet yarn.

THE PAYING-OUT MACHINE.

This beautiful machine is an improved and extended copy, as far as general principle is concerned, of that used on board the *Agammemnon* during the first memorable attempts. Its improvements and modifications, however, are very great. Though stronger and much larger, it is very much lighter, being almost entirely of wrought iron. It has six leading wheels, round which the cable passes in deep grooves, before which it will be finally submerged. Each groove in these six wheels is surmounted by what is termed a jockey-pulley—that is to say, a solid wheel, which keeps the rope down in the groove, and prevents it over-riding or getting out of place. The main drum is about seven feet in diameter, and in paying-out will have three coils of cable round it, with a guiding piece of wrought iron pressing on them sideways to keep them compactly together. As the friction on the guider is great and constant, a duplicate is provided in case of heating, which can be put in gear, with the rest of the machinery with

out the slightest stop on any part. A second drum has also been fitted, in case of anything going wrong with the first. Each of these drums is fitted with a distinct set of simple and most ingenious brakes, invented by Mr. APFOLD for the first expedition. The ordinary condition of these brakes is to maintain a sufficient check upon the drum to keep a strain of say 30 cwt. or 40 cwt. upon the ropes going out, but it constantly happens that a sudden risk of the ship's stern from a wave, gives the cable a strain that requires the instant removal of the brakes to relieve it. This is accomplished by a dynamometer placed on the cable after it leaves the paying-out machine and before it passes over the wheel astern into the Atlantic. This dynamometer is only a heavy wheel resting on the rope, but fixed in an upright frame, which allows it to slide freely up and down, and on this frame are marked the figures which show exactly the strain in pounds on the cable. Thus when the strain is low the cable slackens, and the dynamometer sinks low with it; when, on the contrary, the strain is great, the cable is drawn "taut," and on it the dynamometer rises to its full height. When it sinks too low, the cable is generally running away too fast, and the brakes have to be applied to check it; when, on the contrary, it rises rapidly, the tension is dangerous, and the brakes have to be almost opened to relieve it. The simplicity of the arrangement for opening and shutting the brakes is the most beautiful of all. Opposite the dynamometer is placed a tiller-wheel, and the man in charge of this never lets it go nor slackens his attention for an instant, but watches the rise and fall of the dynamometer as a sailor at the wheel watches his compass. A single movement of this wheel to the right puts the brakes on, a turn to the left opens them. A good and experienced brakesman will generally contrive to avoid either extreme of a high or low strain, though there are few duties connected with the laying of submarine cables which are more anxious and more responsible while they last than those connected with the management of the brakes.

THE IMMERSION.

The machinery for paying out is being put together at the Greenwich works. The process of immersion will take about a fortnight. The beginning of the shore end will be laid by a small vessel, which will meet the *Great Eastern* about twenty miles from the Irish coast. The cable will then be passed on board, connected with that in the great tanks, and the big ship will begin her voyage. To the uninitiated this process of cutting and joining the cable appears very mysterious, but the engineers, who are used to the work, face it without any hesitation. The joints do not really endanger the insulation or the strength of the cable, as wherever they are made the external and conducting wires are spliced along a considerable length—sometimes not less than thirty yards—and the gutta percha carefully put on in separate layers, firmly pressed together by means of warm irons. The completeness of the joint is tested by laying it in an insulated metallic vessel containing water, and ascertaining by means of tests applied to this vessel, whether any electricity escapes from the joint as a current is passed along the cable.

In order to guard against any possible sources of accident, every preparation has been made in case of the worst, and, in the event of very bad weather, for cutting the cable adrift and buoying it. For this purpose a

wire rope of great strength, and no less than five miles long, having a distinctive mark at every one hundred fathoms, will be taken in the *Great Eastern*. This, of course, is carried in case of desperate eventualities arising, and in the earnest hope that not an inch of it will ever be required. If, unfortunately, its services should be wanted, the cable would be firmly made fast to its extremity and so many hundred fathoms of the wire rope according to the depth of water the cable was in measured out. To the other end of the rope an immense buoy would be attached, and the whole then cut adrift and left to itself till better weather. In the experimental cruises which were undertaken before the starting of the last Atlantic expedition this attempt at buoying the cable was often tried in the deep water of the Bay of Biscay, but never with any great success, and in very deep water it would be a most forlorn hope indeed to try it at all.

THE MERCANTILE ADVANTAGES OF THE CABLE.

We have now to speak of the advantages which commerce will derive from the completion of the Atlantic telegraph. To say that it saves time and economises effort, is to present to the mind a generalization too broad for ready appreciation. But the benefits derivable from this great work are so innumerable, that a mere list of them would not only be difficult to make, but fatiguing to read.

In order, therefore, to get a tolerable idea of the value of the Atlantic cable, let us resort to an illustration. Fill a flat dish with water, and see-saw it. Will the water always follow the inclination of the dish? Of course it will. But will the movements of the one always be identical in point of time with the movements of the other? No. If the dish is see-sawed quickly, the water may be seen running up one end of the dish while the other end is tilted downwards. This phenomenon is caused by the momentum which the water had gained before the direction of the tilting was changed, and until that momentum was overcome by a new inclination of the dish, it continued to impel the water in a direction contrary to that which was exerted by the force of gravitation.

So, in commerce, the products of the world, which, if left free to move naturally, would be attracted towards the most profitable markets, are frequently impelled towards unprofitable ones, because the knowledge of which are the best ones becomes known in most cases only after the product has been already shipped to an unprofitable one.

All this waste of effort—all this source of mercantile loss and embarrassment ceases where the telegraph is established. Goods then go only where they are wanted, and always find a profitable market. *The markets of the world become equalised*, and equalisation is economy and wealth to all mankind.

SOCIAL ADVANTAGES.

Finally, when the social advantages of the Atlantic telegraph are considered, it is seen to be a work not only of importance to the world's thrift, but to its morality and social advancement.

The universal postulate is belief; and mankind only war against one another from entertaining opposite beliefs. No agency has ever existed, nor ever will exist, so potent to dispel misunderstandings and to reconcile beliefs, as knowledge; and what is the telegraph but a means of transmit-

ting knowledge? The Old World, by the Atlantic telegraph, will be drawn towards the New, and the New towards the Old. Our interests will become more identical, our beliefs more reconcilable; the artificial demarcation occasioned by our respective forms of government will disappear, the people of Europe and America, instead of being called English, French, Germans, Spaniards, Prussians, Yankees, Mexicans, &c., will be called simply the people of Europe or America. Nationalities will gradually become less marked, the legislation of different countries will be more and more assimilated, races and creeds will melt into one another, civilization and enlightenment will penetrate the darkest corners of barbarism and error, and the earth will eventually become, what natural laws tend to make it when unobstructed by such impediments as ignorance and restraint, one vast land teeming with wealth and plenty, and peopled by a numberless community secure in the enjoyment of universal peace and happiness.

THE MODE OF RESTORATION OF THE REBEL STATES TO THE UNION.

BY CHARLES P. KIRKLAND, OF NEW YORK.

THE term "reconstruction," as applied to the rebel States, though often used, is used very inaccurately, not to say injuriously. It implies *ex vi termini*, the previous *destruction* of that which is to be *re-constructed*. In the case before us it implies that those States, *as States of the Union*, are destroyed; that they do not now exist as such; consequently, that the ordinances of secession were valid; and again, consequently, that a State has the *power* to withdraw from the Union. It admits the power and the *right* of secession.

This is an error as palpable as it is dangerous, and should not for a moment be sanctioned even by inference or implication. No. Those States, *as States*, have never for an hour in a *constitutional and legal sense* been *out* of the Union; they have ever been and now are substantive and component parts of it as truly as Massachusetts or Ohio. Very much has been written on the subject of the *right* of a State to secede from the Union, so much indeed, that the intellectual argument may well be said to be exhausted. It may with equal truth be said that further argument is wholly useless, inasmuch as the question is forever settled, and a judgment alike solemn, unappealable and irresistible has been pronounced by the only sovereign power—the people.

If the mighty war, through which we have just passed and in which we have so entirely and gloriously triumphed, has established any doctrine or principle whatever, it is "that no State has the right or power to, or by any possibility *can*, withdraw from the Union, except by an amendment of the Constitution permitting it." The fatal heresy on this subject-prevailing so extensively in the rebel States was, as has been already mentioned, one of the instrumentalities by which the leading conspirators were enabled to inaugurate the Rebellion; it was a direfully active agent in this fratricidal work; to impress on it the seal of everlasting condemnation and

sweep it, as an operative principle, forever from existence, was one of the objects as it is one of the blessed results of the war.

This judgment of condemnation, obtained by more than four years of deadly conflict and at such an amazing expenditure of life and of treasure, stands, and will ever stand, a proud monument of the intelligent understanding by the American people of the true nature of their Union, of their earnest devotion to it, and of their determination that it shall be *perpetual*. Never again can this wicked delusion have any practical influence or perceptible existence in this country or in any part of it; it has lived its day, it has performed its unhallowed work of attempting the national *death*, and has in the attempt met *its own*; it now lies buried in a grave of infamy without the hope or possibility of resurrection. If, after all this, any man in America is found still to cling to that delusion, and to write or to speak in its advocacy, his bitterest enemy could wish him no worse punishment than he will receive in the pity, the contempt and disgust that will await him on every side.

In determining then the mode of *restoration* of those States, the very starting point, the first step in the process, is the postulate, that, one and all, they have never ceased, since their admission into the Union, to be, and that they now are members of it, States within it.* With this rule as the guide, and with a faithful adherence to it, all difficulties in the way of restoration vanish.

It may be asked what is meant by "restoration," and what is the difference between that and "reconstruction." The meaning of the latter has already been stated; the necessity for the use of the former term arises from the fact that through the unconstitutional, illegal and void acts of citizens of those States, those States and the people thereof have for a period *practically* omitted to exercise their rights, enjoy their privileges, and perform their duty in the Union; though *in the family*, they have been refractory, rebellious and disobedient members; their rebellion being at an

*How well is this truth stated in a letter from General Sherman dated at Savannah, January 8, 1865, to a citizen of Georgia. He says: "Georgia is not out of the Union, and therefore the talk of "reconstruction" appears to me inappropriate. Some of the people have been and still are in a state of revolt: and as long as they remain armed and organized, the United States must pursue them with armies and deal with them according to military law. But as soon as they break up their armed organizations and return to their homes, I take it they will be dealt with by the civil courts. Some of the rebels in Georgia, in my judgment, deserve death, because they have committed murder, and other crimes, which are punished with death by all civilized governments on earth. You may rest assured that the Union will be preserved, cost what it may. And if you are sensible men you will conform to this order of things, or else migrate to some other country. There is no other alternative open to the people of Georgia.

"My opinion is that no negotiations are necessary, nor commissioners, nor conventions, nor any thing of the kind. Whenever the people of Georgia quit rebelling against their Government, then the State of Georgia will have resumed her functions in the Union. It seems to me that it is time for the people of Georgia to act for themselves, and return, in time, to their duty to the Government of their fathers."

end and they desiring to be again in the enjoyment of their wonted rights and privileges, and in the performance of their duties as members of the family (from which they have been for a season separated *in fact* but not *in law*), the question is how that "restoration" is to be effected. This brief "statement of the case" explains clearly the meaning of the term "restoration," and shows the propriety of its use.

1. A necessary consequence of the proposition above stated (viz., that no State has been, or is now, out of the Union) is, that all acts of any bodies of men in those States by whatever name called, conventions, legislatures, congress, designed or intended and performed for the purpose of withdrawing that State from the Union, and all acts consequent on or produced by such attempted withdrawal or designed to aid in its practical carrying out, are each and every of them *merely void* :* so as to all sim-

*This has been emphatically and solemnly declared in a recent executive paper of President Johnson, in which he pronounces "that all acts and proceedings of the political, military and civil organizations which have been in a state of insurrection and rebellion within the State of Virginia against the authority and laws of the United States, and of which Jefferson Davis, John Letcher and William Smith were late the respective chiefs, are declared null and void.

"All persons who shall exercise, claim, pretend or attempt to exercise any political, military or civil power, authority, jurisdiction or right, by, through or under Jefferson Davis, late of the city of Richmond, and his confidants, or under John Letcher or William Smith and their confidants, or under any pretended political, military or civil commission or authority issued by them or of them, since the 17th day of April, 1861, shall be deemed and taken as in Rebellion against the United States, and shall be dealt with accordingly.

"The Secretaries of State, War, Treasury, Navy, Interior, and Postmaster General are ordered to proceed to put in force all laws of the United States pertaining to their several departments, and the District Judge of said district to proceed to hold courts within said States, in accordance with the provisions of the acts of Congress. The Attorney-General will instruct the proper officers to libel and bring to judgment, confiscation and sale property, subject to confiscation, and enforce the administration of justice within said State, in all matters civil and criminal within the cognizance of the Federal courts; to carry into effect the guaranty of the Federal Constitution of a republican form of State Government, and afford the advantage and security of domestic laws, as well as to complete the re-establishment of the authority of the laws of the United States, and the full and complete restoration of peace within the limits aforesaid. Francis H. Pierpoint, Governor of the State of Virginia, will be aided by the Federal Government so far as may be necessary in the lawful measures which he may take for the extension and administration of the State Government throughout the geographical limits of said State."

The case is also very strongly and truly put by General Wilson, in the following letter to the rebel Governor Brown: "Headquarters Cavalry Corps, M. D. M., Macon, Ga., May 9, 1865, 2:30 P. M. Sir—In pursuance of instructions received this day from Hon. E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War, I have the honor to inform you that your telegram of the 7th inst., forwarded by my sanction, has been laid before the President of the United States, and the following are his reply and orders:

"1. That the collapse in the currency and the great destitution of provisions

ilar acts of any pretended executive or judicial authority, the creature of Rebellion. This proposition would seem self-evident; the thing created must derive its vitality and power from its creator; and where the latter is wholly and absolutely baseless, is without a particle of the spirit of life, and whose death in a constitutional and legal sense was precisely contemporaneous with its appearance, in such a case, the attempted or pre-

among the people of Georgia, mentioned in your telegram, have been caused by treason, insurrection and rebellion against the laws of the United States, incited and carried on for the last four years by you and your confederate rebels and traitors, who alone are responsible for all the waste, destitution and want now existing in that State.

"2. What you call 'the result which the fortunes of war have imposed upon the people of Georgia,' and all the loss and woe they have suffered, are charged upon you and your confederate rebels, who have usurped the authority of the State and assumed to act as its Governor and Legislature, made acts treasonable to the United States, and by means of that usurped authority provoked the war to extremity, until compelled by superior force to lay down their arms and accept the result which 'the fortunes of war' have imposed upon the people of Georgia, as the just penalty of the crimes of treason and rebellion.

"That the restoration of peace and order cannot be intrusted to rebels and traitors who destroyed the peace and trampled down the order that had existed more than half a century in Georgia, a great and prosperous State. The persons who incited the war and carried it on at so great a sacrifice to the people of Georgia, and of all the United States, will not be allowed to assemble, at the call of their accomplice, to act again as a legislature of the State, and again usurp its authorities and franchises. Men whose crimes spilled so much blood of their fellow citizens, and pressed so much woe upon the people, destroyed the finances, currency and credit of the State, and reduced the poor to destitution, will not be allowed to usurp legislative power that might be intended to set on foot fresh acts of treason and rebellion. In calling them together without permission of the President, you have perpetrated a fresh crime, that will be dealt with accordingly. I am further directed to inform you, that the President of the United States will, without delay, exert all the lawful powers of his office to relieve the people of Georgia from destitution, by delivering them from the bondage of military tyranny which avowed rebels and traitors long have imposed alike upon poor and rich.

"The President hopes that by restoring peace and order, giving security to life, liberty and property, by encouraging trade, arts, manufactures, and every species of industry, to recover the financial credit of the State, and develop its great resources, the people will again soon be able to rejoice under the Constitution and laws of the United States, and of their own State, in the prosperity and happiness they once had. To all good people who return to their allegiance, liberality will be exercised.

"If any person shall presume to answer or acknowledge the call mentioned in your telegram to the President, I am directed to cause his immediate arrest and imprisonment, and hold him subject to the orders of the War Department.

"I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

"J. H. WILSON,

Brevet Major-General."

"JOSEPH E. BROWN, Milledgeville, Ga.

tended creations from such an origin all partake of its character; all fall with it; all are equally inoperative, void and dead *ab origine*. Here the parent, the source of every thing subsequent, was the ordinance of secession; on this was based the *new* State, the new constitution, congress, legislatures, every thing; not a moment of real vital existence have any of them had, because the ordinance was wholly and absolutely null and void for the reasons already stated.

It is of the last importance to adhere throughout to the proposition, that no rebel State has been, or is now, out of the Union, and to accept the *legitimate* practical results of that proposition, whatever they may be. Nor need any apprehension be entertained as to those practical results, if the views above stated, as to the "reconstruction of society," and the "treatment of the rebels individually," are adopted and truly carried out. Let this be done, (and, as has already been shown, *it can be done*,) and not many months, surely not a long period will elapse before that region will be cleared of the *leading spirits* of the Rebellion by their punishment or flight, or if they remain, by their quiet and grateful submission to the Constitution and laws of their country; within a period not longer, the prejudices, asperities and delusions of *others* will disappear before the resistless light of truth, and the great bulk of the people will embrace with earnest joy the blessings of the mild and paternal Government of their country in exchange for the horrors of tyranny, despotism, and war, which they have so bitterly experienced during the last four years. Then, whether under existing or new State constitutions and laws, that people will become, more emphatically than they have ever yet been, worthy citizens of the Republic and safe depositories of the power reposed in them by the fundamental principles of this Government.

But not till then will there be peace, quiet, real and true reconciliation and harmony, whatever course may be adopted by the executive or legislative authorities of the Union.

It may be asked what is to be the condition of those States and the inhabitants thereof till this state of things is reached. The answer is, that they must, *ex necessitate rei*, remain in their present anomalous condition—but it is to be remembered that the duration of this condition longer or shorter *depends entirely on themselves*. They can be relieved from it, if they so elect, immediately.* The constitution and laws of each rebel

* The following order for the military re-districting of the State of Virginia shows the *modus operandi* during this interval: "First.—The sub-district of the Roanoke, Blackwater, and Appomattox, as hereinafter designated, will constitute the District of the Nottaway, under command of Major-General George L. Hartsuff, headquarters at Petersburg. Second.—The counties of Accomac, Northampton, Fortress Monroe, and the sub-district of the Peninsula, as hereinafter designated, will constitute the District of Fortress Monroe, under command of Brevet Major-General Nelson A. Miles, headquarters at Fortress Monroe. Third.—The counties of Princess Anne, Norfolk, Nansemond, Southampton, and Isle of Wight, will constitute the District of Eastern Virginia, under command of Brigadier-General G. H. Gordon, headquarters at Norfolk. Fourth.—The counties of Nelson, Amherst, Bedford, Campbell, Appomattox, Pittsylvania, Henry, Patrick, and Franklin will constitute the District of Lynchburg, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General J. Irwin Gregg. Fifth.—The county of

State, as they pre-existed the ordinance of secession, are at this moment the constitution and laws of that State. This may to some seem a startling, nay, an inadmissible proposition; but when examined it will be found strictly true and practically safe and beneficent. It must constantly be borne in mind, that those State constitutions and laws are by the very *fundamental* principles of our Union *subordinate to the Constitution of the United States and to all legislative and executive acts conformable to the Constitution.* The Constitution and those constitutional acts are the "supreme law of the land." Consequently, taking for example the State of South Carolina, at this very moment she is in a state of Union, with her constitution and laws as they existed on the 20th of December, 1860, with such modifications, changes, and variations as are created by any acts of the executive or legislative power of the United States conformable to the Constitution of the United States *and now in force.* Thus, the provisions of the constitution, laws, and customs of South Carolina as to slavery are wholly done away by the Emancipation Proclamations of September, 1862, and January, 1863, if those proclamations were a *constitutional* exercise of power by the President; in which case *not a slave* now exists in that State. It is not proposed here to discuss the constitu-

Henrico will constitute a District, under command of Brigadier-General M. R. Patrick. *Sixth*—The counties of Mathews, Gloucester, New Kent, King William, Charles City, York, Warwick, and Elizabeth City, excepting Fortress Monroe, will constitute the sub-district of the Peninsula, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General B. C. Ludlow. *Seventh*—The counties of Middlesex, King and Queen, Essex, Caroline, Spottsylvania, and Orange, will constitute the sub-district of the Rappahannock, under command of Colonel E. V. Sumner, First New York Mounted Rifles. *Eighth*—The counties of Hanover, Louisa, Goochland, Fluvanna, Albemarle, and Greene, will constitute the sub-district of the South Anna, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General A. C. Vorris. *Ninth*—The counties of Surrey, Sussex, Greenville, Brunswick, Dinwiddie, and Prince George, will constitute the sub-district of the Blackwater, under command of Brevet Brigadier General McKibbin. *Tenth*—The counties of Mecklenburg, Lunenburg, Nottoway, Prince Edward, Charlotte, and Halifax, will constitute the sub-district of the Roanoke, under command of Brevet Major-General Ferrero. *Eleventh*—The counties of Chesterfield, Amelia, Powhatan, Cumberland, and Buckingham, will constitute the sub-district of the Appomattox, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General C. W. Smith. Commanders of districts and such of the sub-districts as are not included in any of the districts above described, will report direct to these headquarters, and will constitute separate brigades for the purpose of enabling the commanding officers to convene general courts-martial. The commanders of districts and sub-districts are made superintendents of Negro affairs within their respective limits." To the same import is the following extract from the *New Orleans Delta*, of May 25, 1865: "General Sheridan has assumed command of the Military Division of the Southwest, embracing the country west of the Mississippi and south of the Arkansas Rivers. General Canby has divided the Department of the Gulf into the following four divisions—Louisiana, headquarters New Orleans; Mississippi headquarters Jackson; Alabama, headquarters Montgomery; Florida, headquarters Tallahassee. The citizens of Louisiana appear much gratified by the programme of the new military authorities."

tional and legal validity of those magnificent State papers, nor whether they produced the effect desired and intended by the President. It is well known that he considered them clearly within his constitutional power, and that in his view they instantaneously struck the shackles from every slave in the rebel States.* Those proclamations are mentioned simply by way of illustration; the Confiscation Acts of Congress might be referred to for the same purpose, but it is deemed unnecessary at this time.

It is sufficient to say that, if those *executive and legislative* acts are authorized by the Constitution, they are at this moment the *law in South Carolina*. In our wonderful and beautiful though complicated system, not fully understood even among ourselves, and quite unintelligible to most foreigners, it is as vitally important to the people to preserve unimpaired *legitimate State* rights as it is to protect and preserve inviolate the rights and powers of the national Government. Occasionally a foreigner has perfectly clear and just conceptions on this subject, and when he adds to that accurate knowledge of our political system an enthusiastic admiration and a heartfelt love of our institutions, his views are entitled to the highest respect and consideration, and indeed should have the weight of authority. Of this class is the eminent and excellent Du Gasparin. His words at this juncture cannot be too deeply pondered, nor his warnings too carefully listened to by the American citizen. In his great work, "America before Europe," he says: † "The independence of the States must be protected with jealous care." "I counsel no measure that would not be strictly constitutional. I should have grossly contradicted myself if, after having advised Americans to preserve their institutions and retain them at the end of the war as they were at its beginning, I had urged them to violate them in their fundamental principle. The *liberty of the States* is no less important to be maintained than the *sovereignty of the nation*. A rebellion by the South *against the Constitution* should not be combated by a *similar rebellion* by the North. The two original features of the American organization should neither perish in the furnace of civil war. It will be glorious to see the United States come out of it with their *local* independence and their *national* unity alike unimpaired."

Whatever momentary inconveniences may be suffered from a rigid adherence to the fundamental doctrines (1.) that "no State can secede from the Union, except by an amendment of the Constitution," (2.) that the

* The question of the *effect* of these proclamations is at this moment of great practical importance, and will continue to be so till the constitutional amendment as to slavery is adopted by twenty-seven States. That this most desirable event will occur in the course of the next year can hardly be doubted; but as it may be longer delayed, it is not deemed out of place to add to this paper, by way of appendix, the writer's argument in favor of the constitutional validity of the proclamation of September, 1862. An additional reason for doing so is that that argument received the cordial approbation of President Lincoln, and as every thing from his pen since his martyrdom is an object of interest to his fellow-citizens, a copy of an autograph letter received from him is also given. That argument is reprinted *verbatim* as read by President Lincoln, in order that it may be seen exactly of what he spoke.

† "America before Europe," pp. 362, 367, 368. His other work, "The Uprising of a Great People," contains similar warnings.

rights of the *States* as States must be preserved inviolate; whatever those inconveniences may be, a just regard to the preservation of the Union and of the Constitution requires, that those doctrines be steadily kept in view, and on no pretence, in any degree, or in any manner, departed from. The present condition of the rebel States is simply this: The people of those States were in rebellion against the Government, and sought to destroy the Union by the overthrow of the Constitution; while in this condition, the performance of their duties and the fulfillment of their obligations as members of the Union, were by their own act prevented, and in a constitutional sense, their State functions in that regard (that is as members of the Union) were in a condition of suspension. The Rebellion is now ended in the only mode in which it could be ended, namely, by the total destruction of its military power; and those States never having been in a constitutional and legal sense out of the Union, but their duties, obligations, and privileges having been merely in a condition of practical suspense for a season, and that suspension being now terminated, they *ipso facto*, return to the fulfillment of those duties and obligations, and to the enjoyment of those privileges. Without inaccuracy of language, and without the danger of the implication of erroneous ideas, "restoration" to the Union, in a practical sense, may well be predicted of their present condition. The results which follow from this view of the matter are simple, safe, and intelligible.

Bear constantly in mind the fact, that the Constitution of the United States, and all constitutional acts of Congress and of the Executive *now in force*, are the *supreme law* in each of those States—and the further essential and indisputable fact, that there is now, and there need never cease to be, in each of those States abundant *national* military power to insure implicit obedience to that Constitution and those acts.* And where, then, is the difficulty in this mode of "restoration?" All the civil officers of the *nation* can safely perform their functions; her judicial tribunals can exercise their powers and carry into execution their decrees; taxes, external and internal, can be assessed and collected, and every *national* duty enforced. It has been demonstrated in a former part of this paper, that the requisite military power abundantly exists. It is said that any State (by way of example again, South Carolina) will not perform its duty to itself by resuming its internal State functions, either under its existing or under a new constitution; will not elect a governor or legislature, nor appoint judicial and other civil officers, nor send members to either branch of the national Congress? This, should it be the fact, would be a truly anarchical state of things; and at least, would indicate on the part of the people of that State, an utter disregard of all that the people of other States deem essential to

* General THOMAS, in a letter of the 22d of May, 1865, to the Legislature of Tennessee, has well stated what will be done by him and by our Generals in every rebel State. He says: "I am prepared to assist the civil authorities in every part of the State, both by securing the officers from personal violence when in the execution of their office, in holding courts, &c., and assisting them to capture and bring to trial all persons who offer armed hostility to the State or National Government, and will so assist the civil authorities of the State as long as the National Government affords me the means of doing so."

their comfort, safety and well being. Yet of what imaginable consequence would it be to the United States, so long as that State (South Carolina) pays its taxes to the General Government, interferes in no manner with the collection of the national duties on imports at its seaports, and offers no obstruction to the due and regular execution of the national laws through the national judicial tribunals; in other words, so long as the Constitution and laws of the United States are fully operative? It has already been shown that the nation has now, and never will cease to have, the full and effective means of enforcing obedience to the national Constitution and laws in any State that has been in rebellion; and if obedience is not rendered voluntary it can and will be compelled. Again, if that State refuses or neglects to appoint Senators or elect Representatives to the national Congress, no harm is done to the *nation*; the State absurdly and injuriously to itself throws away its privileges, but in so doing it inflicts no wound, not the slightest, on the nation; the national Senate and House are convened and organized as usual, and pass laws operative and binding alike on the people of every State, that State which chooses to be unrepresented and that which has its full delegation in each House. Suppose that the State of New York, or of Illinois, in a fit of senseless passion, neglected or refused to be represented in Congress, the wheels of the national Government would not thereby be arrested or even clogged for a moment in their workings; those States would render a voluntary or a compulsory obedience to the laws of the nation, and the loss by their wayward conduct would be to them as States and not to the nation. The remarks, applied to South Carolina by way of illustration, of course, equally apply to every State that has been in rebellion; and it is thus seen that all that concerns the United States, *the nation*, is that obedience be rendered to her Constitution and laws, and that if any State chooses to be, in a domestic point of view, in a condition of anarchy, and sees fit to deprive itself of its rightful power and influence in the national councils, the detriment under our wise and beautifully devised system is confined to that State, is local and territorial, and in no degree, not even the least, extends to the *nation*, or in any manner affects its power or prosperity, or retards its resistless onward-progress. But will South Carolina—will any State thus stultify itself? Will she deprive herself of the countless blessings of a well-ordered State Government; introduce *domestic* anarchy and discord; cast away her right of representation in the Legislature of the country? Why should she? No motive can be imagined for a course so suicidal and of such unmixed absurdity and folly; and it may well be believed that the world will never be called on to witness a spectacle so miserable and so revolting.

It is manifest from the foregoing consideration that the great duty of the Government of the Union under existing circumstances is, first: To adopt sure and unailing measures to obtain obedience in every State and in every section of every State to the *national* Constitution and laws; to permit no violations of duty and no departures from loyalty to the *Union* by any man or any set of men; to tolerate nowhere any thing calculated or intended to preserve or foster the infernal spirit that led to the Rebellion—but on the contrary to adopt and pursue practically all such measures as will *extirpate that spirit for ever*. As has already been suggested to accomplish these necessary and indispensable ends military force may

for a season (longer or shorter, according to the *will of that people*), be absolutely requisite; and, as has also been stated, this great nation has now, and always can have that force to the utmost required extent.

A second and an equally solemn and imperative duty of the national Government, is to preserve inviolate the rights guaranteed to the *States* by the national Constitution. Among those rights, confessedly are: (1.) The right to have such Constitution and such laws for their interior and domestic government as they see fit, subject only to the condition that the "form of Government" shall, in the language of the national Constitution, be "republican."

(2.) The right to prescribe the qualifications of electors, that is, who shall and who shall not possess the elective franchise. It is very clear that without an amendment of the national Constitution, the national Government cannot interfere in this matter. But practically speaking, that Government has, under the Constitution, the full power to protect *itself* against any improper or injurious exercise of that power by the people of a State, for, first, each House is "the judge" of the qualifications of its own members, and thus can refuse admission to all deemed unsuitable or unworthy; and second, each House has the power of expulsion of members. Thus, if the Legislature or the electoral body in any State were so composed as to send to the Senate or to the House of Representatives a man dangerous to the Union, he could be refused a seat or deprived of it, if admitted. This is a perfect practical safeguard so far as *the nation* is concerned.

It is very clear from the foregoing considerations, that there is no lawful or constitutional mode in which the question of "negro suffrage" can be controlled or decided by the national Government; the sooner this fact is understood and appreciated, and acted on by all, the sooner will there be a real and effective pacification and harmony throughout the land. Some regard the extension of the elective franchise to the black equally with the white as vitally essential to the peace and well-being of the country. If this view is conceded to be correct, it is hoped that none entertaining it would desire to attain their ends at the cost of a *violation of the Constitution*. But if there are such, they form but an inconsiderable class of impracticable enthusiasts. The *people* resolve, and will take care, that the Constitution, the ark of our safety, be preserved wholly and absolutely from desecration. How then is this extension of suffrage, if admitted to be of the very highest importance, to be obtained? There are but two modes. First: An amendment of the Constitution in the mode prescribed by itself. Second: A steady perseverance in the work of the "reconstruction of society" in those States, and the consequent extinction there of the "spirit of the Rebellion," and the substitution in its place of the views, feelings and dispositions suited to the "new" state of things."

That this latter result, required as it is by the plainest and most persuasive considerations, *can* and will be effected has, it is believed, already been shown in this paper; and when effected, it is certain that this subject [of negro suffrage] will receive the most mature and enlightened consideration, and will be disposed of in such a manner as philanthropy, humanity and the best interests of civilization and of the country require. It is not a "whisper of fancy" nor a "phantom of hope" to believe and to assert,

that at an early period we shall witness such a "reconstruction of society" in the rebel States as is portrayed in the preceding pages; and, as is beyond doubt, *indispensable* to the present harmony and the future safety of the Republic. Let all who look with timid apprehension or gloomy foreboding at the present state and the immediate future of Southern society, remember these facts.

(1.) That the military force of the nation is, and will continue to be, fully adequate in every portion of every rebel State to preserve perfect peace and order; to suppress all exhibitions, by word or deed, of disloyalty to the country; to insure entire safety to the judicial tribunals of the Union in the performance of their functions, and to secure perfect respect and implicit obedience to their judgments; to enable all civil, ministerial and other officers of the Government to execute their duties, such as assessors and collectors of internal taxes, census enumerators, commissioners of confiscated estates, marshals, officers of the customs.

(2.) That there is and always has been a "leaven" of loyalty in every rebel State, which, though not sufficient to "leaven the whole lump," will materially aid now in all works requisite for social "reconstruction" and political "restoration."

(3.) The horrors of the last four years of war and of a despotism tyrannical and severe beyond precedent, render the great bulk of the people of that region not only willing but anxious to enjoy once more the blessings of peace, security and liberty.

(4.) The most obtuse and the most prejudiced rebel mind cannot fail to see in the *facts* of these four years, the most overwhelming evidence of his gross delusion in every important particular as to the *character* of his brethren of the North.

(5.) Self-interest, that great motor in human action, most palpably and most imperiously demands of those people a full and honest acquiescence in the "new" state of things; it demands of them a course of conduct which will at the earliest moment remove from among them the last remaining soldier of the Republic, and will place them as their fellow-citizens of the North are placed, in the perfect fruition of all the privileges of this, "the best Government in the world."

(6.) Let us all duly estimate the transcendent influences of a *free press* and of *free speech*, with which that portion of the Republic is now, for the first time in its history, to be blessed, and by which it is to be instructed, elevated and refined.

(7.) Consider, too, the genuine brotherly feeling toward the people of the rebel States which pervades the universal North; no one among us is actuated by a spirit of revenge; no one calls for indiscriminate punishment, all desire and demand amnesty, except in a comparatively small number of cases, where the stern demands of justice and a due regard to the future safety of the Union require exemplary punishment and the necessity of which will be conceded alike by those people themselves, by us and by the civilized world. Who can estimate the kindly and emphatic influence on the people of the South of this generous, forgiving, fraternal feeling so universal at the North!

(8.) Commercial and business relations in all their diversified ramifications are fast being resumed between the two sections. What a bond of unity and concord is this! and how powerfully will it contribute not to "restore" matters to *their old condition*, but to create an infinitely better and happier personal and social intercourse between them and us.

(9.) Beyond question, the rebel States will hereafter be freed from the noxious presence of many a "slave aristocrat," many a "fire-eater," many a disturber of the harmony of the country: this will, indeed, be a great boon, and few, very few, will be found to shed a single tear over the voluntary or involuntary expatriation of such persons; scarcely any "so poor as to do them reverence."

(10.) The large addition that will almost immediately be made to the population of each of those States by citizens from the non-slaveholding States and by emigrants from the various countries of Europe, will subserve a highly useful purpose in the great matter of the "reconstruction of society," and the consequent preparation of the citizens of those States to perform well their duties as citizens of a Republic, in which a political and social aristocracy, founded on negro slavery, will no more be known for ever.

To a community *thus regenerated*, all questions affecting the public weal, the rights of the citizen, whether black or white, and especially the great right of suffrage, may safely be committed. Let it not be said that this regeneration may be long deferred or may never occur, for while it is believed *certain* that neither of these assertions will be verified by results, there can be no mistake in saying that patriotism and an enlightened love of the Union plainly declare, that the falsification even of those predictions would be attained at too costly a price by any, even the smallest, *violation of the Constitution*.

OUR FINANCIAL POLICY.

MUCH has been written during the past four years upon the national finances and currency. The country has been greatly excited, and many persons, moved more by their feelings than any intelligent appreciation of the questions at issue, have attempted to enlighten the public, who, unfortunately, greatly needed to be enlightened themselves; consequently we have had a great deal of idle speculation and senseless bombast about the vast resources of the country and its wonderful ability to bear unlimited taxation. We have heard of the millions of

"Acres vacant still
"The thousandth generation scarce can till;"

of its inexhaustible mines of iron, gold and petroleum; of the increasing stream of immigration, and the endless wealth which such an increase of population would produce; but of the actual financial policy of the country little has been written, except by interested partisans of the government on one side, or persons of doubtful loyalty on the other.

Candid, independent, scientific criticism has been wanting; owing, doubtless, to the fact that few persons have devoted to the subject that amount of thought, study and patient examination, without which nothing really valuable can be offered.

A small work of 220 pages has just made its appearance, which stands in striking contrast with most of those which the disturbed condition of the country has produced. It is entitled: "A Critical Examination of Our Financial Policy during the Southern Rebellion, by SIMON NEWCOMB;" published by D. APPLETON & Co., New York. It is the production of one evidently qualified to write upon the subject of finance, of one who has given long attention to the subject, and who well understands the laws of wealth.

In the first chapter, the writer recognizes "*The laws of trade as founded on human nature; that these laws are immutable, and cannot be violated with impunity.*"

The second chapter treats of "*The financial elements of military strength,*" and shows what the true uses of money are in times of war. The author lays down the very sensible proposition, that, "The military power of a nation is increased by the amount of industry which it can divert into the channels of war," and shows that what the nation really wants is *labor*; a certain number of days service from every inhabitant; that by the use of money, this may be accomplished in such a way that each person may be taxed equally, that is, his due proportion of the public contributions. This chapter is a very useful one, well worthy the attention of all persons, especially those called to legislate for the country.

"*Our debt and taxes*" form the subject of the next chapter, in which the author strongly advocates the policy of high taxation, as essential to the credit of the government and the permanent welfare of the nation. He discusses the propriety of exempting the public debt from taxation, and says, page 86:

"There is no reason why the owner of a government bond should not pay the same tax on it, as on any other property of the same kind. The man who loan money to the government does not thereby resign either the real ownership or the benefits of the money, for it is all returned to him; he ought, therefore, to pay the same taxes on it that he would pay if he had kept it for his own use." After further showing the great impolicy and injustice of exempting this class of bonds from taxation, he adds: "It is to be hoped, therefore, that in the sale of bonds hereafter authorized, the government will bind itself only to levy no higher taxes on them than on any other personal property."

In this wish of the writer, we think all sensible men must very heartily concur. But a small part of the bonds thus far given have a long period to run before it will be optional with the government to redeem them. The first issue of the 5-20's will soon be at the command of the government. There is not a large amount of 10-40's yet issued, so that within three to nine years it will be in the power of Congress, if the national credit remains good, to call in the old and issue new bonds, subject to the ordinary taxation of that kind of property.

It is of the utmost importance that this should be done, for nothing gives more dissatisfaction than the fact that holders of the public stocks are exempted from their just proportion of the public burdens.

These stocks can be found in every city, town and village in the coun-

try; hence the evil and the wrong is universally felt. This unwise and unjust exemption will do more to make the national debt odious, and endanger its utter repudiation, than any thing else whatever. The change should, therefore, be made as soon as it can be legally and honorably done.

"*Legal tender notes, and their influence on private faith and the business of the country,*" is the title of the fifth chapter. The writer thus speaks, pages 133 and 134 :

"As favorable a view as we can take of the legal tender act is, that it enacts in substance as follows :

"*Whenever any debt is discharged within the United States, the creditor shall forfeit to the debtor such per centage of the debt as is equal to the depreciation of legal tender notes since the debt was contracted.* This is in fact the sum and substance of the enactment. It made every promissory note, every bank bill, every dollar of bank stock, every bond of every State and railroad corporation, and indeed, every promise to pay money, a *real unavoidable bet*, which the creditor wins when gold goes down, and the debtor when gold goes up. This in fact, is the result of every system of irredeemable legal tender paper, and must continue to be while human nature remains as it is. * * * To the lover of justice, the discussion of such a system of spoliation, from a merely utilitarian point of view, must be repulsive in the extreme. No man who believes that honesty is the best policy; no man who believes in the moral government of the universe; no man who believes that the laws of nature always act to preserve the good and destroy the evil, will ask for any other judgment on the system than that which will be pronounced by his own conscience. But it will be instructive to trace all this injustice to its economic effects, present and future, if only to show how we are punished for transgressing a moral law.

It is plain that while gold has been rising from par to a premium of 130 per cent., the creditor class of the community, represented by the owners of bank stock, depositors in savings banks, holders of bonds and mortgages, and the frugal poor who have loaned their savings, have on the whole, been subjected to heavy and unjust losses; while the debtor class, represented by those who live beyond their income or do business on borrowed capital, have made heavy and illegitimate profits. Owing to the different functions of the two classes in social economy, their gains and losses are productive of effects which virtually concern the best interests of society, and are therefore, well worthy the serious consideration of the philosopher and statesman. The debtor class, having been from time to time relieved of a per centage of their equitable liability, have found less difficulty than usual in meeting their obligations. Hence there have been fewer failures than common, as well as larger profits, and unusual business prosperity. For the country is naturally considered prosperous when there are few failures and large profits."

This is a fair, unexaggerated statement of the effects of an inconvertible currency, and the question with every well wisher of his country must be, how long shall this condition of things be allowed to exist? How long shall injustice and wrong be sanctioned by law?

The following illustration is given, page 125 :

"Three years ago 200 mechanics each put \$100 into a savings bank. The savings bank loaned this \$20,000 to a ship builder who employed it in building a ship. He sends the ship to England and sells her for \$22,000 in gold, making a legitimate profit of ten per cent. By every principle of justice \$20,000 of the money belongs to the savings bank. But now the legal tender clause comes in and declares the builder relieved from the debt in payment of 20,000 paper dollars. He therefore buys the paper with perhaps \$8,000 in gold, pays them to the bank and keeps the additional \$12,000 [in gold] for his own private use."

This the writer thinks would not only enable the ship builder to indulge in riotous living, but "furnish to the country a fine example of commercial prosperity."

"*Necessity for paper money—the lessons of history*" forms the subject

of the sixth chapter; "Were legal tender notes necessary?" that of the seventh, while the last is occupied with an examination of "The national banking system," in regard to which the writer arrives at rather unfavorable conclusions.

From this brief and imperfect notice of the contents of the work it will be seen that it treats upon topics of great interest, and if this be ably done, as we certainly think it is, the author has rendered an important service to those who would understand the great questions of finance, currency, and taxation.

The fallacy in regard to the gold premium which has doubtless been honestly entertained, and certainly very extensively propagated, that it was caused mainly by speculators and the operations of persons unfriendly to the federal cause, is examined very carefully, and thoroughly refuted. If the writer of the work had done nothing else we should feel that the public was greatly indebted to him for effectually demolishing a falsehood, which has not only influenced unfavorably the popular mind, but the action of Congress and the Treasury Department.

The ever famous and ever preposterous "gold bill," as it was called, was the offspring of this delusion. Its worse than failure, as a remedy for the supposed evil of speculative operations, opened the eyes of many, but the general impression amongst the masses still is, doubtless, that the principal cause of the high premium on gold was *speculation*.

That the price of gold may be affected temporarily, from one day to another, by the operations of bears and bulls, is quite certain; but we must remember that there are as many of one kind of these animals as the other, that the bears are as much engaged and *as effective* in bringing down, as the bulls are in putting up the price of gold. Their operations essentially balance and neutralize each other. Speculation is based upon the doctrine of chances, and the greater the number of chances the more rife and excessive the speculation. During the war these chances were almost incalculable. The hazards of battles and sieges, of marches and bombardments; the uncertainties of Congressional legislation, and the policy of the Treasury; the intrigues of party politicians at home, and the machinations of unfriendly statesmen abroad, all conspired to render these hazards as uncertain as they were numerous. In addition to all this, the Secretary of the Treasury himself entered the avenue as a *bear*, and bear too, of great magnitude, whose movements none could accurately divine, but whose readiness to *come down* upon the gold market at any moment with irresistible power none could doubt—all these conspired to create occasion and opportunity for speculation, such, perhaps, as the world never saw before. The speculators could raise ripples from day to day on this vast ocean of uncertainty and doubt, but the great tide of a redundant currency and doubtful government credit none could essentially influence or control. With a bank and treasury circulation tripled in quantity, and the fate of the nation trembling in the balance, there was no occasion that any additional force should operate on the gold market to make it a scene of wild excitement and desperate adventure.

A. W.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 23.

THE LAW OF SHIPPING.

(Continued from page 443, vol. 52.)

PART-OWNERS.

Two or more persons may become part-owners of a ship, in either of three ways. They may build it together, or join in purchasing it, or each may purchase his share independently of the others. In either case, their rights and obligations are the same.

If the register, or instrument of transfer, or other equivalent evidence, do not designate specific and unequal proportions, they will be presumed to own the ship in equal shares.

Part-owners are not necessarily partners. But a ship, or any part of a ship, may constitute a part of the stock or capital of a copartnership; and then it will be governed, in all respects, by the law of partnership.

A part-owner may at any time sell his share to whom he will. But he cannot sell the share of any other part-owner, without his authority. If he dies, his share goes to his representatives, and not to the surviving part-owners.

A majority of the part-owners may, generally, manage and direct the employment of the property at their discretion. But a court of admiralty will interfere and do justice between them, and prevent either of the part-owners from inflicting injury upon the others.

One part-owner may, in the absence of the rest, and without prohibition from them, manage the ship, as for himself and for them. And the contracts he enters into, in relation to the employment or preservation of the ship, bind all the part-owners in favor of an innocent third party.

In general, all the part-owners are liable, each one for the whole amount, for all the repairs of a ship, or for necessities actually supplied to her, in good faith. If one pays his part, or more than his share, and it is agreed between him and the creditor that he shall not be held further, still, if the others do not pay, he must pay, unless there is a better consideration for the promise not to call on him, than his merely paying a part of what he was legally bound to pay; for where a man is bound to pay all, his paying a part is no consideration whatever for a promise to him. If he had a discharge under seal, it might protect him at law, but would not, of itself, in admiralty.

If it can be clearly shown, however, that especial credit was given, and intended to be given, to one part-owner personally, to the exclusion of the others, then the others cannot be holden. If the goods were charged to "ship" so and so, or to "ship and owners," this would tend strongly to show that it was intended to supply the goods on the credit of all the owners. If charged to some one owner alone, this would not absolutely prove that credit was intentionally given to him exclusively. But it would raise a presumption to that effect which would be rebutted only by show-

ing that no other owner was known; or by some other evidence which disproved the intention of discharging the other part-owners.

So, if the note, negotiable or otherwise, of one part-owner were taken in payment, if the promisor refused to pay, the others would be liable, unless they could show a distinct bargain by which they were exonerated.

Commonly, the ship's husband, as the agent of all the owners for the management of the ship has long been called, is one of the part-owners. But he is not so necessarily. He may be appointed in writing or otherwise. His duties are, in general, to provide for the complete equipment and repair of the ship, and take care of her while in port; to see that she is furnished with all regular and proper papers; to make proper contracts for freight or passage, and collect the receipts and make the disbursements proper on these accounts. For these things he has all the necessary powers. But he cannot, without special power, insure for the rest, nor buy a cargo for them, nor borrow money, nor give up the lien on the cargo for the freight, nor delegate his authority.

Where he acts within his powers, a ship's husband binds all his principals, that is, all the part-owners. But a third party may deal with him on his personal credit alone; and if the part-owners, believing this, and authorized to believe it by any acts or words of the third party, settle their accounts with the ship's husband accordingly, this third party cannot now establish a claim against them to their detriment. If a ship's husband be not a part-owner, all the part-owners are liable to him, each for the whole amount.

Whether a part-owner has a lien on the shares of other part-owners, or on the whole vessel, for advances or balances due on account of the vessel, that is, whether the part-owner who has advanced more than his proportion has the shares of the other owners as his security for their proportions, is not certain on authority. Perhaps the current of adjudication may be adverse to this lien, generally. But there is not wanting authority, nor, as we think, strong reason, for saying that this lien should belong to the part ownership of a ship, as such. In England, it seems at this day, after some fluctuation in the decisions, that there is no such lien or security; but the courts of this country, and especially of New York, favor this lien.

THE LIABILITY OF MORTGAGEES.

A mortgagee of a ship, who is in possession, is, in general, liable for supplies, repairs, &c., in the same way as an owner. But if he has not taken possession, he is not liable for supplies or repairs, merely on the ground that his security is strengthened by whatever preserves or increases the value of the vessel. Nor can he be held liable, except by some acts or words of his own, which show that credit was *properly* given to him, or that he has come under a valid engagement to assume this responsibility.

THE CONTRACT OF BOTTOMRY.

By this contract, a ship is hypothecated (or pledged) as security for money borrowed. The form of this contract varies in different places, and, indeed, in the same place. Its essentials are:—First, that the ship itself is bound for the payment of the money. Second, that the money is to be repaid only in case the ship performs a certain voyage, and arrives

at its destined termination in safety; or, as it is sometimes provided in modern bottomries, in case that the ship is in safety on a certain day; therefore, if the ship is lost before the termination of the voyage or the expiration of the period, no part of the money is due, or, as is sometimes said, the whole debt is paid by the loss. As the lender thus consents that the repayment of the money shall depend upon the safety of the ship, he has a legal right to charge "marine interest," which means as much more than legal interest as will serve to cover his risk.

The lender may require, and the borrower pay, this marine interest, which may be much more than lawful interest, on a bottomry bond, without usury. And it has been said that maritime interest, or more than legal interest, must be charged by the contract, or it is not a loan on bottomry. But this, we think, is not accurate. We hold that maritime interest may always be waived by the lender; for such interest, however usual, or nearly universal, is not of the essence of the contract.

If the interest be not expressed in the contract, it will generally be presumed to be meant and included in the sum named as principal.

If, by the contract, the lender takes more than legal interest, and yet the money is to be paid to him whether the ship be lost or not, this is not a contract of bottomry, and it is subject to all the consequences of usury. But the lender may take security for his debt and marine interest, additional to the ship itself, provided the security is given, like the ship itself, to make the payment certain when it becomes due by the safety of the ship, but is wholly avoided if the ship be lost; for then the lender takes the risk of losing the whole, principal and interest, by the loss of the ship, and may therefore charge more than simple interest.

The most common contracts of bottomry are those entered into by the master in a foreign port, where money is needed and cannot otherwise be obtained. Therefore the security goes with the ship, and the debt may be enforced, as soon as it is payable, against the ship, wherever the ship may be. In Europe, contracts of bottomry are seldom made otherwise now. But in this country, they are frequently made by the owner himself, in the home port. And sometimes they are nothing else than contrivances to get more than legal interest. Thus, if A lends to B \$20,000 on B's ship for one year, at fifteen per cent interest, conditioned that, if the ship be lost, the money shall not be paid, and the lender insures the ship for three per cent. he gets twelve per cent interest, which is twice the legal interest, and yet incurs no risk. If such a contract were obviously and certainly merely colorable, and only a pretence for getting usurious interest, the courts would probably set it aside; but it might be difficult to show this.

If the money is payable at the end of a certain voyage, and the owner, or his servant, the master of the ship, terminate the voyage sooner—either honestly, from a change in their plan, or dishonestly, by intentional loss or wreck—the money becomes at once due.

In admiralty, and, it may be supposed, in common law-courts, a bottomry bond, made abroad, would override all other liens or engagements, except the claim for seamen's wages. The reason is, that a bottomry bond is supposed to be made from necessity, and to have provided the only means by which the ship could be brought home. For the same reason,

a later bond is sustained as against an earlier, and the last against all before it. It is possible, however, that a distinction might be taken between liens created by contract and those arising from wrong done, and that a lien by bottomry would be preferred over all the former, but not over the latter. In an English case, a collision occurred, and the vessel, to the negligence of whose crew the collision was owing, put into Cowes for repairs. A lender, without knowledge of the claim against her for the collision, advanced money for repairs, under an agreement of the master to execute a bottomry bond. It was held that the lender was entitled to priority over the owners of the injured vessel who claimed compensation for injury, only to the extent of the increased value of the vessel arising from the repairs.

The lien of bottomry depends in no degree on possession, for the ship may go all over the world with the bottomry security attached to her; but the lender ought to collect the sum due, and so discharge the bond as soon as he conveniently can; and therefore an unreasonable delay in enforcing it will destroy the lien.

There may be a mortgage of a ship, as of any chattel, as we have already said; but this is a very different thing from a loan on bottomry. We have seen that the statute of 1850 requires mortgages of ships to be recorded, but does not require that bottomry bonds should be. There is excellent reason for this distinction in reference to bottomry bonds made abroad, but none as to those made at home. In a case before Judge Story, it was held that the nature of a bottomry bond did not require that the money loaned should be for the necessities or the use of the ship. There certainly seems to be no reason why a loan made for general purposes in a home port, secured by a bottomry bond, should have any privileges over a loan secured by mortgage. But the whole business of bottomry was invented to supply the necessities of a ship in a foreign port; and the reasons applicable then are applied to home bottomries, although these are very different things in their nature and purpose.

THE EMPLOYMENT OF A SHIP BY THE OWNER.

An owner of a ship may employ it in carrying his own goods, or those of another. He may carry the goods of others, while he himself retains the possession and direction of the ship; or he may lease his ship to others, to carry their goods. In the first case, he carries the goods of others on freight; in the second, he lets his ship by charter-party. We shall consider first the carriage of goods on freight.

He may load his ship as far as he can with his own goods, and then take the goods of others to fill the vacant space; or he may put up his ship as "a general ship," to go from one stated port to another, and to carry the goods of all who offer.

It may be remarked, that the word "freight" is used in different ways; sometimes, to designate the goods or cargo that is carried, and there is some reason for believing that this was its earliest sense; sometimes to denote the money which the shipper of the goods pays to the owner of the ship for their transportation. Not unfrequently, when the word is used in this latter sense, the word "money" is added, as the phrase "freight money" leaves no question as to what is meant. Sometimes a

ship-owner who lets the whole burden of his ship to another, is said to carry the shipper's goods on freight. But the most common meaning of the word, especially in law proceedings, is the money earned by a ship not chartered, for the transportation of the goods; and in this sense we shall use it.

Nearly the whole law of freight grows out of the ancient and universal principle that the ship and the cargo have reciprocal duties or obligations towards each other for the performance of these duties. In other words, not only is the owner of the ship bound to the owner of the cargo, as soon as he receives it, to lade it properly on board, take care of it while on board, carry it in safety (so far as the seaworthiness of the ship is concerned) to its destined port, and there deliver it, all in a proper way, but the ship itself is bound to the discharge of these duties. That is to say, if, by reason of a failure in any of these particulars, the shipper of the goods is damnified, he may look to the ship-owner for indemnity; but he is not obliged to do so, because he may proceed by proper process against the ship itself. This lien, like that of bottomry, is not dependent upon possession, but will be lost by delay, especially if the vessel passes into the hands of a purchaser for value without notice. On the other hand, if the ship discharges all its duties, the owner may look to the shipper for the payment of his freight; but is not obliged to do so, because he may keep his hold upon the goods, and refuse to deliver them until the freight is paid.

The party who sends the goods may or may not be the owner of them. And he may send them either to one who is the owner, for whom the sender bought them, or to one who is only the agent of the owner. In either of these cases, the sender is called the consignor of the goods, and the party to whom they are sent is called the consignee. The sending them is called the consigning or the consignment of them; but it is quite common to hear the goods themselves called the consignment.

The rights and obligations of the ship-owner and the shipper are stated generally in an instrument of which the origin is lost in its antiquity, and which is now in universal use among commercial nations, with little variety of form. It is called the Bill of Lading. It should contain the names of the consignor, of the consignee, of the vessel, of the master, of the place of departure, and of the place of destination; also the price of the freight, with primage and other charges, if any there be, and either in the body of the bill or in the margin, the marks and numbers of the things shipped, with sufficient precision to designate and identify them. We give a usual form of a Bill of Lading in the Appendix.

It should be signed by the master of the ship, who, by the strict maritime law, has no authority to sign a bill of lading until the goods are actually on board. There is some relaxation of this rule in practice; but it should be regretted and avoided.

Usually one copy is retained by the master, and three copies are given to the shipper; one of them he retains, another he sends to the consignee with the goods, and the other he usually sends to the consignee by some other conveyance.

The delivery of the goods promised in the bill is to the consignee, or to his assigns; and the consignee may designate his assigns by writing on

the back of the bill, "Deliver the within-named goods to A. B.," and signing this order; or the consignee may indorse the bill with his name only in blank, and any one who acquires an honest title to the goods and to the bill may write over the signature an order of delivery to himself. It is held that the consignee has this power, if such be the usage, even if the word "assigns" be omitted. Such indorsement not only gives the indorsee a right to demand the goods, but passes to him the property in the goods.

As the bill of lading is evidence against the ship-owner as to the reception of the goods, and their quantity and quality, it is common to say "contents unknown," or "said to contain," &c. But without any words of this kind, the bill of lading is not conclusive upon the ship-owner in favor of the shipper, because he may show that its statements were erroneous through fraud or mistake. But the ship-owner, or master, is bound much more strongly, and perhaps conclusively, by the words of the bill of lading, in favor of a third party, who has bought the goods for value and in good faith, on the credit of the bill of lading. In a case which occurred in New York, the court said, that, as between the shipper of the goods and the owner of the vessel, a bill of lading may be explained or corrected as far as it is a receipt; that is, as to the quantity of the goods shipped, and the like; but as between the owner of the vessel and an assignee of the bill, for a valuable consideration, paid on the strength of the bill of lading, it may not be explained or corrected; because the master, by signing the bill, authorizes the purchaser to believe the goods are what the bill says they are.

The law-merchant gives to the ship, as we have seen, a lien on the goods for the freight. The master cannot demand the freight without a tender of the goods at the proper time, in the proper way, to the proper person, and in a proper condition; but then the consignee is not entitled to the goods without paying freight. The law gives this lien, whether it be expressed or not. But it may be expressly waived. The bill of lading, or other evidence, may show the agreement of the parties that the goods should be delivered first, and the freight not be payable until a certain time afterwards; and such an agreement is in general a waiver of the lien.

Nevertheless, if it seemed that the ship-owner did not intend to give up his security on the goods, a court of admiralty would be disposed so to construe such an agreement as to give the consignee possession of the goods, for a temporary purpose, as to ascertain their condition, or, possibly, that he might offer them in the market, and by an agreement to sell raise the means of paying the freight; and yet would preserve for the master his security upon the goods for a reasonable time, unless, in the meantime, they should actually become, by sale, the property of a *bona fide* purchaser.

The contract of affreightment is entire; therefore no freight is earned unless the whole is earned, by carrying the goods quite to the port of destination. If by wreck, or other cause, the transportation is incomplete, no absolute right of freight grows out of it. We say no absolute right, because a conditional right of freight does exist. To understand this, we must remember that, as soon as the ship receives the goods, it,

on the one hand, comes under the obligation of carrying them to their destination, and on the other, at the same time, or on breaking ground and beginning the voyage, acquires the right of so carrying them. Therefore, if a wreck or other interruption intervenes, the ship-owner has the right of transshipping them, and sending them forward in the original ship, or another ship, to the place of their original destination. When they arrive there, he may claim the whole freight originally agreed on; but if forwarded in the original ship, he can claim no more; for then the extra cost of forwarding the goods is his loss. If the master or owner of the ship forwards them in another ship from necessity, and at an increased cost, it seems that the shipper must pay this increased cost.

The owner not only may, but must, send forward the goods, at his own cost, if this can be done by means reasonably within his reach. He is not, however, answerable for any delay thus occurring, or for any damage from this delay. The shipper himself, by his agent, may always reclaim all his goods, at any intermediate port or place, on tendering all his freight; because the master's right of sending them forward is merely to earn his full freight. If, therefore, the goods are damaged and need care, and the master can send them forward at some time within reasonable limits, and insists upon his right to do so, the shipper can obtain possession of his goods only by paying full freight. If, however, the master tenders the goods there to the shipper, and the shipper there receives them, this is held to sever or divide the contract by agreement, and now what is called a freight *pro rata itineris*, or for that part of the voyage which is performed, is due. This is quite a common transaction.

Difficult questions sometimes arise as to what is a reception of the goods by their owner. The rights of the master and of the shipper are apparently opposed to each other, and neither must be pressed too far. The master must not pretend to hold the goods for forwarding, to the detriment of the goods or their value, when he cannot forward them, but merely uses this pretence to compel a payment of full freight. And the shipper must not refuse to receive the goods, when the master can do no more with them, and offers their delivery in good faith. The questions of this kind, so far as they are difficult, are generally questions of fact. Courts tend to this result; where the goods cannot be forwarded by the master without unreasonable effort or cost, or where they need measures for their preservation which he cannot take, and they come into possession of the shipper, and their original value has been increased by the transportation to that place, the ship-owner is held to be entitled to a proportionate share of the freight. Still, as matter of law, it seems to be settled, that, if the master certainly will not, or certainly cannot, carry or send the goods forward, the shipper is entitled to them without any payment of freight. So, the shipper may always refuse to receive them at any place other than that at which they were to be carried by the ship, and then, under no circumstances, is freight *pro rata* payable, on the general ground that the original contract is at an end, and no new one has been substituted, either expressly or tacitly, or by implication of law.

If freight for a part of the voyage is payable, the question arises by what rule of proportion shall it be measured. One is purely geographical, and was formerly much used; that is, the whole freight would pay

for so many miles, and the freight for a part must pay for so many less. Another is purely commercial. The whole freight being a certain sum for the whole distance, what will it cost to bring the goods to the place where they are received, and how much to take them thence to their original destination. Let the original freight be divided into two parts proportional to these, and the first part is the freight for the part of the voyage through which they were carried, or, as it is called, the freight *pro rata*. Neither of these, nor indeed any other fixed and precise rule, is generally adopted in this country. But both courts and merchants seek, by combining the two, to ascertain what proportion of the increase of value expected from the intended transportation has been actually conferred upon the goods by actual partial transportation, and this is to be taken as the freight that is due *pro rata itineris*.

If the bill of lading requires delivery to the consignee or his assigns, "he or they paying freight,"—which is usual,—and the master delivers the goods without receiving freight, which the consignee fails to pay, the master or owner cannot in the absence of express contract fall back on the consignor and make him liable, unless he can show that the consignor actually owned the goods, or by his words or acts made himself responsible therefor; in which case the bill of lading, in this respect, is nothing more than an order by a principal upon an agent to pay money due from the principal.

Generally, he who receives the goods under the common bill of lading is liable for the freight; but not if he be merely an indorsee or assignee of the consignee, and obtain them by his order, and not under the bill of lading, unless such indorsee, by express or implied promise, agrees to pay the freight. Generally, and under the usual bill of lading, the goods are to be delivered to the consignee or his assigns, on the payment of freight. If goods are accepted under this bill of lading, the party receiving them, whether the consignee or his assignee, becomes liable for the freight. If the master delivers goods to any one, saying that he should look to him for the freight, he may demand the freight of him unless that person had the absolute right to the goods without payment of freight; which must be very seldom the case. If the consignee is not liable for the freight, his indorsement of the bill of lading does not make him so. And if the consignee is liable, and the goods are received by any one as agent of the consignor, this agent does not thereby become liable.

If freight be paid in advance, and not subsequently earned, it must be repaid, unless it can be shown that the owner took a less sum than he would otherwise have had, and for this or some other equivalent reason the money paid was as a final settlement, and was to be retained by the owner at all events.

If a consignee pay more than he should, he may recover it back, if paid through ignorance or mistake of fact; but not if, with full knowledge of all the facts, he was ignorant or mistaken as to the law.

If one sells his ship after a voyage is commenced, he alone can claim the freight of the shipper of goods, although the contract of sale may require the seller to pay it over to the purchaser. A mortgagee of a ship who has not taken possession has not, in general, any right to the freight, unless this is specially agreed. Neither has a lender on a bottomry bond.

But it seems that a mortgagee is entitled to the freight accruing after he takes possession, although the outfits for the voyage were furnished by the mortgagor.

No freight, of course, can be earned by an illegal voyage; as the law will not enforce any illegal contract, or sanction any illegal conduct.

The goods are to be delivered, by the bill of lading, in good condition, excepting "the dangers of the seas," and such other risks or perils as may be expressed. If the goods are damaged, to any extent, by any of these perils, and yet can be, and are, delivered *in specie*, (that is, if the goods are actually delivered although hurt or spoilt, as corn or hides although rotten, flour although wet, fish although spoilt,) the freight is payable.

The shipper or consignee cannot abandon the goods for the freight, if they remain *in specie*, although they may be worthless; for damage caused by an excepted risk is his loss, and not the loss of the owner. If they are lost by a risk which the ship-owner does not except in the bill of lading, he is answerable for that loss, and it may be charged in settlement of freight.

If they are lost in substance, though not in form, that is, although the cases or vessels are preserved, as if sugar is washed out of boxes or hogsheads, or wine leaks out of casks, by reason of injury sustained from a peril of the sea, though the master may deliver the hogsheads or boxes or casks, this is not a delivery of the sugar or of the wine, and no freight is due.

If the goods are injured, or actually perish and disappear, from internal defect or decay or change, that is, from causes inherent to the goods themselves, freight is due. In a case before the Supreme Court of the United States, where a libel was brought against a vessel by the owners of twenty-four boxes of cotton thread for damage done to it on board the vessel on a voyage from Liverpool to Charleston, the court said: "Now the evidence shows very satisfactorily that the damage to the goods was occasioned by the effect of the humidity and dampness, which in the absence of any defect in the ship, or navigation of the same, or in the storage, is one of the dangers and accidents of the seas, for which the carrier is not liable. The burden lay upon the plaintiffs to show that it might, notwithstanding, have been prevented by reasonable skill and diligence of those employed in the conveyance of the goods. For it has been held, if the damage has proceeded from an intrinsic principle of decay, naturally inherent in the commodity itself, whether active in every situation, or only in the confinement and closeness of the ship, the merchant must bear the loss as well as pay the freight; as the masters and owners are in no fault, nor does their contract contain any insurance or warranty against such an event. But if it can be shown that it might have been avoided by the use of proper precautionary measures, and that the usual and customary methods for this purpose have been neglected, they [the master or owners] may still be held liable."

If they are lost from the fault of the owner, the master, or crew, the owner must make the loss good; but in this case may have, by way of offset or deduction, his freight, because the shipper is entitled to full indemnification, but not to make profit out of this loss. If goods are delivered, although damaged and deteriorated from faults for which the owner

is responsible, as bad storage, deviation, negligent navigation, or the like, freight is due; the amount of the damage being first deducted. In an important English case, the action was for freight under a charter-party, which entitled the ship-owner to freight "on a right and true delivery of the whole of the goods, agreeably to bills of lading." The bills of lading required them to be delivered in good order and well-conditioned. The cargo, consisting of chests of fruit, was much injured by the negligence of the master and crew in not ventilating sufficiently. The freight was recovered. The grounds of the decision were these. The duty of making a right and true delivery of the cargo was satisfied by the delivery made of the number of chests of fruit shipped on board; and if the contents of any of them turned out to be damaged by the negligent stowing, or subsequent want of care and proper ventilation, by the master and crew, the defendant had a cross-action or a right of set-off for his damages; but this damage was no sufficient defence against an action for the freight.

The rules in respect to passage-money are quite analogous to those which regulate the payment of freight. Usually, however, the passage-money is paid in advance. But it is not earned except by carrying the passenger, or, *pro rata*, by carrying him a part of the way with his consent. And if paid in advance, and not earned by the fault of the ship or owner, it can be recovered back.

(To be continued.)

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

Restoration of the Southern States—The various Proclamations of the Executive—The Revenue Commission—The Boards of Trade in Boston—Portuguese Tobacco monopoly abolished—Money Market—Prices of General Merchandise—Cotton in the South—Imports of Dry Goods—Specie Movement—Rates of Exchange—Prices of Government Bonds—Prices of Railway Shares—Export Tax on Cotton removed—Trade Convention at St. Louis—The Oil Fever—Petroleum Statistics.

MEASURES for restoring the late insurgent States, and with them the entire country to a condition of industrial activity appear to have constantly been present to Mr. JOHNSON'S mind since his accession to office. It is a pity that these highest evidences of political wisdom and statesmanship should appear to less advantage in men's eyes than the less beneficial but more glittering and showy acts of war, and that they should consequently attract less attention and receive less encomiums. Nevertheless, when commercial science shall have discovered a certain and definite method of calculating in dollars and cents the difference between the growth of a nation in population and wealth during a state of war and the same growth during a state of peace, then and then only will the martial trappings which now fill our idea of national glory disappear before those superior attractions which will be presented to us by a clear, close, exact, and appreciative view of the blessings of peace. And then will the true greatness of such men as President JOHNSON—men who prove themselves anxious to speedily remove all those restrictions which now impose upon commerce—be properly understood and admired.

Since the two proclamations noticed in our last number the President has

issued reconstruction proclamations for most of the Southern States, appointing to them provisional civil governors, and providing a means for their early return to the Union, and the convenient removal of all the remaining military rule now exercised within their borders. In addition to these proclamations others have been issued proclaiming all the ports of the United States, including those of the South, open to the commerce of the world—thus officially ending the blockade instituted in 1861. Furthermore, proclamations have been issued ordering that all trade restrictions imposed by military authority within the Southern States, including the Trans Mississippi, be forthwith removed.

Taken together, these mandates of the Executive Department are by far the most important state papers which have emanated from the government in many years. The commercial community will be the first to appreciate their importance and turn them to account, not only for themselves, but for the people at large.

In connection with this subject is that of the commission authorized by a law of the last Congress to inquire into the sources of the national revenue and the best method of collecting the same, with power to send for witnesses and papers. Messrs. DAVID A. WELLS, of Troy, N. Y., STEPHEN COLWELL, of Philadelphia, and S. S. HAYS, of Chicago, have been appointed as Commissioners by the Secretary of the Treasury, and Mr. E. B. ELLIOTT, of Boston, has been made Secretary. They meet together at the New York Custom House during the summer. The first subject taken up, and which will occupy the attention of the Commission, until it is supposed to be exhausted, will be that of whiskey. As in view of the recent wholesale seizures under the excise act this subject promises to be a very long one, it is but charitable to hope that the whiskey will be exhausted before the Commissioners are. What could have prompted Congress to supersede one of its principal functions by appointing a commission of private gentlemen to consider a subject which, by every law of propriety, comes within its own exclusive purview we are at a loss to know. The authorization of this commission is a virtual confession of Congress of its own inability to grapple the questions of revenue which are to be submitted to it, and as the idea of such a commission was originally suggested by Mr. Fessenden in his financial report of 1864, the National Legislature have to thank that gentleman for the wound which they have unwittingly suffered him to inflict upon their *amour propre*.

The Western Boards of Trade have, during the past month, been the guests of their brethren in the city of Boston, but beyond feasting and sight-seeing no advantages yet appear to have resulted from their visit. The many important interests which might be influenced by the action and suggestions of these gentlemen invite us to hope that in the forthcoming meeting at Detroit something more tangible may flow from their convocation and discussions.

The Portuguese government has at last passed an act which practically abolishes the monopoly in tobacco in that country. The importation of that article of commerce is free into the ports of Oporto and Lisbon, in Portugal proper, and into those of Madeira and Azores, from whatever country imported, will be subject to the following duties—Tobacco roll \$1 100 rs. per kilogramme,

4s. 10d.; tobacco leaf, \$1 300 rs. per kilogramme, 5s. 9d.; tobacco cheroots and cigars, \$2 per kilogramme, 8s. 10d.; all other manufactured kinds \$1 600 rs. per kilogramme, 7s. 1d.—all sterling.

The money market during the month has been kept very easy. Money on call loans has been going a begging at four per cent, though five has been rather the ruling figure. The price of gold seems to depend to a great extent on the advices from Europe. It being the policy of the government to keep Five-twenties above par in order to facilitate subscriptions to the Seven-thirty loan, no disposition is allowed to be made of the currency which will assimilate its value with that of gold, faster than the European market prices of Five-twenty bonds permit. For this reason, and no other, gold continues to rule at a premium, and just so fast as Five-twenties rise in Europe will the currency rise and the precious metals fall here.

The prices of general merchandise now begin in earnest to follow the track of gold.

The following comparative table of the prices of several leading articles of general merchandise will exhibit the present state of the markets :

	April 29.	May 27.	June 23.
Ashes, pots, 1st sort.....	\$8 00 a 8 12½	\$7 25 a 7 62	7 37½ a 7 62½
Coffee, Rio, prime.....	a 21½	a 23½	a 22
Cotton, N. O, mid.....	a 58	a 54	.. a 46
Flour, State, superfine.....	6 90 a 7 10	6 10 a 6 50	5 20 a 5 60
Hay, N. R. shipping.....	1 00 a 1 05	1 .. a 1 05	95 a 1 00
Nails, cut.....	7 00 a	5 75 a 6 ..	5 00 a 5 25
Petroleum, crude 40a47 gravity	39 a 40	. a 35	34½ a 35½
Pork, prime mess, new.....	26 50 a 27 50	17 00 a 18 00	18 50 a ...
Tobacco, Kentucky lugs.....	8 a 10	6 a 9	6 a 9
Leather, oak (Sl.) light.....	44 a 46	44 a 46	30 a 32
Lumber, spruce, Eastern.....	22 a 25	14 a 18	14 a 18
Corn, white Southern.....	1 30 a 1 40	0 80 a 0 90	85 a 95
Wheat, white Genesee	2 20 a 2 35	2 00 a 2 20	1 75 a 1 90
Sheetings, brown, standard...	31 a 32½	37	28 a 30

The supply of cotton in the South, and the probable amount which will be brought forward for shipment abroad, has now become an all-absorbing topic, because its correct solution would to a great extent determine the future course of sterling exchange, shipments of cotton would thus usurp the place now occupied by government bonds in determining the price of gold. The recent order of President Johnson removing restrictions on the movement and sale of cotton in the South will undoubtedly, we think, contribute to keep the market better supplied with that staple than it has been hitherto; and at no distant day gold may be expected to materially fall in price, the recent rise in the premium being almost as much as we looked forward to in April and May last.

The following table shows the import of dry goods into this port for the past month :

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN JUNE, 1865.		1864.	1865.
June	1.....	\$321,050	\$298,518
"	8.....	489,254	1,093,679
"	15.....	279,120	784,151
"	22.....	296,794	1,421,840
"	29.....	278,306	960,991
Total		\$1,323,474	\$4,260,661

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.			
June	1	\$83,741	\$880,172
"	8	38,314	398,485
"	15	16,811	373,042
"	22	22,829	282,962
"	29	98,800	314,619
Total		\$176,754	\$1,369,108
ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.			
June	1	\$830,171	\$116,729
"	8	612,652	119,363
"	15	975,229	208,674
"	22	1,498,240	418,352
"	29	362,108	435,018
Total		\$3,478,229	\$1,181,407
		1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption		\$1,323,474	\$4,260,661
Add withdrawn from warehouse		176,754	1,369,108
Total thrown on the market		\$1,500,228	\$5,629,769
Total entered for warehousing		\$3,478,229	\$1,181,407
Add entered for consumption		1,323,474	4,260,661
Total entered at the port		\$4,801,703	\$5,442,068

This shows not only an increase in the total in the value entered at the port, but a very great proportionate difference in the total thrown upon the market. In June of last year, while nearly five millions were landed here, only one and a half millions were passed through the customs for market. During the last month about five and a half millions were landed, and more than this amount marketed, the stock in bond having been reduced.

The specie movement has been as follows :

SPECIE RECEIPTS, SHIPMENTS, &C.						
1864.			1865.			Gold in Bank.
Received.	Exported.	Received from California.	Received Foreign.	Exported.		
Jan. 2	\$254,239	\$590,262	\$1,147,745	\$594,353	\$20,152,892	
" 9		1,216,204	383,519	\$8,171	1,046,251	21,357,608
" 16	279,801	1,985,057	511,088	25,517	329,833	20,211,569
" 23	365,608	1,000,000		5,125	997,136	18,896,085
" 30	324,864	668,747		12,605		
Feb. 6		662,616	631,760	19,952	478,777	19,682,308
" 13	363,198	1,219,808	264,322	18,739	370,753	20,297,346
" 20		325,632	448,132	22,900	100,882	20,682,319
" 27	407,067	531,700	794,149	38,696	148,536	20,092,388
March 4	512,358	629,803		48,317	33,393	19,830,183
" 11		465,920	431,163	75,993	181,648	20,737,838
" 18	281,304	83,881		55,221	108,157	22,256,596
" 25	375,101	273,900		50,000	164,440	22,006,524
April 1	273,429	168,912		20,978	79,308	20,584,668
" 8	302,344	345,471	1,463,437	60,769	400,735	20,045,976
" 15	269,522	1,002,384	632,521	31,945	188,900	19,533,734
" 22		3,226,000		71,229	83,922	19,122,289
" 29	282,376	1,271,836			217,192	19,049,912
May 6	282,776	1,174,241	664,281		587,848	20,088,393
" 13		2,452,668	225,376		649,885	23,553,233
" 20	383,423	1,884,195	367,993		3,044,258	23,194,409
" 27		580,820			2,079,215	23,063,921
June 3	271,801	1,425,588		10,150	1,706,921	21,346,493
" 10		1,543,600		185,673	2,070,203	18,480,630
" 17	291,208	1,886,663		36,614	2,006,491	16,680,877
" 24	281,011	1,296,356		18,085	367,530	15,906,314

The following statement shows the movements of gold at this port, from July 1, 1864, to the close of June, 1865, including the exports, payments for customs duties, and receipts from California :

	EXPORT.		
		Rec'd from California.	Rec'd for Customs.
July	\$1,947,329	\$ 711,543	\$3,585,348
August	1,001,813	1,277,265	6,237,364
September	2,835,998	1,189,698	4,084,494
October	2,517,121	857,377	3,670,188
November	7,267,662	886,278	3,455,156
December	6,104,177	2,205,679	3,467,363
January	3,184,853	2,042,347	4,276,399
February	1,023,201	896,082	4,823,214
March	381,913	1,673,444	5,471,026
April	961,026	2,807,024	6,389,560
May	7,255,071	1,257,651	8,230,195
June	5,284,161	750,465	7,887,554
Total	\$39,763,725	\$16,054,555	\$61,578,866
In 1863-4.	57,818,162	10,721,030
Decrease	\$18,054,437
Increase	\$5,333,475

The following have been the exports of specie from New York to foreign ports, from January 1 to June 30, for the last ten years :

1865.	\$18,014,777	1860.	\$22,027,521
1864.	29,053,933	1859.	34,916,614
1863.	20,587,619	1858.	12,504,799
1862.	27,976,351	1857.	22,152,145
1861.	3,249,433	1856.	15,256,611

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows :

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.							
	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.	
Jan. 7	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.18 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.15	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 14	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{3}{4}$	5.18 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.13 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 21	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.18 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.13 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	73 a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 28	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.20 a 5.13 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Feb. 4	108 a 109 $\frac{3}{4}$	5.21 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.15	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72	
" 11	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109	5.23 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.15	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 18	107 a 108 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.27 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.20	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{3}{4}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72	
" 25	108 a 108 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.27 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.18 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 40 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72	
Mch. 4	108 a 108 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.27 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.21 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 40 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 11	107 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 108 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.27 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.22 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 40 $\frac{3}{4}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 18	109 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.21 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.13 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72	
" 25	109 a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.20 a 5.15	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72	
April 1	109 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{3}{4}$	5.20 a 5.15	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41	36 a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 8	108 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.15	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 15	108 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.16 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 a 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 22	109 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.20 a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 29	109 a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.20 a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72	
May 5	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{3}{4}$	5.18 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.13 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 12	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{3}{4}$	5.16 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 19	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.17 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 26	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.16 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
June 2	109 a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.17 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 73 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 9	109 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 110	5.15 a 5.11 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 16	109 a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.17 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.11 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 23	108 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 109 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.18 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.12 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	41 a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
" 30	108 a 109	5.20 a 5.13 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	
July 7	108 a 108 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.22 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5.16 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 41	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 40 $\frac{3}{4}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 36 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 a 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	

Government bonds have ruled as follows :

	PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER.						Gold price.
	6's, 1881.		5-20's.		10-40's.	1 year certif.	
	Reg.	Coup.	Reg.	Coup.			
Jan. 7, . . .	111½	111½	100	109	102	96½	227 a 227½
" 14, . . .	112½	112½	102	110	102½	98	217½ a 221
" 21, . . .	111	110	99	108½	101½	97½	197½ a 206
" 28, . . .	110½	109½	98½	108½	100½	98	218½ a 220
Feb. 4, . . .	109½	109½	99½	109½	101½	97½	209 a 214½
" 11, . . .	110½	110½	102	109½	102½	98½	204½ a 209
" 18, . . .	111½	111½	103	111½	102½	98½	204 a 205½
" 25, . . .	111½	111	102	111½	102½	98½	198½ a 199½
March 1, . . .	111	110½	105	110½	102½	98½	199½ a 200½
" 8, . . .	111	111½	100	110½	97½	98½	196½ a 197½
" 15, . . .	110	110	100	109½	97	98½	174½ a 177½
" 22, . . .	105	105	100	105	91½	97	156½ a 158½
" 29, . . .	105	105	100	105	91½	97	151½ a 152½
April 5, . . .	106½	107½	104½	107½	92	98	148 a 153½
" 12, . . .	107½	107½	102½	108½	93½	98½	145½ a 146½
" 19, . . .	109	108½	102½	108½	97	99½	No quotations.*
" 26, . . .	109	108½	102½	108½	97	99½	147½ a 149
May 3, . . .	110½	110	105	105½	97	99	141½ a 141½
" 10, . . .	110½	110	105	105½	96½	99½	131½ a 135½
" 17, . . .	109½	109	103	103½	95	99	129½ a 131½
" 24, . . .	110	109½	103½	103½	95	99½	132½ a 135½
" 31, . . .	109	109	103	102½	94½	99½	136½ a 137½
June 7, . . .	105½	105	103½	103½	95½	99	136½ a 137½
" 14, . . .	109½	109½	102½	102½	96½	99½	141½ a 142½
" 21, . . .	110	110	103	103½	97	99	139½ a 142
" 28, . . .	110½	110½	103½	103½	97½	99½	139½ a 141
July 5, . . .	110½	110½	104	105	97½	99½	139½ a 140½

The fluctuations in these securities have been mainly governed by the ruling prices in the London market as brought by successive steamers.

The following table indicates a decided improvement in railway shares since the last month :

	PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.				
	March 29.	April 3.	April 27.	May 29.	June 29.
New York Central	84	101½	103	89	93½
Hudson River	96	107	115½	97	108
Erie	45	69½	85½	72½	77
Reading	89½	110½	110½	91½	95½
Mich. So. and N. I.	50	62	74	58	60½
Illinois Central	93½	112½	117½	117	128
Cleveland and Pittsburg	52	74	83½	61	67½
Chicago and N. W.	21½	31½	34	21½	25
Chicago and R. I.	85½	96½	105	93½	98½
Fort Wayne	76½	93½	103	92½	96

A late New Orleans paper says :

"The abrogation of the five dollars per bale hospital tax, and twenty per cent war tax on cotton, by proclamation of the President, have had a happy effect throughout the country, and especially upon our market, giving an impetus to all branches of the business. Not only is the great staple coming forward more freely, but the demand is more general and active, with an advance of prices.

"One good feature of the week's cotton receipts has been their consignment to old factors by their old patrons, which indicates a desire to resume former intercourse and business. This is very creditable on both sides. Much of the cotton coming down now, also, is designed to meet old contracts and obligations. More creditable still. In the midst of the most ruinous revolution the world has ever seen, though we have

lost much else, we have not lost our commercial morality. We are still anchored fast to the everlasting rock, and, if the signs do not fail us, we shall soon be on the high road to commercial prosperity such as we have never seen."

The merchants of St. Louis have agreed to call the Trade Convention proposed by Mr. Blow. The body will assemble in St. Louis about the 1st of October. Delegations are to be invited from all the cities and leading towns in the southern, western and northwestern States, in the proportion of five representatives for each town, and ten or fifteen for each city, making, in all, some three hundred guests. They will be transported to and from their homes, and maintained at the hotels during their stay, free of charge. A banquet will be given them, and excursions made to the chief places of interest in the city and its vicinity. The City Council and county authorities are to be petitioned immediately to appropriate ten or twelve thousand dollars each towards defraying the expenses to be incurred in their entertainment.

The oil fever appears to be pretty well over. We do not hear any more plans for paying off that prodigious "blessing," the National Debt with the profit on our petroleum product. After all the experience men have had in commercial "manias," it is astonishing that any body should yet be simple enough to think that in the long run any business will pay better than another, counting risks and capital invested.

Any one who will look over the stock list and compare prices with what they were some nine months ago, will readily discover that immense sums of money have been lost. Some few, who early realized on their oil company shares, and at that time apparently made large fortunes, are well off if they put their oil profits into real estate, or the more substantial stock securities; but there were comparatively few of this character. Quite a number realized largely, but unfortunately, the great majority forgot the old saying, that the same individual is rarely, if ever, twice struck by lightning, or twice draws a capital prize in a lottery. They, too, generally put their first profits in again, grasping for a still larger return. The result is, they hold thousands of acres of barren lands, some few wells, irregular in their produce of oil, and a very considerable number producing no oil at all. The formation of companies and the traffic in shares are things of the past. Companies are now occasionally started, but there are no purchasers of shares. The business is utterly used up. Millions on millions of dollars as represented in paper shares of companies are swept from existence, and will never be heard of more in any tangible shape. The lands remain on which these corporations were formed, and whatever of value they possessed as oil producing territory, is still in the earth, but the difficulty of reaching it, and the uncertainty of its amount when reached, are facts that capitalists have learned to measure by more practical tests than come from a lively imagination.

The poetry of petroleum is fast following the "morus multicaulus," the "merino sheep," and "tulip" manias of other years. Not that we would be understood as denying that there is oil in the earth in several parts of the country, or that it is of much value. It is of large value, and will pay well to produce it at reasonable prices for the land under which it is supposed to lie. By industry and the skillful use of machinery, a judicious boring for oil may be continued at a fairly remunerative business on the average. Like other pursuits, it will be

attended with the usual vicissitudes and irregularities in results. Some, by streaks of good fortune, or by greater skill and economy, may realize fortunes, while others less skillful or less provident will lose. But whatever profit is realized in the business henceforth is to come from actual values. The sales of printed certificates at prices doubling at almost every turn, in many instances on erroneous, not to say decidedly false, representations, have beggared many honest people, with little profit resulting to those who, in glowing circulars, set the tempting bait before them; for what the gamble gained them in one transaction they lost in another, so that there is little advantage, perhaps, from all that has been lost, beyond the fuller development of the trade years earlier than would have been the case, had not enterprise and speculation been so largely directed to it. The oil product is large, as the following comparison of production and average price of oil at the wells during each of the last four years shows:

	Product—galls.	Av. price:	Total value:
1861.....	24,000,000	6½c.	\$1,500,000
1862.....	40,000,000	4c.	1,400,000
1863.....	70,000,000	9½c.	6,650,000
1864.....	87,000,000	23c.	20,000,000

The product of 1864 yielded about 62,000,000 gallons of refined oil, the average price of which, in bond, in this city, was sixty-two cents per gallon; giving, as the value of the refined article, in 1864, \$40,300,000. Considering that the value of the raw product at the wells was \$20,010,000, it appears that the refined product is worth just double the value of the raw oil from which it is derived.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

Rehabilitation of the South—The Twenty Thousand Dollar clause in the Proclamation of Amnesty—Petition from Richmond for its abrogation—The flow of Capital—The decision of Commissioner Lewis on Certified Checks—The New Orleans Banks—The Charleston Banks—Money Market—New York City Bank Returns—Philadelphia Bank Returns—Boston Banks—National Bank Clearing System—National Bank Capital and Circulation—War Debts of the States—Bank of England Returns—Bank of France Returns.

THE intricacies of the Internal Revenue business have become so great that a new class of lawyers, revenue lawyers, have arisen to unravel its nice points and explain its numerous decisions. Hon. Samuel S. Cox of Ohio, who, for four years, was connected with the Committee of Foreign Affairs in Congress, and Charlton T. Lewis, Esq., late Deputy Commissioner of Internal Revenue, have, as will be seen from our advertising columns, formed a copartnership together for the prosecution of this business, and from their ability and experience, as well as their high standing in the community, we are confident that the cream of the business will flow into their hands.

The past month has been marked principally by the promulgation of a number of important Executive proclamations, all of them bearing more or less upon the rehabilitation of the Southern States and the opening of trade therein. The proclamation of the 29th May grants amnesty to all Southerners who shall take

the oath of allegiance except ex-officers in the rebel army above the rank of colonel, and also except those owning above twenty thousand dollars worth of property. There are twelve other classes of exceptions mentioned in the proclamation, but the two mentioned are those which are most pertinent to an inquiry concerning the flow of capital into the South, and the resumption of active commerce within its borders.

Another proclamation, dated June 24th, ordered the removal of all obstructions to internal commerce in the South, and permitted the cotton trade to be thrown open to all parties, thus doing away both with the intervention of government agents in its purchase and sale and with the twenty-five cents per pound tax which had previously existed by virtue of Treasury regulations.

A still further proclamation, which goes into effect on the 1st July, throws open all the ports of the South to foreign and domestic commerce. Added to these three most important documents are others appointing provisional governors to all the late insurgent States, and providing formulas for their early restoration to their civil rights under the Constitution and to representatives in Congress.

Were it not for the proviso which excludes from amnesty all the capitalists of the South, and renders the employment of any large sums of money in that section entirely insecure, nothing more could be wanted to encourage the immediate resumption of business there; and even this exception, it is believed, will either be removed by the President, or so far mitigated by especial acts of clemency, as to be in the main no balk to active industry.

The following extract of a numerously signed petition, which has lately been presented to the President, will explain the disadvantages worked by the clause in question :

To His Excellency Andrew Johnson, President of the United States :

Your memorialists, citizens of Richmond, in the State of Virginia, respectfully represent :

That the oath of amnesty tendered in President LINCOLN'S proclamation of December 8, 1863, and March 20, 1864, and of which there was a renewed tender in Richmond after its occupation by the United States authorities, was taken by us, and in the full belief that we had thereby secured the pardon they had offered, with immunity from suffering in our persons or loss of our property, we commenced earnestly and successfully the work of rebuilding our city.

Money began to flow from the Northern and Middle States; for to attract it, we had, as was supposed, property to sell or to mortgage, and we were earnestly at work and making progress.

But hardly had we begun when the opinion of the Attorney General of the United States was published, to the effect that we had not secured pardon, as we supposed, by taking the amnesty oath as prescribed in President LINCOLN'S proclamation, and administered by the United States authorities.

Startled as we were by this opinion, whatever might be our own views and those of our advisers upon the question it discussed, yet the source whence it emanated entitled it to respect, and at once a painful doubt seized us whether we had, in fact, secured pardon and amnesty.

Our minds were in this disquieted state when your Excellency's proclamation of May 29, 1865, was promulgated. By a clause therein, amnesty, except upon special application, is expressly withheld from "all persons who have voluntarily participated in the rebellion, and the estimated value of whose taxable property is over \$20,000."

Upon the doubt instilled by the opinion of the Attorney General, and with the express exclusion from the general amnesty tendered in your Excellency's proclamation,

the credit of the persons owning taxable property estimated to be above the value of twenty thousand dollars failed. The title to property being regarded as insecure, the credit founded on the title necessarily went down.

The consequences were not felt only by those who fell within the exception.

The clause has operated with an unhappy and ruinous effect upon all our interests and all classes of our population. It prevents sales of property; prevents the negotiation of bills of exchange or promissory notes; prevents raising money by mortgage, and fills our community with gloom, apathy and forebodings fatal to that energy and happiness which we feel sure your Excellency desires to see pervading the people over whom you preside.

Accompanying this memorial we present a number of letters from business men, representing every phase of our city life, from which the fatal effects of this exception will appear. It will be seen that these effects are not confined to the rich, to those worth over twenty thousand dollars in taxable property. They are felt by the poor and needy even in a sadder form than by others. Industry is paralyzed, work is discouraged, energy is annihilated. The poor tradesman or mechanic, the woman who earns her bread with her needle, the freedman seeking honest employment, all are discouraged and dejected. Their ordinary engagements are gone, because the property of the country is insecure, and a palsy has stricken the hands once outstretched to give them work and compensation.

Your memorialists are persuaded that it was not your Excellency's design, in incorporating this thirteenth exception in the proclamation, to arrest commercial enterprise or cripple the mechanical classes; and we are encouraged to unfold to you its operation in these particulars, in the strong belief that you will not be unwilling to consider how far a clause having such operation, unforeseen, and in accordance with your design, ought to be continued in your offers of amnesty. And though we would fain hope that, upon reconsideration, your Excellency will determine to open yet wider the door of amnesty, not only for the benefit of the commercial and mechanical classes, but all others, by withdrawing entirely this exception, because events, since, the date of your proclamation, show that it is not inconsistent with its spirit now to do so; yet, should we be disappointed in this, we earnestly petition your Excellency so to deal with this unfortunate city, that its industry, commercial and mechanical, may be speedily revived; and to this end, that you will either consider the special application for amnesty of persons in this excepted class here resident or interested, more expeditiously than might, in less urgent need, be done, or by some regulation suitable to the case, heal the paralysis which now oppresses us.

Among the letters sustaining the petition are the following :

FIRST NATIONAL BANK OF RICHMOND, }
RICHMOND, V. A., JUNE 27, 1864. }

To Messrs. J. Alfred Jones, Robert Hewison, H. L. Kent and others, Committee :

GENTLEMEN--I have received your communication of yesterday, respecting my experience of the effects upon the business of this city of that clause of the President's proclamation of the 29th of May, 1865, excluding from a general amnesty those persons the estimated value of whose taxable property exceeds \$20,000. As President of this bank, there is hardly a day that there does not arise some embarrassing financial question growing out of the clause referred to. These embarrassments are not confined to the excepted class, whose taxable property exceeds \$20,000, but, practically, the clause paralyzes all pecuniary transactions of citizens of this State, whether the parties are within the clause or not. Persons of large and small means, to a great extent, during the war, converted their available means into foreign bills and old registered State stocks. The amount of money held on the other side by citizens of this State alone is estimated at £2,000,000, which, converted into our currency, would realize \$11,000,600.

These balances held on the other side were being drawn for, but the proclamation of the President has caused the holders of the bills to stop drawing their money to this side. And, besides, their bills in New York, by reason of the clause referred to, are unsaleable; and thus business is seriously retarded, and money kept out of the country at the time when it is so urgently needed in rebuilding the city and enabling the farmers to stock their farms, &c. The securities which they hold cannot, for the same reason, be negotiated with Northern capitalists, as the question of this clause

immediately comes up pending a negotiation for loans, no difference whether a pardon has been granted or not.

The aggregate of money which might be borrowed on these securities, created before the war, and held in this State alone, it is estimated will reach \$15,000,000; and but for the clause referred to, currency could be borrowed in the North by hypothecating these securities, and employed to build up not only this ill-fated city, but materially contribute to the pressing wants of the State.

The Northern capitalists have manifested, by numerous inquiries through this bank, a desire to make investments in real estate here, with a view of rebuilding the city; but as long as this clause remains unmodified, no difference how many citizens may be relieved from its disability, capitalists, in my opinion, will not place their money in property here. The practical working of the clause falls alike on the rich and the poor, the loyal and the disloyal.

Very respectfully,

H. G. FANT, President.

It will be seen that the last great act in our drama of war, victory and restoration is drawing nigh. Step by step as the momentous events of the last four years have taken place, we have faithfully endeavored to elucidate their efforts upon finance and trade, and their occurrence has been so repeated and their scope so important that we have rarely failed to be puzzled, not what to say, but what to reject. It is, therefore, with a feeling of relief that we perceive ourselves almost upon the eve of the last change from the abnormal to the normal, from the days of battles and proclamations to those of legislation and law. The probable flow of capital, the rate of interest, the signs of future movements, all these may soon be within the compass of practical experience and scientific knowledge, and not as of late totally subject to the chances of war or official caprice.

And when the drama is ended, and the dawn of peace and constitutional government ripens into bright morning, the mists of deficit revenues, national poverty and repudiation which, to the eye of some capitalists, now hang over us, will disappear. Capital from all parts of the earth, not the fabulous results which distorted imaginations conjure up from the bleak hills and sickly gullies of California, but the hard-earned product of thrift and abstinence, will flow into the country to replenish our empty coffers, and rejuvenate the land with the vital streams of commerce. Already enormous sums of capital are being exchanged for five-twenty bonds, and emigration with its myriad of smaller, but not less welcome contributions is fast making its way to our shores.

Mr. Solicitor JOURDON to whom was referred the question between the banks of this city and Commissioner LEWIS, has decided in favor of the latter holding certified checks as circulating money, and liable to the tax of one-twelfth of one per cent. per month. In this decision both Messrs. LEWIS and JOURDON are unquestionably correct. Not only legally but scientifically. The bankers of New York all know that scientifically certified checks are money, and in view of the evident intention of the law to break down the state banks, it is surprising that they should doubt that they are also money in a legal sense.

The New Orleans banks having, for greater security during the late war, invested part of their assets in cotton, and in state and municipal bonds, all of which are for a time beyond their immediate control are threatened with being compelled to liquidate, and to support commissioners at \$2,500 a year and other law officers at proportionate rates, until said liquidation is completed, because they cannot at once respond to the demand of their bill holders. It is averred

that the great portion of their bill holders are sufficiently satisfied of their honesty and solvency, and that the threat of liquidation is only made by parties desirous to procure fat offices, and who have but insignificant sums in their bills.

The following details concerning the banks of Charleston are from the letter of a Charleston correspondent. We give them for what they are worth :—

In the city of Charleston they had chartered banks with \$13,000,000 capital, and in the State, away from the city, \$2,000,000 more. They had also \$10,000,000 capital of private bankers, making for the State an actual banking capital of \$25,000,000. The banks had issued \$12,000,000 circulation, which, under the law, the stockholders are individually liable for. This is still unredeemed. The banks losing all they had at home, were only enabled to save their European balances. These will ultimately pay ten to fifteen cents upon the dollar, of the various banks, according to the balances held. To accomplish this, the first step was to compel the banks and bankers to take their government bonds, and issue their bills at par for one half their capital. This left their assets mainly in bills receivable. As these matured, from time to time, they were paid in Confederate circulation, which sank in its commercial value rapidly to such a point as to use up their entire assets at home ere long. At one time it was discovered that the banks held \$100,000 in gold. The government demanded of them a tax of fifty per cent upon that amount. This they were allowed to pay in Confederate scrip at its par value, which at that time was two cents on the dollar, so that they paid the tax with currency that upon its face represented \$2,000,000. By this and similar processes, their government not only absolutely absorbed all their capital, but almost all sorts of merchandise that could be converted into money, to raise means to prosecute the war.

Thus, Jeff. Davis and his coadjutors, upon the plea of a military necessity, took all the cash not only of South Carolina, but of Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida and Mississippi, which, in the aggregate, amounted to seventy-six millions of dollars—as my informant speaks advisedly, as far as he does speak—but, as he supposes, they have absorbed all their money and property in the seceded States, it is presumed the same rules apply to other States as they do to South Carolina.

In South Carolina the people now find their lands under their feet bare, their money, merchandise and products gone, slavery abolished, and the entire population without means of subsistence, except as they go to work, and with their own hands, hitherto unaccustomed to labor, plant cereals and cotton, living upon these productions. Thus, then, we can see what a scene the entire Southern country must present. They have lost in slave property \$2,000,000,000; also five crops of cotton and rice, \$1,000,000,000; banking capital \$76,000,000; railroads, in stock and destruction, \$124,000,000; tobacco, grain, stock, &c., \$300,000,000—so that their entire loss of actual capital is \$3,500,000,000—a larger sum than the entire federal debt. Add to this their outstanding indebtedness, to remain forever unpaid, of \$3,000,000,000, and we see an entire loss and indebtedness of \$6,500,000,000 of the Confederate States, to say nothing of the loss of human life. The people now find themselves without money, without slave labor, without clothing and the comforts of life.

The money market has been kept very easy during the month. The policy of the government is evidently to keep the Five-twenty bonds above par, in order to facilitate the Seven-thirty loan now on the market. Thus, the most vital interests of the entire country are completely surrendered to the interest of Mr. JAY COOKE. For in order to keep the Five-twenties above par, the market price of which that security bears from time to time in Europe, has to be studied, and the disposition of government funds made accordingly. Thus, if Five-twenties fall in London, the reserve fund of the Treasury is rapidly let out here, and the price is still kept above par in paper, by means of a sudden redundancy. Should they then rise in London the Treasury reserve is again called in, paper is rendered less redundant, Five-twenties are kept where Mr. JAY COOKE wants them, and the premium in gold is maintained as low as possible, compatible with Mr. COOKE'S interests concerning the Five-twenties.

Call loans during the month have ranged from four to five per cent, with occasional transactions at six. The following table gives the market rate of interest during the past month, and also the average rate since the conclusion of the war :

	June 2.	June 9.	June 16, to end of m'th.
Loans on call, stock securities.....	6 a 7	5 a 6	4 a 5
do bond and mortgage.....	6 a 7	6 a 7	6 a 7
Prime indorsed bills, 60 days.....	- a 7	- a 7	6 a 7
do 3 to 4 months.....	7 a 8	7 a 8	6½ a 7½
First class single names.....	7 a 9	7 a 9	7 a 8
Other good notes.....	9 a 10	9 a 10	8 a 9

The following are the returns of the New York City Banks :

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

(Capital, Jan., 1864, \$69,494,577; Jan., 1865, \$69,658,737; April, \$76,658,737.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Dec. 24,	\$203,512,093	\$20,600,441	\$.....	\$3,383,346	\$153,805,909	\$593,336,137
" 31,	199,444,969	19,662,211	3,283,832	147,442,071	471,039,253
Jan. 7,	195,044,687	20,152,892	3,183,526	147,821,891	535,055,671
" 14,	189,686,750	21,357,608	3,074,029	148,931,299	538,780,682
" 21,	187,060,586	20,211,569	2,979,851	146,068,355	611,194,907
" 28,	169,502,630	18,174,316	2,906,194	143,842,230	656,828,878
Feb. 4,	185,639,790	19,682,308	2,868,646	152,703,316	663,814,434
" 11,	185,515,904	20,297,346	2,821,996	156,711,166	584,179,409
" 18,	186,365,126	20,682,319	2,855,982	156,150,634	518,305,222
" 25,	183,534,735	20,092,378	2,739,383	153,948,481	481,028,121
Mar. 4,	186,569,665	19,830,183	2,720,666	153,009,588	511,361,387
" 11,	188,120,890	20,737,838	26,718,408	2,741,684	152,134,448	412,302,453
" 18,	211,486,651	22,256,596	33,645,014	4,662,505	174,479,867	635,736,233
" 25,	207,677,503	22,066,524	35,295,156	4,457,162	166,965,508	604,796,726
Apr. 1,	204,458,355	20,584,668	42,989,382	4,888,980	173,350,491	509,148,691
" 8,	204,153,339	20,045,976	46,424,957	4,773,528	174,850,185	483,653,634
" 15,	206,508,095	19,533,734	51,061,462	4,757,862	177,815,945	427,761,675
" 22,	204,723,195	19,122,258	57,954,937	4,700,210	184,244,399	272,740,215
" 29,	204,277,573	19,049,913	66,096,274	4,660,659	196,188,733	359,950,814
May 6,	213,172,277	20,088,399	66,258,849	4,886,937	200,466,735	508,899,215
" 13,	218,502,980	23,553,231	61,052,537	4,889,562	203,369,886	511,914,441
" 20,	219,810,780	23,194,402	55,625,517	5,032,944	203,854,725	510,767,355
" 27,	212,445,121	23,063,929	54,524,078	5,068,693	197,081,017	429,221,799
June 3,	210,417,543	21,346,493	51,065,440	5,323,032	186,935,680	389,049,879
" 10,	208,392,635	18,480,620	56,201,836	5,402,778	185,509,953	420,542,766
" 17,	203,944,311	16,680,877	62,567,344	5,647,944	189,947,334	542,070,189
" 24,	213,590,230	15,906,314	58,560,589	5,789,070	187,508,936	519,448,415
July 1,	216,585,421	15,854,990	60,904,454	5,818,445	191,656,773	473,720,318

The deposit and discount lines indicate increasing business, while the specie line shows a falling off of nearly eight millions within a month.

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia banks :

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

(Capital, Jan., 1863, \$11,740,080; 1865, \$13,315,720; Feb., 1865, \$14,485,450.)

Date, 1856.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
Jan. 2,...	\$48,059,403	\$1,803,583	\$2,793,463	\$39,845,963	\$14,524,175
" 9,...	49,250,629	1,781,108	2,978,035	41,001,803	15,297,223
" 16,...	49,833,799	1,750,669	3,228,785	43,121,208	17,003,905
" 23,...	49,755,716	1,792,891	3,606,051	40,186,513	15,939,598
" 30,...	50,056,584	1,773,266	4,010,192	59,822,860	15,572,892
Feb. 6,...	50,269,473	1,702,776	4,393,173	38,496,337	14,000,853
" 13,...	49,511,683	1,629,957	4,660,697	37,340,531	14,295,547

Date, 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
" 20,...	48,639,386	1,569,223	4,866,771	37,141,900	13,922,954
" 27,...	48,992,272	1,498,644	5,077,436	39,011,100	15,398,502
Mar. 6,...	49,228,540	1,389,264	5,446,021	38,391,622	15,200,287
" 13,...	49,297,223	1,422,736	5,906,791	38,655,908	15,487,835
" 20,...	48,976,280	1,323,274	5,609,276	38,673,804	15,796,783
" 27,...	50,255,294	1,350,968	5,736,660	39,117,258	16,866,146
April 4,...	50,268,729	1,344,223	5,893,626	38,316,847	17,087,645
" 11,...	50,225,821	1,249,282	6,133,397	39,366,445	17,312,697
" 17,...	50,810,519	1,286,333	6,232,343	41,187,764	17,991,294
" 24,...	50,319,031	1,223,793	6,313,889	42,591,060	19,188,676
May 1,...	51,726,389	1,262,258	6,441,407	44,794,824
" 8,...	51,172,347	1,297,553	6,430,742	45,158,284	19,576,916
" 16,...	52,678,146	1,286,404	6,447,961	47,695,971	20,300,326
" 23,...	52,978,259	1,261,618	6,585,603	44,831,373	20,919,610
" 30,...					
June 5,...	53,095,683	1,258,782	6,717,753	41,518,576	19,000,000
" 12,...					
" 19,...	50,449,649	1,216,293	6,688,488	39,127,801	19,570,094
" 26,...	50,369,800	1,208,852	6,790,444	39,607,041	19,445,055

The Boston Banks are extinct so far as being State banking institutions, and they will no longer appear in this work, except under the general returns of National Banks. There are forty four of these altogether in that city, and all have changed to the national system.

The banks of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, in concurrence with Secretary McCULLOCH, are now making arrangements whereby the bills issued by the several National Banks are to be regularly redeemed in either one of the above-named cities. Under the arrangement the bills of all National Banks becoming parties thereto will be received at par by a redeeming bank in each of these cities, and forwarded by the bank receiving the same to their particular specified point of redemption, and from thence to the banks from which they were first issued. The proposed plan is probably the same, on a more extended scale, which has long been in successful operation in the New England States, and well known as the "Suffolk bank system." We understand that this idea of a National Clearing-House originated in the debates of the New York Society for the Advancement of Social Science, many of whose members are directors of New York city banks, and who have thus carried their plan into practical effect.

The following table exhibits the aggregate National Bank circulation :

NATIONAL BANKS.

Number, capital, and circulation quarterly to the end of 1864, and periodically to date in 1865.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
October, 1863.....	94	\$7,184,715
January, 1864.....	137	14,523,721	\$29,155
April, 1864.....	357	42,204,474	12,144,650
July, 1864.....	469	75,213,945	25,825,665
October, 1864.....	524	89,339,400	51,394,150
January, 1865.....	681	143,641,400	76,309,890
January 7, 1865.....	685	145,524,560	78,724,520
" 21,.....	736	169,099,296	83,058,200
February 4,.....	782	179,121,296	87,288,300
" 18,.....	815	186,041,736	93,666,380

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
March 4,	855	192,049,736	99,325,600
" 18,	908	202,944,486	104,750,540
April 1,	973	225,246,300	111,634,670
" 8,	993	232,064,150	114,524,000
" 22,	1,041	246,054,170	119,961,800
May 6,	1,116	264,954,170	126,360,330
" 13,	1,130	276,167,470	128,759,020
" 20,	1,172	281,868,820	130,680,170
" 27,	1,185	284,409,120	132,472,690
June 8,	1,212	298,971,020	135,607,060
" 10,	1,251	299,343,520	137,772,705
" 17,	1,297	310,295,891	140,797,755
" 24,	1,334	320,924,601	143,064,875

Congress having undertaken to determine that \$300,000,000 is the amount of national bank circulation required by the commerce of the country, and having directed furthermore, in defiance of every principle of monetary economy, that the circulation shall be distributed among the several States according to population, the following has been determined upon as the amount of circulation to which each State is entitled :

Name.	Circulation to which each State is entitled.	Amount authorized to June 10	Amount delivered to June 10.
Maine	\$5,415,000	\$6,281,500	\$3,490,770
New Hampshire	3,312,000	3,348,000	1,719,500
Vermont	2,939,500	3,626,991	2,405,200
Massachusetts	21,795,000	60,797,300	35,955,780
Rhode Island	4,794,000	8,271,300	1,716,450
Connecticut	7,222,500	10,411,688	7,550,500
New York	53,473,500	53,747,136	22,140,440
New Jersey	6,690,000	6,196,500	3,088,550
Pennsylvania	26,527,500	99,249,453	26,623,070
Maryland	7,137,000	2,344,500	1,567,500
Delaware	1,090,500	499,500	293,750
District of Columbia	658,500	1,395,000	874,900
Virginia	13,519,500	1,036,260	528,250
West Virginia }			
Ohio	17,623,500	17,983,500	12,167,140
Indiana	9,615,000	9,086,900	6,198,990
Illinois	11,838,000	9,086,900	6,198,990
Michigan	5,200,500	2,264,409	1,321,100
Wisconsin	6,211,500	2,056,500	1,287,000
Iowa	4,408,500	2,358,000	1,384,900
Minnesota	1,050,000	1,019,000	960,750
Kansas	646,500	90,000	49,000
Missouri	9,411,000	1,857,750	860,330
Kentucky	10,500,000	1,759,500	880,900
Tennessee	8,766,000	585,000	360,640
Louisiana	10,581,000	450,000	180,000
Nebraska Territory	181,500	58,500	27,000
Colorado Territory	193,500	180,000
Mississippi	5,265,000	45,000	20,000
Georgia	9,429,000
North Carolina	7,546,500
South Carolina	7,556,000
Arkansas	2,724,000
Alabama	7,425,000
Utah Territory	237,000
Washington Territory	82,500
Oregon	370,500

California.....	3,003,000
Nevada Territory.....	48,000
New Mexico.....	486,000
Texas.....	3,961,000
Florida.....	955,500
Dakota.....	27,000
Grand total.....	\$299,968,500	\$252,079,883	\$237,437,340

The claims of the various states and municipalities throughout the country upon the Treasury Department for expenses incurred on behalf of the United States in raising troops, &c., are beginning to come in. So far we have only seen those of the State of New York, the city and county of New York and the State of Iowa. The following tables will exhibit the claims of each, part of which have already been allowed and paid.

CLAIM OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

For arms and equipments.....	\$797,861	31
For pay (officers and men).....	335,565	18
For subsistence.....	463,007	96
For clothing.....	878,886	07
For transportation.....	61,060	58
For medical expenses.....	31,148	63
For volunteer enlistments.....	10,112	00
For contingent expenses.....	241,649	71
For interest on loans for public defence.....	131,188	02
Total.....	\$2,950,479	46

CLAIM OF THE CITY AND COUNTY OF NEW YORK.

For bounties and premiums, and all expenses connected therewith....	\$10,594,391	68
For purposes not connected with bounties and premiums.....	6,918,281	51
Total.....	\$17,512,673	19

CLAIM OF THE STATE OF IOWA.

For barracks and quarters.....	\$ 19,115	33
For clothing.....	112,956	53
For subsistence.....	85,886	23
For transportation.....	62,580	38
For recruiting.....	3,574	78
For contingent expenses.....	50,173	50
For payments to troops mustered into the United States service.....	274,181	92
For payments to officers in charge of the several camps of the State, and to troops not mustered into the United States service.....	8,285	55
For payments to 1st, 2d and 3d regiments, and included in a former settlement.....	30,824	51
Total.....	\$647,563	51

SUMMARY.

Claimant.	Amount of Claim.	Paid on account.	Balance due.
State of New York..	\$ 2,950,479	\$1,421,239	\$ 1,529,085
City & Coun. of N. Y.	17,512,673	2,935,458*	14,577,214
State of Iowa.....	647,563	nothing.	647,563
Total.....	\$21,110,715	\$4,356,852	\$16,753,862

* It is proper to mention that of this amount but \$39,458 has been reimbursed by the National Treasury, while of the remainder \$2,146,000 was reimbursed by the State and \$750,000 by the county. It is presumed that these reimbursements are charged to the general government in the claim of the State given above.

If this expenditure of twenty-one millions among a population of four millions and a half be taken as an average of the war expenditure, incurred by all the States individually, the total amount of claims will be about one hundred millions of dollars. But this cannot be correct, for while Iowa with a population of 674,913 persons expends \$647,563 or less than one dollar per head, New York with a population of 3,880,735 expends \$20,463,152 or over five dollars per head—man, woman and child. Besides, it is not improbable that other municipalities in New York, and municipalities in Iowa may yet have claims of this nature to present.

The following are the returns of the Bank of England :

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 7,...	20,118,116	6,468,944	12,666,764	28,726,674	13,810,691	7 per ct.
" 14,...	19,669,832	7,161,719	12,267,474	28,301,603	14,122,711	6 "
" 21,...	19,669,007	7,694,616	12,927,807	29,326,027	14,307,760	6 "
" 28,...	19,810,455	8,601,125	13,040,643	30,708,083	14,100,974	6 "
Jan. 4,...	21,007,215	8,500,269	13,874,977	32,832,904	13,933,692	6 "
" 11,...	21,012,778	4,445,535	16,174,166	30,957,880	14,097,390	5½ "
" 18,...	21,223,548	4,186,614	14,658,015	29,292,273	14,168,227	5½ "
" 25,...	20,614,794	4,836,799	14,553,933	29,173,458	14,317,215	5 "
Feb. 1,...	20,998,478	5,541,452	14,447,994	30,040,983	14,461,224	5 "
" 8,...	20,743,805	6,252,892	13,814,063	29,908,102	14,511,611	5 "
" 15,...	20,899,763	6,572,512	13,964,659	30,007,199	14,553,871	5 "
" 22,...	20,101,978	6,665,364	14,140,885	29,910,491	14,600,233	4½ "
Mar. 1,...	20,381,080	6,854,409	14,158,331	30,424,108	14,801,367	4½ "
" 8,...	20,281,455	7,677,728	13,904,702	30,949,096	14,758,607	4½ "
" 15,...	20,095,563	8,348,481	13,785,825	31,204,694	14,882,258	4½ "
" 22,...	20,028,891	10,198,989	13,551,794	32,384,622	15,303,636	4½ "
" 29,...	20,388,744	9,839,430	13,478,242	32,271,054	15,358,999	4½ "
April 5,...	21,352,503	9,331,615	14,172,353	32,723,269	15,255,433	4 "
" 12,...	21,750,643	5,826,354	15,414,509	31,226,403	14,937,379	4 "
" 19,...	21,428,119	6,020,989	14,700,220	30,353,910	14,974,010	4 "
" 26,...	21,438,377	6,298,332	13,965,270	30,139,409	14,754,795	4 "
May 3,...	22,072,011	6,712,465	14,059,289	31,356,348	14,679,974	4½ "
" 10,...	21,701,380	7,349,114	13,760,032	31,149,978	14,862,102	4½ "
" 17,...	21,769,022	7,660,977	13,489,291	31,011,642	15,023,913	4½ "
" 24,...	21,330,490	7,997,105	13,551,860	30,800,717	1,044,268	4 "
" 31,...	21,422,198	8,706,848	13,919,431	31,400,265	15,338,491	3½ "
June 7,...	21,635,494	7,954,181	13,357,083	31,192,555	15,860,615	3½ "
" 14,...	21,191,106	8,802,198	12,935,381	29,996,664	16,045,669	3 "
" 21,...	21,153,552	9,581,293	13,666,566	31,230,370	16,294,910	3 "

The following are the returns of the Bank of France :

BANK OF FRANCE.

	Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
December 8	fr.566,921,053	fr.355,640,597	fr.722,291,475	fr.178,968,028	5
" 15	586,521,733	351,562,024	739,383,125	161,270,492	5
" 22	561,603,376	364,008,378	721,487,475	153,193,515	4½
" 29	597,157,830	359,969,767	726,212,275	171,321,867	.
January 5	690,129,259	330,071,913	790,526,625	190,488,131	4½
" 12	677,690,909	314,771,593	806,325,675	153,188,334	4½
" 19	667,121,414	318,170,064	817,443,275	142,120,960	4½
" 26	642,779,237	322,119,477	808,283,925	139,123,008	4½
February 2	651,375,290	318,454,492	812,425,525	143,430,627	4½
" 9	636,303,905	339,240,543	805,966,575	153,039,752	4
" 16	604,140,057	354,573,163	801,601,175	139,995,738	4
" 23	584,895,093	371,630,673	785,025,125	150,235,334	4

		Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
March	2	569,812,574	381,455,854	772,377,175	192,866,298	4
"	9	544,967,920	410,774,986	773,343,825	166,985,971	3½
"	16	514,175,658	424,981,230	777,523,125	153,467,097	3½
"	23	509,473,256	445,364,708	774,556,625	148,899,173	3½
"	30	533,202,250	456,899,812	764,783,125	158,286,600	3½
April	6	520,398,578	454,945,361	786,434,775	167,028,900	3½
"	13	522,800,231	432,776,299	806,557,975	130,834,687	3½
"	20	533,509,141	430,925,270	811,751,175	132,941,333	3½
"	27	532,804,786	422,621,703	808,818,275	151,124,075	3½
May	4	541,445,768	451,698,249	812,077,975	172,371,532	3½
"	11	523,453,076	460,963,977	817,660,875	168,213,664	3½
"	18	504,570,038	476,043,233	807,978,225	178,414,107	3½
"	25	487,103,699	486,096,375	803,248,375	183,490,401	3½
June	1	486,044,306	490,881,624	809,356,075	196,078,358	3½
"	8	491,926,752	493,927,231	795,612,975	203,630,138	3½

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

THE PRODUCTION OF PENNSYLVANIA FOR 1864.

The year 1864 has been, in Pennsylvania, as elsewhere, one of great activity and prosperity. High prices constantly advancing have served to increase the production of coal, iron and petroleum much beyond that of former years. The figures and statements we give below are prepared from the report of A. J. Perkins, Esq., Secretary of the Board of Trade of Philadelphia.

IRON.

The total product of iron, for the year ending June 30, 1864, has been as follows :

IRON PRODUCT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Of railroad bars (exclusive of 37,672 52-100 tons re-rolled) 97,222 tons at average \$185.....	\$8,264,210
Of rolled plate iron 86,932 tons at \$100.....	8,587,500
Of iron bars other than rails, 73,342 tons at \$90.....	6,610,040
Of heavy castings, 45,772 tons at \$100.....	4,575,600
Of cut nails and rivets, exclusive of such as were made of imported iron, 37,135 at \$200.....	7,412,600
Of hollow ware and stoves T, 11,960 at \$20.....	2,390,200
Of manufactures of iron into various useful forms, machinery, &c., &c., value.....	12,633,106
Of steel bars, &c., 4,039 T, at 12c. or \$250 per ton.....	1,009,750
Of steel bars of finer kind, 3,219 tons, worth \$400 per ton.....	1,287,600
Of manufactures of steel (saws, springs, &c., &c.).....	1,908,575
Marine engines.....	262,655
Total value.....	\$54,942,836

The following table shows the production of iron and steel, in all the States, for the fiscal year of 1863-4 :

IRON AND STEEL PRODUCTION OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR ENDING 30TH
JUNE, 1864.

States.	Railroad Re-rolled. Tons.	Railroad New. Tons.	Band-hoop and Plate. Tons.	Blooms & Rol'd Bars. Tons.	Heavy Castings. Tons.
Maine.....	3,818	1,325
New Hampshire.....	7,471	1,099
Vermont.....	288	97	1,109
Massachusetts.....	19,401	9,856	9,289	28,180	10,704
Rhode Island.....	87	408	2,017
Connecticut.....	8	523	5,023	3,898
New York.....	31,705	6,031	5,032	32,210	43,010
New Jersey.....	3,926	2,576	3,583	12,987	21,894
Pennsylvania.....	40,169	97,222	85,932	73,342	45,774
Delaware.....	940	1,859	371
Maryland.....	7,914	13,216	2,300	4,110
District of Columbia.....	385
W. Virginia and Va. } ...	4,788	1,473	1,290	1,740
W. Virginia. }	651
Kentucky.....	2,775	8,740	427	3,126
Missouri.....	2,056	2,846	3,416
Tennessee. }	933
Louisiana. }
Ohio.....	14,050	50	20,790	13,416	12,920
Indiana.....	9,685	8	1	1,719
Illinois.....	20,642	3	2,334	6,662
Michigan.....	3,945	2,162	1,384	1,545
Wisconsin.....	1,859
Iowa.....	368
Minnesota.....
Kansas.....	108
California.....	459	3,181
Oregon.....
Nabraska.....
New Mexico.....
Utah.....
Colorado.....
Nevada.....
Washington.....
Total quantity.....	159,000	117,224	153,936	179,292	172,182
Total value.....	\$9,964,040	\$15,393,600	17,929,200	\$15,496,380

States.	Cut Nails & Rivets Tons.	Hollow Ware & Stoves. Tons.	Locomotiv & Marine Engines. Value.	Steel Bars. Tons.	Steel in various Manuf'rs. Value.	Iron in various Manuf'rs. Value.
Maine.....	416	623	12,690	65,231	391,740
N. Hampshire.....	69	584	241,343	914,959
Vermont.....	433	272	191,605	627,040
Massachusetts.....	21,936	5,782	47,866	444	2,305,366	11,133,927
Rhode Island.....	7,753	2,921	126,076	2,542,463
Connecticut.....	1,987	723	359,469	175	1,939,493	7,552,372
New York.....	15,606	35,711	797,428	1,107	2,454,869	12,526,164
New Jersey.....	13,872	2,894	41,659	1,895	312,992	6,169,100
Pennsylvania.....	37,135	11,850	262,684	7,259	1,908,612	12,633,946
Delaware.....	684	55,749	39,423	563,343
Maryland.....	477	1,560	59,449	16,513	883,957
Dis. of Columb.....	17	29,266
W. Va. & Va.....	800
W. Virginia.....	2,024	63,008	19,826
Kentucky.....	987	183,003	1,225	172,753

Missouri.....	14,090	4,388	11,146	59,691	592,273
Tennessee }	3	3,956
Louisiana } ..	2,566	53,934
Ohio.....	10,126	9,230	203,243	105,114	3,186,556
Indiana.....	46	858	82,243	15,268	407,725
Illinois.....	22	764	183,308	789,904
Michigan.....	163	112	9,962	462,378
Wisconsin.....	555	2,970	117,056
Iowa.....	153	1,500	63,654
Minnesota.....	3	1,775
Kansas.....	9,838
California.....	23	1,070,548
Oregon.....	12	38,455
Nebraska.....
New Mexico.....
Utah.....	4,068
Colorado.....	2,440
Nevada.....	68,803
Washington.....
Total quantity	127,331	81,956	10,880
Total val.	\$25,476,200	16,391,200	\$2,181,137	\$3,536,000	\$9,979,061	\$62,964,920

From the table below we see the relative production of Pennsylvania and the other States, both in amount and value :

PRODUCTION AND MANUFACTURE OF IRON, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1864.

	For the United States.		For Pennsylvania.	
	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
Rails, re-rolled.....	159,000	40,763
Rails, new.....	117,224	\$9,964,040	97,226	\$8,264,210
Band, Hoop and Plate.....	153,936	15,393,600	85,875	8,587,500
Bars and Blooms.....	179,202	17,929,200	73,446	6,610,040
Rivets and Cut Nails.....	127,381	25,476,200	37,063	7,412,600
Heavy Castings.....	172,182	15,896,880	45,756	4,575,600
Hollow Ware and Stoves.	81,955	16,391,200	11,951	2,390,200
Total.....	990,971	\$100,650,620	392,080	\$37,841,150
Marine Engines.....	2,180,137	262,655
Steel, Unwrought.....	10,880	3,536,000	7,256	2,347,350
Steel Manufacturers N.O.P.	9,979,061	1,908,575
Iron Manufacturers N.O.P.	62,964,920	12,633,106
Aggregate value.....	\$179,311,738	\$54,912,836
Total U. S. Tax—for U. S.,	\$3,202,356.	For Pennsylvania, \$1,042,852.

IRON IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FOR 1864.

	Tons.	Value.
Pig and Puddled.....	68,652	\$1,050,167
Bar, Angle, Bolt and Rod.....	73,561	3,490,307
Rail Road.....	108,788	4,057,663
Castings.....	635	69,104
Boiler Plate, Hoop and Sheet.....	19,041	1,371,119
Wrought and all other kinds.....	12,722	1,224,065
Total Iron.....	275,843	\$10,959,205
“ Steel, Unwrought.....	14,992	2,393,596
Aggregate value in gold.....	\$13,515,085

PETROLEUM.

The review of the Petroleum trade, which we published in our issue for Feb-

ruary, renders unnecessary much that might be said under this head. The total production in the United States, for the year, is given as follows in the Board of Trade report :

PRODUCTION OF PETROLEUM IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Gallons.
Exported.....	33,467,424
Re-fined in Pennsylvania for domestic consumption.....	13,349,974
Re-fined in other States for domestic consumption.....	8,665,215
Total.....	55,482,613

The above figures of exports do not agree with those given in our previous statement, by about two million gallons. This arises from the addition of that amount for exports from Cleveland and other ports, said to be officially reported to the Treasury Department since our previous statement was published.

To arrive, however, at a correct conclusion respecting the production of petroleum, we should remember that of the above amount probably 46,000,000 gallons was refined oil, and would equal therefore 60,000,000 of crude oil. Besides this, there is always great loss by evaporation, flood, fire, and many other causes. The destruction of 10,000 barrels in the beginning of March, 1864, in one lot, is known. Then, again, there is a very considerable quantity used for lubricating purposes. Hence it is evident that the actual production of petroleum during 1864 must have largely exceeded the total given above.

COAL.

We gave in our May number for this year an article on the coal trade, etc., in which, among other things, we published a table of the yearly production in Pennsylvania from the commencement of the trade to the close of 1864. Those tables it is unnecessary to reproduce. The following returns, however, from the report of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue will be of interest :

COAL PRODUCT OF PENNSYLVANIA IN DETAIL, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1864, FROM REPORT OF COMMISSIONER OF INTERNAL REVENUE.

District.	Counties.	Anthracite.	
10.	Schuylkill and Lebanon.....	3,056,627	
11.	Carbon, Monroe, and Northampton....	505,864	
12.	Luzerne and Susquehanna.....	4,939,661	
18.	Centre, Clinton, Tioga, Potter, Lycoming.....	312,949	
13.	Columbia, Montour, and Sullivan....	510,012	
14.	Northd, Union, Dauphin, Snyder, and Juniata.....	542,638	
16.	Franklin, Fulton, Bedford, Somerset.....	8,417	
			9,876,174
		Broad Top & other semi-anthracite.	
17.	Blair, Cambria, and Huntingdon....	422,992	422,992
		Bituminous.	
19.	Elk and Clearfield.....	1,342	
20.	Venango, Mercer, Clarion.....	272,759	
21.	Fayette, Westmoreland, Indiana.....	358,245	
22.	Alleghany Co., S. of river.....	1,431,432	
23.	Alleghany Co., N. of river.....	196,360	
24.	Lawrence and Washington.....	138,096	
			2,399,246
Tons.....			12,698,412
At 5½ per ton.....			\$69,841,926

PENNSYLVANIA COAL IN DETAIL, JULY TO DECEMBER, 1864, INCLUSIVE, SIX MONTHS.

Dist.	Counties.	U. S. tax.	Tons. *
10.	Schuylkill and Lebanon.....	\$90,247 41	1,804,948
11.	Carbon, Monroe, Pike, Wayne.....	20,312 22	406,244
12.	Luzerne and Susquehanna.....	143,638 38	2,372,760
13.	Sullivan, Columbia, and Montour.....	12,616 05	252,320
14.	North'd, Dauphin, Snyder, Union, Juniata....	12,896 74	257,920
16.	Adams, Franklin, Bedford, Somerset.....	1,369 99	27,381
17.	Cambria, Blair, Mifflin, Huntingdon.....	10,663 35	213,260
18.	Tioga, Potter, Clinton, Centre, Lycoming....	11,086 85	221,721
19.	Erie, Warren, Cam., Jefferson.....	93 40	1,960
20.	Mercer, Clarion.....	8,834 60	176,683
21.	Indiana, Westmoreland, Fayette.....	9,559 19	191,180
22.	Alleghany, S. of river.....	19,712 56	394,240
23.	Alleghany, N. of river, and Butler.....	4,053 23	91,160
24.	Lawrence, Washington, Green.....	5,070 00	101,400
		<hr/>	
		\$850,163 37	7,003,267

The product of all the States under Government control for the year ending June 30, 1864, is returned as follows by the Internal Revenue Department :

COAL PRODUCT OF THE LOYAL UNITED STATES, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1864.

	Tons.		Tons.
Rhode Island.....	3,636	Illinois.....	925,293
Pennsylvania.....	12,698,412	Michigan.....	16,296
Maryland.....	787,269	Minnesota.....	50,204
District Columbia.....	742	Kansas.....	236
West Virginia.....	398,815	California.....	44,938
Kentucky.....	91,036	Washington.....	7,754
Missouri.....	66,187		
Ohio.....	1,324,685	Total tons.....	16,472,410
Indiana.....	146,737		

SUGAR MAKING.

DR. HASSALL, Analyst of the *Lancet* Sanitary Commission, in his analysis of sugar, says :—"Muscovado, the raw sugar of commerce, has the following composition. Although consisting chiefly of sucrose or crystallizable sugar, it yet contains a good deal of glucose, and is contaminated by various organic and mineral substances. According to AVEQUIN its mineral constituents are : silica, phosphate and subphosphate of lime, carbonate of lime, sulphate of potash, chloride of potassium, and the acetates of potash and lime. The juice of the cane is expressed by means of powerful machinery, and during the crushing operation innumerable fragments of the cane itself, many of them of extreme minuteness, become detached and pass into the juice. As this, in its manufacture into sugar, does not undergo, in general, any process of filtration, and as but few of the fragments drain away with the molasses, the greater part are retained in the sugar, in all unfiltered samples of which they may be readily detected in great abundance, by means of the microscope. Ordinary brown sugar, prepared from juice which has not been subjected to filtration, contains, almost invariably a great many fragments of the tissue of the sugar cane, sporules of a fungus, and also large numbers of an insect termed an *acarus*. They are not contained in loaf sugar, crushed, lump, or sugar candy ; in the preparation of all these sugars

the saccharine matter undergoes a process of filtration which effectually removes all solid and bulky impurities. The saccharine juice of the beetroot is filtered through charcoal, and, therefore fragments of that plant are not present in the sugar made from it, as [they would be, doubtless, were this means of purification not adopted. The various and damaging impurities of Muscovado sugar are thus explained. The presence of the fragments of cane is accounted for by the cane juice not having been deprived by filtration and purification by charcoal of the fungus and insect germs, products of fermentation and nitrogenous matter. In sugars which have been refined none of those impurities are met with. The sugar mite, or *acarus sacchari*, is first visible as a rounded body, or egg; this gradually enlarges, and becomes elongated and cylindrical, until it is about twice as long as broad; after a time, from the sides and one extremity of this ovum the legs and proboscis begin to protrude. The *acarus* goes on increasing in size until it attains its full growth, when it is visible to the naked eye as a mere spec. In most samples of sugar the *acari* may be seen of all sizes, that is, in all stages of their growth, and in every condition, some alive, others dead, some entire, and others broken into fragments, bodies here, legs there. We have said that the sugar mite is very commonly present in the less pure sugars; we might have asserted that it is almost constantly so, the statement being based upon the examination of not less than 100 different samples of sugar."—By Dr. A. H. HASSALL, Analyst of the *Lancet* Sanitary Commission.

Since Dr. HASSALL wrote the above, a new and important process in the manufacture of cane sugar, by KNIGHT'S compound, has been announced. The following is a synopsis of the method:—"As filtration is indispensable for purifying cane juice, the best mode of performing this operation effectively is to add pulverized animal charcoal to the saccharine juice, and to separate the liquid from the bone black and the solid impurities, by a process of filtration through textile fabric. Since its first application to sugar manipulation in 1810, animal charcoal has been universally adopted in the manufacture of beet sugar. This invaluable agency is now the mainstay in the art of manufacturing and refining; it is produced by the calcination of cattle bones in closed vessels deprived of air. When in a dry state its composition is as follows:

Carbon.....	10.5	} 83.7 per cent of Phosphate of Lime, while the best Peruvian Guano does not contain 25 per cent of the same phosphate.
Lime.....	45.1	
Phosphoric Acid.....	38.6	
Soluble Salts.....	1.4	
Insoluble Ash.....	4.4	
	100.0	

Ground to a fine powder, retaining still ten per cent of moisture, bone black absorbs one-twelfth of its own weight of hydrate of lime, or one pound of hydrate of lime is absorbed by twelve pounds of animal charcoal. Bone black has also the properties of absorbing ammoniacal, azoted, odorous, oily and coloring matters. Applied to sugar it promotes crystalization wonderfully. Animal charcoal, prepared by KNIGHT'S process, is transferred into a new product, with increased power for effecting a rapid and perfect filtration, and also for absorbing

lime and coloring matter. It moreover contains, besides a very large amount of phosphate of lime, other mineral ingredients, which will make a powerful manure, especially for the sugar crop. Mixed with the scum of defecations, it restores to the earth the substance taken from it by the cane. This addition to the spent compound doubles its bulk and weight. KNIGHT'S improved animal charcoal is sold and delivered in Liverpool at £10 the ton. It is used at the rate of two per cent, that is to say, two tons of bone black are employed for manufacturing one hundred tons of superior sugar. These two tons of improved black, costing £20, are more than repaid by the four tons of an excellent fertilizer delivered on the sugar plantation, whereas four tons of Peruvian guano would cost in Liverpool £53. The sugar produced by the new process of manufacture being well purified, does not melt when stored like the common Muscovado, which, during the sea voyage to Europe, loses from 10 to 15 per cent. The improved sugar is of a standard which obtains at least £2 per ton above the price of unfiltered Muscovado. The quantity is increased in the ratio of 10 per cent, *i. e.*, in place of 100 tons of common sugar, the same amount of cane juice yields 100 tons of purified Muscovado. The apparatus required to carry out the new process, is composed of an improved filter, with its appurtenances, a lift pump, and three reservoirs. By the old process of sugar making, 100 tons of brown sugar loses 10 tons from drainage during the sea voyage to Europe, the remaining 90 tons sold in bond at £20 produce £1,800. From the same number of gallons of cane juice, 110 tons of purified yellow Muscovado are obtained with the new mode of manufacture, sold at £22, give £2,420, showing a surplus of £620. Thus, an estate which produces now 1,000 tons of sugar per annum, will make, by the improved process, a yearly surplus of £6,200 above its present income; the value of manure produced covering all the cost of the new process, and insuring a steady and constant increase in the sugar crop. The remarkable features of this new process, are its simplicity and its inexpensiveness. It does not require skilled labor, and can be carried on with as little cost on the smallest as well as the largest scale. The manipulator is not restricted to the production of Muscovado alone, the cane juice being so well purified that the sugar can be easily bleached so as to produce the highest class of unstoved sugar. Therefore, should the duties on sugar be equalized, *i. e.*, if a single duty is put on imported sugar, as is already on tea, whatever be its quality, the smallest sugar estate can henceforth compete with the largest one already in possession of the most improved plant—a problem now solved for the first time."

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

INSURANCE COMPANIES IN NEW YORK STATE.

WE have received from the New York Insurance Department advance sheets of the Department's Report, from which it appears that the amount of capital invested in joint stock insurance companies, has been increased over five million dollars during the year. The following table exhibits the increase in the number, capital, and premium income for a period of seventeen years :

TABLE.

Showing the progressive net increase in the Number of New York State Joint Stock Fire Insurance Companies, with their Aggregate Capital and Premium Income, from the year 1848 to 1864 inclusive :

Year.		No. of Co's.	Am't of Capital.	Premium Income.
1848—	M. Fillmore, Compt.	24	\$5,421,700	Not returned
1849—	W. Hunt do	24	5,511,010	do
1850—	do do	31	7,006,010	do
1851—	Philo C. Fuller do	35	7,156,010	do
1852—	John C. Wright do	48	8,506,010	do
1853—	do do	64	13,056,010	4,622,270 59
1854—	James M. Cook do	67	13,553,010	4,622,270 59
1855—	do do	69	13,852,010	5,018,446 68
1856—	L. Burrows do	73	14,902,010	5,570,440 90
1857—	do do	83	16,731,010	5,961,404 87
1858—	S. E. Church do	86	17,131,010	6,046,436 76
1859—	do do	98	20,007,010	6,599,360 96
1860—	Wm. Barnes, Supern't.	96	20,482,860	6,271,595 52
1861—	do do	95	20,282,860	6,827,736 46
1862—	do do	96	20,432,860	7,712,190 88
1863—	do do	101	23,632,860	10,181,030 52
1864—	do do	107	28,807,070	15,618,603 82

It must be borne in mind, however, that the average rate of fire premium was not increased at all during the year, but actually declined, and that the augmented premiums consequently resulted entirely from an increased amount of business. The fire premiums of the New York joint stock companies increased, as stated above, from \$10,181,030.52 in 1863, to \$15,618,603.82 in 1864—the ratio being 53.4088, which is the highest ever known in the history of these corporations. The number of policies issued by New York life insurance companies increased from 20,757 in 1863, to 28,782 in 1864, and the amount insured from \$140,628,427.10 to \$194,819,324.45. The gross assets of all the New York companies, fire, marine, and life, increased during the year from \$32,488,066.07 to \$103,453,772.76.

The grand average per centage of losses to premiums in all the New York joint stock fire insurance companies has ranged, during the last five years, from 41.15 in 1863, to 60.44 in 1862. For every \$100 of premium received in 1862, over \$60 was paid for losses. When the individual companies are taken, and the losses to premiums averaged for the five years combined, the range of per centage oscillates from 18.64, in the case of the American, to 95.99, in the case

of the North-western, and when these five years are separated, the swing of the pendulum extends from 0.80 per cent, in the case of the Commerce Fire, in 1863, to 259.81 per cent, in the case of the Beekman, in 1862. Averaging all the companies, for the five years combined, 1860 to 1864 inclusive, fifty have lost less than fifty cent of premiums, and fifty-one more than fifty per cent of premiums; again, separating the years, the number of companies losing more and less than fifty per cent of premium was as follows:

Year.	No. of Companies.	No. of Co's losing over 50 p ct.	No. of Co's losing less than 50 p ct.
1860.....	76	51	45
1861.....	96	46	49
1862.....	96	55	31
1863.....	101	21	80
1864.....	180	63	46
Average.....	99.20	47	52.20

It is thus demonstrated beyond any cavil and contradiction, by the experience of the last five years, that a very large number of companies actually lose heavily beyond the fifty per cent of premiums received on outstanding unexpired risks, and that therefore this small reserve is, as a matter of fact, entirely inadequate to meet and provide for even the average oscillations of loss, much less for the annual variations which must be considered as certain to occur during a series of years. Shall these losses be paid out of capital, or from an accumulation of surplus profits and a reinsurance fund expressly provided for such contingencies?

The Superintendent has but one opinion on this point. Capital should ordinarily remain intact, to be impaired only by such super-extraordinary fires as those in New York City in 1835 and 1845.

The Superintendent feels that it is his duty, as well to the companies as to the public, to reiterate the recommendation of last year on this subject, that a sum at least equal to the full amount of premiums received on unexpired risks should be reserved from division by dividends and maintained as a surplus fund for reinsurance and other contingencies, and that "all our companies should voluntarily adopt this principle as a golden rule in declaring dividends either with or without further compulsory or restrictive legislation on the subject." This regulating principle embodied in legislation would also operate beneficially in discouraging the organization of an unnecessary and embarrassing number of new corporations.

It is only simple justice to officers and directors to say that the tendencies of our companies in this direction have already been marked and decided during the last five years, and have not failed to attract the attention and commendation of European economists and statisticians.

The following average dividends only, have been paid for the last five years:

Year ending Dec. 31.	No. Co's.	Total capital Dec. 31.	Per centage of dividends.	Amount of dividends.
1860.....	96	\$20,482,860	12,054	\$2,469,090 05
1861.....	95	30,282,860	10,461	2,121,788 76
1862.....	96	20,482,860	10,003	2,043,898 01
1863.....	101	23,632,860	8,567	2,024,742 51
1864.....	107	28,807,070	8,621	2,483,370 94

The dividends paid in 1864 only about equal the dividends of 1860, although

the amount of capital has increased over eight million dollars. The general impression prevailing that fire insurance stocks ordinarily pay excessive dividends, is thus shown by the above table to be a popular delusion. Whenever heavy dividends are paid, the foundations for such payment must be laid on many years of experience and accumulation, guided by superior qualifications and acquirements in the officers, managers, and agents.

TAXABLE PROPERTY IN BUFFALO.

The *Buffalo Courier* gives the following as the valuation of taxable property and the rate per cent of the general city tax for the years 1864 and 1865. It will be seen that the valuation of the present year has been increased some \$270,000 over last year, notwithstanding the valuation of personal property as assessed is \$10,000 less. Something over \$700,000 has been withdrawn from taxation by the banks alone, and it is the opinion of those best qualified to judge that not less than \$2,000,000 has been invested by citizens and corporations in United States securities, and thus placed beyond the reach of State or local taxation:—

VALUATION OF TAXABLE PROPERTY IN THE CITY OF BUFFALO FOR 1865.

Ward.	Real.	Personal.	Aggregate.
1st	\$3,368,475	225,520	3,593,995
2d	2,875,380	781,805	6,657,185
3d	1,224,740	82,500	1,307,240
4th	1,931,705	229,950	2,161,655
5th	1,391,995	79,100	1,471,095
6th	800,000	17,500	818,460
7th	1,298,860	113,970	1,417,310
8th	2,413,800	985,935	3,899,735
9th	3,524,265	2,348,585	5,872,850
10th	2,836,215	1,096,590	3,932,805
11th	1,832,340	452,575	2,284,915
12th	1,095,685	78,000	1,173,685
13th	897,980	20,500	918,480
Total.....	\$25,491,900	6,517,510	32,009,410
Tax old territory.....	\$513,995 16	Per cent....	1.964—1,000
Tax new territory.....	67,135 81	Per cent....	1.149—1,000
Lamp district added to general fund tax	1,175 00	Per cent....	0.094—1,000
Total.....	\$582,305 97		
Per centage on gas valuations114—1,000
Per centage on water valuations074—1,000

VALUATION OF TAXABLE PROPERTY IN 1864.

Real.	Personal.	Aggregate.	
\$25,210,815	\$6,523,045	\$31,733,860	
Tax old territory.....	347,047 68	Per cent....	1.330—1,000
Tax new territory.....	33,051 71	Per cent....	.533—1,000
Lamp district, added to general fund tax.....	1,148 31	Per cent....	.097—1,000
Total	\$331,247 70		
Per centage on gas valuations097—1,000
Per centage on water valuations.....			.073—1,000

POSTAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE POSTAL MONEY-ORDER SYSTEM.

OFFICIAL LIST.

The postal money-order system, which went into operation on the 1st day of November, 1864, when one hundred and forty-one post offices in the loyal States were made money-order offices, has been extended so as to include four hundred and twenty offices, in nearly all the States.

The working of the system has so far given universal satisfaction. In the business of the New York offices with other offices, no losses, either to the senders or receivers, of orders have occurred. In a few cases of error or carelessness in the drawing or the use of orders, it was necessary to cancel or duplicate the drafts; but the familiarity of the public with the system renders such cases very rare.

It will be remembered that orders may be drawn for any sum from one to thirty dollars, on payment of ten to twenty cents; and larger sums are transmitted by using additional orders.

The business with the new offices began on Monday, the 3d of July. The following is the official list of all the designated post offices at which orders may be drawn or paid.

LIST OF MONEY-ORDER POST OFFICES, JULY 1, 1865.

CONNECTICUT.

Bridgeport,	Hartford,	Norwich,	Norwalk,	West Meriden,
Danbury,	Litchfield,	New Britain,	Putnam,	Waterbury,
Derby,	Middletown,	New Milford,	Rockville,	Willmantic,
Guilford,	New London,	New Haven,	Thompsonville,	West Killingly.

DELAWARE.

Delaware City,	Dover,	Wilmington.
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DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington.

FLORIDA.

Key West.

ILLINOIS.

Alton,	Champaign,	Galesburg,	Olney,	Rockford,
Aurora,	Chicago,	Geneseo,	Ottawa,	Rock Island,
Belleville,	Danville,	Jacksonville,	Paris,	Shawneetown,
Bloomington,	Decatur,	Joliet,	Peoria,	Shelbyville,
Cairo,	Dixon,	Kankakee Depot,	Pontiac,	Springfield,
Canton,	Elgin,	Lacon,	Princeton,	Sycamor,
Carlville,	Freeport,	Macomb,	Quincy,	Waukegan.
Centralia,	Galena,	Mount Vernon,		

INDIANA.

Attica,	Greenburg,	Lafayette,	New Albany,	South Bend,
Bloomington,	Goshen,	La Porte,	Plymouth,	Terre Haute,
Columbus,	Huntington,	Lawrenceburg,	Princeton,	Valparaiso,
Crawfordsville,	Indianapolis,	Logansport,	Rensselaer,	Vincennes,

Evansville, Fort Wayne, Green Castle,	Jeffersonville, Kokomo,	[Madison, Muncie,	Richmond, Salem,	Wabash, Warsaw,
IOWA.				
Burlington, Cedar Rapids, Council Bluffs, Davenport,	Des Moines, Dubuque, Iowa City, Keokuk,	Lyons, Marshalltown, Mt. Pleasant, Muscatine,	Newton, Oskaloosa, Ottumwa,	Sioux City, Washington, Waterloo.
KANSAS.				
Atchison,	Ft. Leavenworth,	Lawrence,	Topeka.	
KENTUCKY.				
Bowling Green.	Louisville,	Lexington,	Maysville,	Paducah.
LOUISIANA.				
New Orleans.				
MAINE.				
Augusta, Bangor, Bath,	Belfast, Biddeford, Brunswick,	Eastport, Ellsworth, Lewiston,	Portland, Rockland,	Skowhegan, Waterville.
MARYLAND.				
Annapolis, Baltimore,	Cumberland, Easton,	Ellicott's Mills, Frederick,	Hagerstown, Havre de Grace,	Salisbury.
MASSACHUSETTS.				
Amherst, Bridgewater, Boston, Chicopee, Fall River,	Fitchburg, Gloucester, Greenfield, Lawrence, Lee,	Lowell, Lynn, Milford, Natick, New Bedford,	Newburyport, Northampton, Pittsfield, Plymouth, Salem,	Springfield, Taunton, Westfield, Worcester.
MICHIGAN.				
Adrian, Allegan, Ann Arbor, Big Rapids,	Cold Water, Detroit, East Saginaw, Flint,	Grand Rapids, Hillsdale, Jackson, Kalamazoo,	Lansing, Marshall, Monroe,	Niles, Pontiac, Port Huron.
MINNESOTA.				
Faribault, Hastings,	Mankato, Red Wing,	Rochester, St. Cloud,	St. Paul,	Winona.
MISSISSIPPI.				
Vicksburg.				
MISSOURI.				
Jefferson Bar'ks, Jefferson City,	Kansas City, Pilot Knob,	Richmond, Rolla,	St. Charles, St. Joseph,	St. Louis
NEBRASKA TERRITORY.				
Nebraska City,	Omaha City.			
NEW HAMPSHIRE.				
Claremont, Concord, Dover,	Exeter, Great Falls,	Hanover, Keene,	Lancaster, Manchester,	Nashua, Portsmouth.
NEW JERSEY.				
Bridgeton, Burlington, Freehold,	Jersey City, Morristown, Newark,	New Brunswick, Newton,	Paterson, Plainfield,	Princeton, Trenton.

NEW YORK.

Albany,	Cortland Village,	Kingston,	Oswego,	Seneca Falls,
Albion,	Delhi,	Little Falls,	Owego,	Syracuse,
Auburn,	Dunkirk,	Lockport,	Penn Yan,	Troy,
Batavia,	Elizabethtown,	Lyons,	Plattsburg,	Utica,
Bath,	Elmira,	Malone,	Port Jervis,	Warsaw,
Binghamton,	Fort Hamilton,	Newburgh,	Poughkeepsie,	Watertown,
Brooklyn,	Geneseo,	New York,	River Head,	Wellsville,
Buffalo,	Hudson,	Norwich,	Rochester,	West Point,
Canandaigua,	Ithaca,	Ogdensburg,	Saratoga Springs,	Whitetail,
Cooperstown,	Jamestown,	Olean,	Schenectady,	Yonkers.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Newbern.

OHIO.

Akron,	Defiance,	Lancaster,	Newark,	Sandusky,
Athens,	Delaware,	Lima,	N. Philadelphia,	Steubenville,
Bellefontaine,	Finley,	McConnellsville,	Norwalk,	Tiffin,
Bucyrus,	Fremont,	Mansfield,	Oberlin,	Toledo,
Cambridge,	Gallipolis,	Marietta,	Painesville,	Urbana,
Chillicothe,	Hamilton,	Marion,	Piqua,	Van Wert,
Cincinnati,	Hillsborough,	Massillon,	Portsmouth,	Warren,
Circleville,	Ironton,	Medina,	Ravenna,	Wooster,
Cleveland,	Jackson,	Miamisville,	Ripley,	Xenia,
Columbus,	Jefferson,	Mt. Vernon,	Salem,	Zanesville.
Dayton,	Kenton,			

PENNSYLVANIA.

Allentown,	Easton,	Lancaster,	Norristown,	Towanda,
Altoona,	Erie,	Lebanon,	Philadelphia,	Warren,
Bedford,	Franklin,	Lewisburg,	Pittsburg,	Washington,
Bellefonte,	Greensburg,	Lewistown,	Pottsville,	Wellsborough,
Carlisle,	Harrisburg,	Lock Haven,	Reading,	West Chester,
Chambersburgh,	Honesdale,	Meadville,	Scranton,	Williamsport,
Chester,	Johnstown,	Newcastle,	Susque'na Depot,	York.
Danville,	Kittanning,			

RHODE ISLAND.

Bristol,	Portsm'th Grove,	Providence,	Westerly,	Woonsocket Falls
Newport,				

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Port Royal.

TENNESSEE.

Chattanooga,	Memphis,	Nashville.
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VERMONT.

Bennington,	Burlington,	Rutland,	St. Johnsbury,	Windsor,
Brandon,	Middlebury,	St. Albans,	Springfield,	Woodstock.
Brattleborough,	Montpelier,			

VIRGINIA.

Alexandria,	Old Point Com'f't,	Norfolk,
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WEST VIRGINIA.

Clarksburg,	Harper's Ferry,	Martinsburg,	Parkersburg,	Wheeling:
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WISCONSIN.

Beloit,	Fond du Lac,	Madison,	Portage City,	Sheboygan,
Black Riv Falls,	Green Bay,	Manitowoc,	Prairie du Chien,	Sparta,
Darlington,	Hudson,	Milwaukee,	Prescott,	Stevens Point,
Eau Claire,	La Crosse,	Oshkosh,	Racine,	Waukesha.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS--CENSUS OF 1860.

The returns of the agricultural statistics of the United States in 1860 are just published by the Census Bureau, and from the published volume we have compiled the following :

Below is a statement of the acres of land in farms, and their cash value June 30, 1860 :

ACRES OF LAND IN FARMS, AND CASH VALUE.

States.	Improved.	Unimproved.	Cash Value.
Alabama.....	6,385,724	12,718,821	\$175,824,622
Arkansas.....	1,983,313	7,590,393	91,649,773
California.....	2,468,034	6,262,000	48,726,804
Connecticut.....	1,880,807	673,457	90,830,005
Delaware.....	637,065	367,230	31,426,357
Florida.....	654,213	2,206,015	16,435,727
Georgia.....	8,062,758	18,587,732	157,072,803
Illinois.....	13,096,374	7,815,615	408,944,033
Indiana.....	8,242,183	8,146,109	356,712,175
Iowa.....	3,792,792	6,277,115	119,899,547
Kansas.....	405,468	1,372,932	12,258,239
Kentucky.....	7,644,208	11,519,053	291,496,955
Louisiana.....	2,707,108	6,591,468	204,789,632
Maine.....	2,704,133	3,023,598	78,688,525
Maryland.....	3,002,267	1,833,304	145,973,677
Massachusetts.....	2,155,512	1,188,212	123,255,948
Michigan.....	3,476,296	3,554,533	160,886,495
Minnesota.....	556,250	2,155,716	27,505,922
Mississippi.....	5,065,755	10,773,929	190,760,367
Missouri.....	6,246,871	13,737,939	230,632,126
New Hampshire.....	2,367,034	1,377,591	69,689,761
New Jersey.....	1,944,441	1,039,084	180,250,338
New York.....	14,358,403	6,616,555	803,343,593
North Carolina.....	6,517,284	17,245,685	143,301,065
Ohio.....	12,625,394	7,846,747	678,132,991
Oregon.....	896,414	1,164,125	15,200,593
Pennsylvania.....	10,463,296	6,548,844	662,050,707
Rhode Island.....	335,128	186,096	19,550,553
South Carolina.....	4,572,060	11,623,859	139,652,508
Tennessee.....	6,795,337	13,873,823	271,358,985
Texas.....	2,650,781	22,693,247	88,101,820
Vermont.....	2,823,157	1,451,257	94,289,045
Virginia.....	11,437,821	19,679,215	371,761,661
Wisconsin.....	3,746,167	4,147,420	131,117,164
Total States.....	162,649,848	241,943,671	\$6,631,520,046
Territories.			
District of Columbia.....	17,474	16,789	2,989,267
Dakota.....	2,115	24,333	96,445
Nebraska.....	118,789	512,425	3,878,826
Nevada.....	14,132	41,986	302,340
New Mexico.....	149,274	1,265,635	2,707,386
Utah.....	77,219	12,692	1,333,355
Washington.....	81,869	284,287	2,217,842
Total Territories.....	460,872	2,158,147	\$13,524,961
Aggregate.....	163,110,720	244,101,818	\$6,645,045,008

By the foregoing table it will be perceived that in 1860 the agricultural area

In the free States and Territories, in 1850, five bushels; in 1860, six and a quarter bushels to each inhabitant.

Taking the country as a whole, therefore, there has been a gratifying increase in the production of wheat as compared with population; an increase of one bushel to each inhabitant, or about twenty-five per cent.

INDIAN CORN—AMOUNT PRODUCED IN 1860.

States.	Bushels.	States.	Bushels.
Alabama	33,226,282	Ohio	73,543,190
Arkansas	17,823,588	Oregon	76,122
California	510,708	Pennsylvania	28,196,821
Connecticut	2,059,835	Rhode Island	461,497
Delaware	3,892,337	South Carolina	15,065,606
Florida	2,834,391	Tennessee	52,089,926
Georgia	30,776,293	Texas	16,500,702
Illinois	115,174,777	Vermont	1,525,411
Indiana	71,588,919	Virginia	38,319,999
Iowa	42,410,686	Wisconsin	7,517,300
Kansas	6,150,727		
Kentucky	64,043,633	Total States.....	836,404,593
Louisiana	16,853,745		
Maine	1,546,071	Territories.	Bushels.
Maryland	13,444,922	Dist. of Columbia.....	80,840
Massachusetts	2,157,063	Dakota	20,269
Michigan	12,444,676	Nebraska	1,482,080
Minnesota	2,941,952	Nevada	460
Mississippi	29,057,682	New Mexico	709,304
Missouri	72,802,157	Utah	90,482
New Hampshire	1,414,628	Washington	4,712
New Jersey	9,723,336		
New York	20,061,049	Total Territories.....	2,388,147
North Carolina.....	30,078,564	Aggregate	838,792,740

The production of Indian corn in the United States and Territories, according to the census of 1860, was 838,792,740 bushels. It is difficult to fully realize the magnitude of these figures, which we can only appreciate by contemplating them in connection with the aggregate production of our other great staples. With this object we here introduce a table showing the production of wheat, rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, peas and beans, in 1850 and 1860, as compared with the production of Indian corn:

WHEAT, RYE, OATS, BARLEY, BUCKWHEAT, PEAS AND BEANS RAISED IN THE UNITED STATES AND TERRITORIES IN 1850 AND 1860, AS COMPARED WITH INDIAN CORN.

	1850. Bushels.	1860. Bushels.
Wheat.....	100,485,944	173,104,924
Rye.....	14,188,813	21,101,380
Oats.....	146,534,179	172,643,185
Barley.....	5,167,015	15,825,898
Buckwheat.....	8,956,912	17,571,818
Peas and Beans.....	9,219,901	15,061,995
Total.....	284,602,764	415,309,200
Indian Corn.....	592,071,104	838,792,740

It will be seen from the above table that we raise nearly five bushels of Indian corn to one of wheat, and more than double the aggregate production of wheat, rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, peas, and beans. Such was also the case in 1850.

It will be seen, however, that less wheat was raised in 1850 in proportion to Indian corn than in 1860. In other words, vastly as the production of Indian corn has increased in ten years, the production of wheat has increased in still greater proportion.

We produce more bushels of oats than of wheat, but in proportion to Indian corn the increase is not as great in 1860, as compared with 1850, as in the case of wheat.

The production of no other grain has increased so much in the last ten years as barley. It will be seen that we produce three times as much in 1860 as in 1850, while the production of Indian corn has not quite doubled.

Buckwheat, peas, and beans have also greatly increased, but only a fraction more than Indian corn.

The principal corn-growing States are Illinois, Missouri, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Iowa, Virginia, Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina, Mississippi, Pennsylvania and New York.

The following table shows the production of Indian corn in these States in 1860, 1850, and 1840 :

PRODUCTION OF INDIAN CORN IN THE PRINCIPAL CORN-GROWING STATES IN 1840, 1850, AND 1860.

States.	1840.	1850.	1860.
Illinois.....	22,634,211	57,646,984	115,174,777
Missouri.....	17,82,524	36,214,537	72,892,157
Ohio.....	33,668,144	59,078,695	73,543,190
Indiana.....	28,155,337	52,964,363	71,588,919
Kentucky.....	39,847,120	58,672,591	64,043,033
Tennessee.....	44,986,188	52,276,223	52,089,926
Iowa.....	1,406,241	8,656,799	42,410,686
Virginia.....	34,577,591	35,254,319	38,319,999
Alabama.....	20,947,004	28,754,048	33,226,282
Georgia.....	20,905,122	30,080,099	30,776,293
North Carolina.....	23,893,763	27,941,051	30,078,564
Mississippi.....	13,161,237	22,446,552	29,057,682
Pennsylvania.....	14,240,022	19,835,214	28,196,821
New York.....	10,972,286	17,858,400	20,061,049

Tennessee was the greatest corn-producing State in 1840, Ohio in 1850, and Illinois in 1860.

Kentucky was the second greatest corn-producing State in 1840, and also in 1850, while she yielded the honor to Ohio in 1860.

Virginia stood third as a corn producing State in 1840, Illinois in 1850, and Missouri in 1860.

Ohio stood fourth in 1840, Indiana in 1850, and again in 1860.

Indiana stood fifth in 1840, Tennessee in 1850, and Kentucky in 1860.

North Carolina stood sixth in 1840, Virginia in 1850, and Tennessee in 1860.

Illinois produces nearly one-seventh of all the corn raised in the United States and Territories.

The six States of Illinois, Missouri, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee, produced, in 1860, 449,332,502 bushels of Indian corn, or more than half the entire production of the United States and Territories.

It will be observed from the above table that Iowa has increased her production of Indian corn during the last twenty and ten years, more than any other of

the great corn-growing states. In twenty years she has increased from less than one and a half million bushels to more than forty-one million bushels. This young State produces nearly half as much corn as all New England and the Middle States.

MANURES FOR THE CORNFIELD.

A large space in the report is devoted to this subject. It is asserted that at the present price for Indian corn, artificial manures—superphosphate of lime, sulphate of ammonia, Peruvian guano, “cancerine,” &c—can be used with considerable profit; but the main dependence of the farmer must still be the barnyard manure. The light concentrated fertilizers should be used as auxiliaries to the barnyard manure. In this way they will prove of great advantage. Anything which increases the crop of Indian corn increases the means of making more manure, and that of a better quality.

OATS.

More oats than wheat is raised in the United States by over one million bushels. In 1860 there were 172,643,185 bushels of oats raised, against 146,584,179 bushels in 1850. New York is the greatest oat growing State in the Union, producing 35,175,134 bushels. Pennsylvania is next. The four States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Illinois produce more oats than all the other States and Territories. California, which was unreported in 1850, produced over a million of bushels in 1860. Oregon has also increased to an almost equal extent.

BARLEY.

In round numbers the barley crop in 1850 was 5,500,000 bushels, and in 1860 15,000,000, or an increase of 200 per cent. This is due principally to the increased demand for barley for malting purposes. It is a noticeable fact that the young State of California produced more barley in 1860 than any other State in the Union, the amount being 4,415,425 bushels. New York was next, producing 4,186,068 bushels. California and New York produce more barley than all the other States and Territories included.

BUCKWHEAT.

Total production in 1850, 8,956,912 bushels; in 1860, 17,571,818 bushels—nearly double that of 1850; showing a larger increase than any other grain crop. Pennsylvania raised the largest amount, 5,572,024 bushels; New York next, 5,126,307 bushels.

PEAS AND BEANS.

Total production in 1850, 9,219,901 bushels; 1860, 15,001,995 bushels—an increase of over fifty per cent. Of the whole amount the Southern States raised in 1860 over 11,500,000. The increase in the production of peas and beans more than keeps up with the increase in population in all the States and Territories. It was eleven quarts to each inhabitant in 1850, and a little over fifteen quarts in 1860.

IRISH POTATOES.

Total amount raised in 1850, 65,797,896; in 1860, 111,148,367—being about two and three quarters bushels to each inhabitant in 1850, and three and a half bushels in 1860. New York raised the largest amount, being 26,447,394 bushels, or over 5,000,00 bushels more than all the New England States combined.

SWEET POTATOES.

Whole amount raised in 1850, 38,268,148 bushels; in 1860, 42,095,026 bushels. The great bulk of the crop is raised in the Southern States, although New Jersey raised 1,034,832 bushels, being nearly equal to the amount raised in Kentucky and Florida severally. New York only raised a little over 7,000 bushels.

DAIRY PRODUCTS.

Total production of butter in the United States and Territories in 1850, 313,345,306 pounds; 1860, 459,681,372 pounds—an increase of about fifty per cent. Of cheese there was nearly two million of pounds more produced in 1850 than in 1860, the total amount being in 1850, 105,535,893 pounds; in 1860, 103,663,927 pounds. New York makes nearly one fourth of all the butter made in the United States, and more than one-third the cheese, the amount being 103,097,280 pounds butter, and 48,548,289 pounds cheese. Ohio is the principal dairy State of the West. She makes nearly one-third of all the butter produced in the Western States, and over seventy-five per cent of the cheese. Vermont produces more cheese than all the Western States together, exclusive of Ohio. The amount of butter made in the Southern States has increased from forty-four and a half million pounds in 1850 to nearly sixty millions in 1860. The cheese product in the South is exceedingly light, and has fallen off since 1850. In California, in 1850, only seven hundred and five pounds of butter were produced, while in 1860 the product was over three million pounds butter, and over one and a quarter million pounds of cheese.

WOOL.

Total amount raised in the States and Territories in 1850, 52,516,959 pounds; in 1860, 60,364,913 pounds; in 1840, 35,802,114. In 1850 there were over 7,000,000 pounds wool produced in the New England States, and 6,500,000 in 1860, showing a decrease of 500,000 pounds. Vermont raised nearly half the wool produced in the New England States, although the amount raised in 1860, as compared with 1850, shows a falling off of more than 275,000 pounds. New York produces about two-thirds of all the wool grown in the Middle States. In 1850 she produced 10,071,301 pounds; in 1860, 9,454,474 pounds, or over 500,000 pounds less than in 1850. In 1850 the Western States produced 21,552,597 pounds, in 1860, 25,231,810 pounds, an increase of nearly 4,000,000 pounds. Ohio is the greatest wool-growing State in the West, producing over ten and a half million pounds in 1860, or about half a million pounds more than in 1850. The production in the Southern States increased from 8,337,526 pounds in 1850 to 9,867,271 pounds in 1860. In Texas the production increased from 131,917 pounds in 1850 to 1,493,738 pounds in 1860. The increase in the Pacific States is enormous. From 77,329 pounds in 1850 the production of wool in those States increased to 3,489,350 pounds in 1860. California, it is thought, will soon be one of the largest wool producing States in the United States. It is estimated there were 3,000,000 head of sheep in the State in June, 1863. The following table will show the amount of wool produced in the Pacific States in 1860, as compared with 1850:

	1850.	1860.
California.....	5,520	2,683,109
Oregon.....	29,686	219,012
New Mexico.....	32,901	492,645
Washington.....	19,819
Utah.....	9,222	74,765
Total.....	77,329	3,489,350

The Pacific States are the only section in which the production of wool has more than kept pace with the increase of population. Taking all the States and Territories, the amount of wool raised in 1850 was a little over two and a quarter pounds to each inhabitant, and in 1860 less than two pounds.

THE RAILROAD ORDINANCE OF MISSOURI.

THE following is the text of the Railroad Ordinance of Missouri, reported to have been adopted by a majority of 18,167 at the recent constitutional election in that State:

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Missouri, in convention assembled, as follows:

Sec. 1. There shall be levied and collected from the Pacific Railroad, the North Missouri Railroad Company, and the St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad Company an annual tax of ten per centum of all their gross receipts for the transportation of freight and passengers (not including amount received from and taxes paid to the United States) from the 1st of October, 1866, to the 1st of October, 1868, and fifteen per centum thereafter, which tax shall be assessed and collected in the county of St. Louis, in the same manner as other State taxes are assessed and collected, and shall be appropriated by the General Assembly to the payment of the principal and interest now due, or hereafter to become due, upon the bonds of the State, and the bonds guaranteed by the State, issued to the aforesaid railroad companies.

Sec. 2. A like tax of fifteen per cent shall be assessed and collected from the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad Company, and from the Platte County Railroad Company, whenever default is made by said companies, or either of them, in the payment of the interest or principal of the bonds of the State, or the bonds guaranteed by the State, issued to said Companies respectively, which tax shall be assessed and collected in such manner as the General Assembly may by law direct, and shall be applied for the payment of the principal and interest of said bonds as the same may become due and payable.

Sec. 3. The tax in this ordinance specified shall be collected from each company hereinbefore named only for the payment of the principal and interest of the bonds, for the payment of which such company shall be liable, and whenever such bonds and interest shall have been fully paid no further tax shall be collected from such company; but nothing shall be received by the State in discharge of any amounts due upon said bonds except cash or other bonds or obligations of this State.

Sec. 4. Should either of said companies refuse or neglect to pay such tax, as herein required, and the interest or principal of any of said bonds, or any part thereof remains due and unpaid, the General Assembly shall provide by law for the sale of the railroad and other property, and the franchise of the company that shall be thus in default, under the lien reserved to the State, and shall appropriate the proceeds of such sale to the payment of the amount remaining due and unpaid from said company.

Sec. 5. Whenever the State shall become the purchaser of any railroad or other property, or the franchises sold as hereinbefore provided for, the General As-

sembly shall provide by law in what manner the same shall be sold for the payment of the indebtedness of the railroad company in default; but no railroad or other property, or franchises purchased by the State, shall be restored to any such company until it shall have first paid in money, or in Missouri State bonds, or in bonds guaranteed by this State, all interest due from said company; and all interest thereafter accruing shall be paid semi-annually in advance; and no sale or other disposition of any such railroad or other property, or the franchises shall be made without reserving a lien upon all the property and franchises thus sold or disposed of for all sums remaining unpaid; and all payments therefor shall be made in money, or in the bonds or other obligations of this State.

Sec. 6. The General Assembly shall provide by law for the payment of all State indebtedness not hereinbefore provided for, and for this purpose a tax of one quarter of one per centum on all real estate and other property and effects subjected to taxation shall be assessed and collected, and shall be appropriated for the payment of all such indebtedness that may have matured, and the surplus, if any, shall be set apart as a sinking fund for the payment of the obligations of the State that may hereafter become due, and for no other purpose whatsoever.

Sec. 7. At the election to be held on the 6th day of June, 1865, for the purpose of ascertaining the sense of the people in regard to the adoption or rejection of the constitution adopted by this Convention, the question of the adoption or rejection of this ordinance shall be submitted to the voters of this State, who shall be qualified as voters under the provisions of article thirteen of said constitution, and shall take the oath in said article prescribed; and the vote at such election shall be taken and returns thereof made at the same time, under the same restrictions and in the same manner as in said article is provided for the vote upon the question of the adoption or rejection of said constitution. The election herein provided for shall be by ballot. Those ballots in favor of this ordinance shall have written or printed thereon the words, "Shall the railroads pay their bonds? Yes." Those opposed to this ordinance shall have written or printed thereupon the words, "Shall the railroads pay their bonds? No." If the majority of the votes cast at such election shall be in favor of this ordinance, the same shall be valid and have full force and effect as a part of the constitution of this State, whether the new constitution adopted by this Convention be adopted or rejected.

If a majority of such votes shall be against this ordinance, it shall have no validity or force whatsoever.

The Governor of this State shall, by proclamation, make known the result of the election herein provided for.

Adopted, in convention, April 10, 1865.

AMATEUR ENGINEERING.

Says the *Mechanics' Magazine* of London, a somewhat humorous lexicographer once defined man as an animal which carries a stick. The definition is witty but incorrect. Orang-outangs carry sticks, but they are not therefore men. Another definition was imperatively required, and this time man was defined as an animal who makes bargains. This leaves little to be desired, and yet we propose a third definition. Man is an animal which invents, and in this fact really lies perhaps the great superiority of the genus *homo* over all other created beings. The faculty, too, is possessed by every tribe or nation upon the face of the earth; it is absolutely independent of civilization, being an inborn and inherent attribute, implanted in the human breast by the Deity. The operations of the mind bear little relation to the magnitude of the object on which they are

exerted. The brain thinks, practically without regard to the results following on thought, and, as far as it is concerned, there is nothing either too great or too little for it to work upon. In other words, there was just as much labor involved in determining the means by which the eye could be formed in a needle, as can be expended in arranging part of the plan of a great campaign. Provided a man thinks his hardest, it is a matter of little importance to his powers of ratiocination on what that act of thinking is exerted. The steam generated in a boiler causes the revolution of a wheel, and this revolution may again perchance cause the propulsion of a locomotive engine, or it may enable a steamship to cross the broad Atlantic, or it may give motion to the thousand spindles of a cotton mill. The power originally lies in the fuel, and it is produced by the act of combustion, without any regard to the purpose to which it is subsequently applied. The revolving wheel knows naught of the work it does. The burning coal will burn equally, whether the steam blows to waste through the safety valve, or finds its way to the cylinder; and thus it is with thought, and above all with inventive thought. The magnitude of the results produced bears no relation other than one of haphazard to the amount of mental labor expended on them. Physiologists tell us that there is just as much mental energy, as measured by the waste of the tissues, expended in debating what we shall have for dinner to-day, as in working out any other problem, be it an item in the budget, or a point of detail in the design for a great marine engine, and we are not disposed to differ from these gentlemen. We do not of course wish to imply that, in the operations of daily life, the gentleman who lives at home at ease on his own income, works his brain as hardly as the student reading for honors, or the statesman preparing his speech for the House. All we wish to convey is that, so long as thought is exerted to the fullest, the labor involved in no way depends on the object on which it is exerted for the time being; and thus it happens that the abilities of the engineer or the mechanic are not to be measured by the mere magnitude of the works he produces. The inventor of the chronometer escapement is not a whit behind James Watt, the inventor of separate condensation. The results which have followed on the labors of each differ in their importance because the principle of separate condensation is practically more generally useful, and has contributed more to the common good than the principle of the detached escapement; but it requires no very profound speculation to perceive that this result is wholly independent of the amount of mental labor expended by James Watt and by Harrison, in carrying out their respective ideas, and, therefore, we are correct in stating that equal praise is due to each man as an inventor.

In every civilized nation may be found a numerous body of men, whom we may for the nonce style amateur engineers. These men regard the act of inventing as the great object of their lives, and, in a modified sense, Sir WILLIAM ARMSTRONG'S far from elegant simile is applicable to them:—"They can no more help inventing than a hen can help laying eggs." Of course we might draw a great many distinctions, as, for instance, between the individual whose proximate motive is the love of science, and he who invents because he expects to make a fortune. We do not, however, mean to have anything to do just now with these things. We shall speak merely of the community—for so we may term it—as a

whole, as a corporate body, working very hard indeed for its own, and intentionally, at least, for the public good. It matters nothing that some of its members devote themselves to civil, others to mechanical engineering, others, again, to inventions in natural philosophy—we use the words in the widest sense—all alike work, and experience all the miseries of wrath and tribulation because they are not appreciated by an ungrateful world. Unfortunately for the inventor, however, there is a great deal to be said on both sides, and, as many amateur engineers read our pages, we trust that a word in season may prove both most useful and comforting. The true amateur engineer is unsuccessful as a rule, simply because he regards every subject from but one point of view, and that his own; standing on a certain coign of vantage, he regards the world of mechanical science in but one aspect, and this, it is almost needless to say, is the theoretical. Occasionally the theory is perfectly sound; far more frequently it is utterly false and opposed to fact. In either case, the result is the same pretty nearly.

Our inventor is always either before or behind the day in which he lives. Thus the result of his labors is either a design for a machine to effect some object already effected much better by machinery actually in existence, or for an arrangement of mechanism which the resources of modern art are insufficient to carry out. Thus the story is told of a man, a shoemaker, we believe, by trade, who, after four years' thought, succeeded in producing something very similar to an ordinary power loom. He had betrayed the secret of his soul to no mortal until the moment when he had reached what he thought perfection. He then carried his model to a gentleman residing in his neighborhood. Fancy the effect produced on the unfortunate inventor when he was introduced to an establishment where some two hundred power looms were actually at work! Such a circumstance could hardly happen in these latter days of exhibitions, when every man has at least a fair chance held out to him of making himself acquainted with what is being done around him in iron and wood. Yet, even now, events of a similar character occur with startling frequency. A little knowledge is truly but too often a dangerous thing. Practical difficulties of manufacture are seldom suffered to stand in the way of the amateur. Thus we find castings designed from which the cores cannot possibly be extracted; huge girders for bridges proposed which could never be got by any earthly means from the makers' yard to the locality where they are required; wheels and bearings accurately laid down on paper which would wear themselves out by their own friction in a week. One hour spent in looking over specifications at the Patent-office will afford stronger evidence, and a more powerful practical illustration of the existing state of amateur mechanical science in this country and on the continent than whole pages of assertion. We do not mean to state that the men who produce these things are not clever—it may be talented; far from it. We have not the least doubt—in point of fact no doubt can reasonably have existed—that every scheme, be it bad or good, involves the expenditure of a great deal of mental labor; but mental labor alone cannot impart any value to an invention.

The worth of a design can only be properly estimated in pounds, shillings, and pence; and thus it is that comparative trifles, such as a snuff-box or a candlestick, sometimes bring in a fortune, while things of a thousand times the apparent importance are absolutely worthless. The inventor of the child's perambulator

sold his patent for £10,000, and it would be very easy to pick out a thousand similar cases. The amateur engineer is not able to compete with his professional brother as an inventor, because he is lacking, not in talent, but in that special knowledge by which means can be best adapted to the production of a given end, and this knowledge cannot be gained from books. It must be derived from personal observation. There can be no doubt that many men possess even more than the ordinary amount of the knowledge which books can teach concerning mechanism. Yet this knowledge is useless because the possessor does not know how far it is or is not applicable to particular purposes. The result is that, when such men invent, the labor of their brain is practically wasted, and then once more we hear a great deal about an ungrateful world. The word "amateur," after all, is merely a relative term, and many men practising successfully as engineers are amateurs in everything out of their own peculiar line of business. We may give up the general inventor, the man who schemes everything, as a hopeless case. Such an individual must possess transcendent talent, coupled with enormous experience and a thorough knowledge of first principles, in order that he may have a chance of success. If he has these things, of course, all men ultimately bow down and worship him. In their absence he sinks but the more the more he invents, and the greater number of patents he secures. But the case is different with the particular inventor—the man who devotes all his attention to some specific purpose. There is no reason why he should remain an amateur one moment longer than he wishes. An accurate knowledge of the principles on which every mechanical combination, statical or dynamical, should be constructed; a perfect appreciation of the laws of virtual velocities, and of the conservation of force, are easily acquired. Once thoroughly mastered, the inventor is virtually safe from the quicksands in which so many of his class flounder helplessly all their lives.

These things taken to heart and thoroughly well digested, some particular machine or combination of machinery may be selected on which the inventive faculty is to be exerted. Everything, to the minutest detail connected with this machine should, then, be learned as expeditiously as may be—its history from the earliest moment, the principles which govern its action, and above all, the practical details of its manufacture, and price of the labor and material expended upon its production by different makers. Thus trained, the inventor can go on his way rejoicing; and the chances are that he may then produce something which will prove really useful. As far as that particular machine is concerned, he ceases to be an amateur, and really becomes an engineer in the fullest sense of the word. The history of nearly every practically useful machine of modern days proves that it has been the result of just such a mental process of education as that to which we have just alluded. WATT could not have improved the steam-engine until he made himself acquainted with at least the broad principles on which the action of steam depends. The wrought iron tubular bridges over the Menai Straits are purely the result of inductive reasoning. The self-acting mule is the offspring of a mind trained in the art of mechanical combination to the highest possible finish. So long as men wholly or almost wholly ignorant, not only of scientific principles, but of the common-place question of profit and loss, persist in inventing, they must expect disappointment—and they deserve it. Many,

doubtless, who read these pages are not, and never will be, engineers; but most men are inventors of something; and they may rest assured that there is no golden road to success in any pursuit; least of all in engineering. If, then, men will invent at all, let them do so with their eyes open, knowing precisely and accurately *everything* connected with the object of their labors. Be it the steam-engine or a candlestick, the principles of its action first, the details of the methods of its manufacture afterwards. If this task is too great, it is better that the inventor should cease to deserve that name as soon as possible.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TRADE WITH THE SOUTH FREE.

PROCLAMATIONS BY THE PRESIDENT.

We gave in our last number the Proclamation of the President, under date of April 29th, removing certain restrictions on the trade with the South, and the rules and regulations of the Treasury Department in pursuance of the proclamation. The President has since then issued two further proclamations in the same liberal spirit, annulling all restrictions upon internal, domestic and coast-wise intercourse and trade, and also on foreign commerce east of the Mississippi, except contraband of war. Below will be found copies of these important official documents:

PROCLAMATION DATED MAY 22, 1865.

Whereas, by the proclamation of the President, of the 11th day of April last, certain ports of the United States therein specified, which had previously been subject to blockade, were, for objects of public safety, declared, in conformity with previous special legislation of Congress, to be closed against foreign commerce during the national will, to be thereafter expressed and made known by the President;

And whereas, events and circumstances have since occurred which, in my judgment, render it expedient to remove that restriction, except as to the ports of Galveston, La Salle, Brazos de Santiago, Point Isabel and Brownville, in the State of Texas;

Now, therefore, be it known, that I, ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, do hereby declare that the ports aforesaid, not excepted as above, shall be open to foreign commerce from and after the first day of July next; that commercial intercourse with the said ports may from that time be carried on, subject to the laws of the United States, and in pursuance of such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury. If, however, any vessel from a foreign port shall enter any of the before named excepted ports in the State of Texas, she will continue to be held liable to the penalties prescribed by the act of Congress, approved on the 13th day of July, 1861, and the persons on board of her to such penalties as may be incurred pursuant to the laws of war for trading or attempting to trade with an enemy.

And I, ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States of America, do hereby declare and make known that the United States of America do henceforth disavow to all persons trading or attempting to trade in any of the United States, in violation of the laws thereof, all pretence of belligerent right and privileges; and I give notice, from the date of this proclamation, all such offenders will be held and dealt with as pirates.

It is also ordered that all restrictions upon trade heretofore imposed in the territory of the United States east of the Mississippi river, save those relating to contraband of war, to the preservation of the rights of the United States, to property purchased in the territory of an enemy, and to the twenty-five per cent

upon purchases of cotton, are removed. All provisions of the Internal Revenue law will be carried into effect under the proper officer.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington this twenty-second day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five, and of the independence of the United States of America, the eighty-ninth.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President :

W. HUNTER, Acting Secretary of State.

PROCLAMATION DATED JUNE 13, 1865.

Whereas, by my proclamation of the 29th of April, 1865, all restrictions upon internal, domestic and commercial intercourse, with certain exceptions therein specified and set forth, were removed in such parts of the States of Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and so much of Louisiana as lies east of the Mississippi River, as shall be embraced within the lines of national military occupation; and whereas, by my proclamation of the 22d of May, 1865, for reasons therein given, it was declared that certain ports of the United States, which had been previously closed against foreign commerce, should, with certain specified exceptions, be reopened to such commerce on and after the 1st day of July next, subject to the laws of the United States, and in pursuance of such regulations as might be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury; and, whereas, I am satisfactorily informed that dangerous combinations against the laws of the United States no longer exist within the State of Tennessee; that the insurrection heretofore existing within said State has been suppressed; that within the boundaries thereof the authority of the United States is undisputed; and that such officers of the United States as have been duly commissioned are in the undisturbed exercise of their official functions: now, therefore, be it known, that I, ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, do hereby declare that all restrictions upon internal, domestic and coastwise, intercourse and trade, and upon the removal of products of States heretofore declared in insurrection, reserving and excepting only those relating to contraband of war, as hereinafter recited, and also those which relate to the reservation of rights of the United States to property purchased within the territory of an enemy, heretofore imposed in the territory of the United States east of the Mississippi River, are annulled, and I do hereby direct that they be forthwith removed, and that on and after the first day of July next all restrictions upon foreign commerce with said ports, with the exception and reservation aforesaid, be removed, and that the commerce of said States shall be conducted under the supervision of the regularly appointed officers of customs provided by law; and such officers of the customs shall receive any captured and abandoned property that may be turned over to them under the law by the military and naval forces of the United States, and dispose of such property as shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The following articles contraband of war are excepted from the effect of this proclamation: Arms, ammunitions, all articles from which ammunition is made, and gray uniforms and cloth.

And I hereby also proclaim and declare that the insurrection, so far as it relates to and within the State of Tennessee and the inhabitants of the said State of Tennessee, as reorganized and constituted under their recently-adopted constitution and reorganization, and occupied by them, is suppressed; and therefore, also, that all disabilities and disqualifications attaching to said State and the inhabitants thereof consequent upon any proclamations issued by virtue of the fifth section of the act entitled "An act further to provide for collection of duties on imports and for other purposes, approved the 13th day of July, 1861, are removed. But nothing herein contained shall be considered or construed as in anywise changing or impairing any of the penalties and forfeitures for treason

heretofore incurred under the laws of the United States, or any of the provisions, restrictions, or disabilities set forth in my proclamation bearing date the 20th day of May, 1865, or as impairing existing regulations for the suspension of the *habeas corpus* and the exercise of military law in cases where it shall be necessary for the general public safety and welfare during the existing insurrection; nor shall this proclamation affect or in any way impair any laws heretofore passed by Congress and duly approved by the President, or any proclamation or orders issued by him during the aforesaid insurrection abolishing slavery, whether of persons or property; but on the contrary, all such laws and proclamations heretofore made or issued are expressly saved and declared to be in full force and virtue.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

[L. s.] Done at the City of Washington, this thirteenth day of June, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty five, and of the independence of the United States the eighty-ninth.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President:

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of State.

PROCLAMATION DATED JUNE 24, 1865.

Whereas, it has been the desire of the General Government of the United States to restore unrestricted commercial intercourse between and in the several States as soon as the same could be safely done in view of resistance to the authority of the United States by combinations of armed insurgents; and whereas, that desire has been shown in my proclamations of the 29th of April, 1865, the 13th of June, 1865, and the 23rd of June, 1865; and whereas, it now seems expedient and proper to remove the restrictions upon internal, domestic and coast-wise trade and commercial intercourse between and within the States and Territories west of the Mississippi River; Now, therefore, be it known, that I, ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, do hereby declare that all restrictions upon internal, domestic and coast-wise intercourse and trade, and upon the purchase and removal of products of States and parts of States and Territories heretofore declared in insurrection lying west of the Mississippi River, (excepting only those relating to property heretofore purchased by the agents or captured by and surrendered to the forces of the United States, and to the transportation thereto or therein on private accounts of arms, ammunition, all articles from which ammunition is made, gray uniforms and gray cloth), are annulled, and I do hereby direct that they be forthwith removed, and also that the commerce of such States and parts of States shall be conducted under the supervision of the regularly appointed officers of the customs, who shall receive any captured or abandoned property that may be turned over to them under the law by the military or naval forces of the United States, and dispose of the same in accordance with the instructions on the subject issued by the Secretary of the Treasury.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

[L. s.] Done at the City of Washington this twenty-fourth day of June, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five, and of the independence of the United States the eighty-ninth.

By the President:

ANDREW JOHNSON.

W. HUNTER, Acting Secretary of State.

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SPECIAL ORDER OF THE INTERNAL REVENUE DEPARTMENT,

CONCERNING THE COLLECTION OF TAXES IN STATES LATELY IN INSURRECTION.

WASHINGTON, June 21, 1865.

The attention of all officers of Internal Revenue is hereby called to the follow-

ing regulations on the above subject, issued by the Secretary of the Treasury.

JOSEPH J. LEWIS, Commissioner.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 21, 1865.

Section 46 of the Internal Revenue Act, approved June 30, 1864, provides that whenever the authority of the United States shall have been re-established in any State where the execution of the laws had previously been impossible, the provisions of the act shall be put in force in such State, with such modification of inapplicable regulations in regard to assessment, levy, time and manner of collection, as may be directed by the Department.

Without waiving in any degree the rights of the Government in respect to taxes that have heretofore accrued, or assuming to exonerate the tax-payer from his legal responsibility for such taxes, the Department does not deem it advisable to insist at present upon their payment, so far as they were payable prior to the establishment of a collection district embracing the territory in which the tax-payer resides.

But Assessors in the several collection districts recently established in the States lately in insurrection, are directed to require returns, and to make assessments for the several classes of taxes for the appropriate legal period preceding the first regular day on which a tax becomes due after the establishment of the district—that is to say, in the several districts in question the proper tax will be assessed upon the income of the year 1864, inasmuch as the tax for that year is due upon the thirtieth day of June, subsequently to the establishment of the district. All persons found doing any business for which a license is required will be assessed for the proper license from the first day of the month in which the district is established.

Persons engaged in any business for which monthly or quarterly returns are required to be made will be assessed for the month or quarter for which returns should be made at the first return day after the establishment of the district; and the same principle will apply to those taxes which are payable at different periods. A manufacturer of tobacco, for instance, in a district, established after the first and before the twentieth day of May, will be assessed upon his sales for the month of April.

When any manufactured articles are found in the hands of a purchaser, and it is shown to the satisfaction of the Assessor that the goods were actually sold and passed out of the hands of the manufacturer before the commencement of the period for which he is properly taxable, the articles will not be subject to tax in the hands of such purchaser, unless transported beyond the limits of the States lately in insurrection.

The holder of any distilled spirits, manufactured tobacco, or other article which is liable to seizure on account of the absence of inspection marks, may present to the Assessor the evidence that the articles in his hands, or under the circumstances which obtain in the particular case, are not subject to tax, except as above stated; and, if the Assessor is satisfied, he will cause the packages to be so marked that they may be identified and sold without liability to seizure.

Whenever any Collector shall have reason to believe that the holder of any goods on which tax has not been paid intends to remove the same beyond the limits of the States lately in insurrection, and to evade the payment of the tax, he will seize the goods and take the necessary steps for their condemnation, unless the holder shall give bond, as hereinafter prescribed, for the transportation or exportation of the goods, or shall return the same to the Assessor, and pay to the collector the amount of tax that shall be found due. In all cases in which a seizure shall be made under these instructions, the Department, on being informed of such seizure, will consider the case, and extend such measure of relief as the facts shall justify.

In the States of Virginia, Tennessee, and Louisiana, collection districts were some time since established, with such boundaries as to include territory in which it has but recently become possible to enforce the laws of the United States.

In those districts, the rule laid down above will be so modified as to require the assessment and collection of the first taxes which become due after the establishment of assessment divisions in the particular locality.

Whenever assessments are to be made, based upon transactions which may have been carried on in a depreciated currency, it will be proper for the Assessor to ascertain the amount of the income, or value, or sales, or receipts, in lawful money of the United States, according to the best information which he can obtain as to the average value of such depreciated currency for the period covered by the assessment.

The duties upon cotton and spirits of turpentine are, by a special provision of the statute, made payable by the person in whose hands the articles are first found by officers of Internal Revenue. With reference to those articles, therefore, the rule laid down will not apply, but assessments will be made wherever they are found.

Whenever any person holds, as a purchaser, any articles which, under the Internal Revenue laws, may be transported under bond, and desires to transport the same to any Northern port or place, he may apply to the Assessor to have the amount of tax ascertained and determined. The proper examination having been had, the Assessor will certify the amount of duties thereon to the Collector, and the Collector will thereupon grant a permit for their removal, after the execution of a bond for their storage in bonded warehouse, such permit and bond being in the form required by the regulations for the establishment of bonded warehouses. On or before the tenth day of each month, the Assessor will transmit to the Office of Internal Revenue, a statement showing the amount of duties thus certified during the month preceding, and the Collector will, on or before the same date, transmit a descriptive schedule of all bonds thus taken by him in the course of the preceding month.

When goods arrive in any Northern port under such transportation bond, or under a permit issued by a Collector of Customs, under the regulations of May 9th, 1865, they will be received into the proper warehouse, established under the Internal Revenue laws, in the district into which the goods are brought, and the necessary certificates will be issued for the cancellation of the bond, in the same manner as if the goods were transported from another bonded warehouse. Whenever any person who is assessed for a license is found to have paid a license tax to a Special Agent, appointed under the regulations of the Treasury Department for commercial intercourse with insurrectionary districts, the Collector will issue a license for the year ending May 1, 1866, and will collect only so much as may be due for the time intervening after the expiration of the license issued by the Special Agent.

The amount assessed and thus left uncollected will be abated when the proper claim is presented to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue.

H. McCULLOCH,

Secretary of the Treasury.

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